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Critical
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THE
CRITICAL REVIEW:
OR,
Annals of Literature.

BY
A SOCIETY of GENTLEMEN.

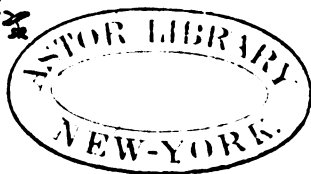
VOLUME the SIXTY-FIFTH.

——— *Nothing extenuate,
Nor set down aught in malice.*

SHAKSPEARE.

*Ploravere suis non respondere favorem
Speratum meritis———*

HOR.



L O N D O N,
Printed for A. HAMILTON, in Falcon-Court, Fleet-street.
MDCCLXXXVIII.

ADVERTISEMENT.

MANY years have elapsed since we addressed the Public on the Plan of the **CRITICAL REVIEW**. Their uniform encouragement, amidst the specious promises of numerous and plausible pretenders, rendered it unnecessary; for, to repeat our professions was superfluous, and we enjoyed that encouragement and protection which it is often the design of such addresses to solicit. We were always aware, that the existence of our Work was inseparably connected with our ardent, unremitting exertions. These have been continued amidst difficulties which will not occur to the inattentive enquirer, to those who do not reflect that a temperate praise seldom rises so high as the wishes of many authors, and that very warm encomiums are often more injurious than disapprobation. The slightest hint of dislike, and what is more unpleasing, the necessity of sometimes condemning the work which the author has probably looked on with a partial eye, must render us subject to all the obloquy which disappointment can bestow.—But we must not be drawn aside from the object of this address, which is designed to explain the reasons that have induced us to make some alteration in our plan.

Several circumstances concurred, at the commencement of our Review, which are now considerably varied. At that time the productions were fewer in number, and of less importance. The Foreign Intelligence was confined rather to works of entertainment than of utility; for our neighbours had not, then, made those advances in science which have enlightened a future period. On all these accounts, we were able to introduce a new source of entertainment; viz. works of art either undertaken or completed, without adding any additional burthen; without the necessity of an Appendix. But when we perceived our increasing avocations, our first step was to omit that part of our plan which was not intimately connected with a literary Review. This gave us additional scope, and rendered our work more compact and uniform; but we soon felt difficulties of the same kind.

At the conclusion of a tedious and perplexing war, when we renewed our connexions with the continent, which were for a

A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

time necessarily interrupted, we found a different scene; for our accumulations were then become so numerous, that we could not, with common justice, fulfil our duty within the usual limits. Two methods were then suggested to our determination; either to enlarge our common size, or to add, what we had so often rejected, an additional Number to each Volume. The former is more eligible; for our readers would at once see the necessity of the alteration, and be soon informed of the improvements of other nations. The latter is, however, most convenient; because intelligence from the continent is seldom regular. Besides, the English publications must be our principal object: to them we must attend with the anxiety of parents; with the attention dictated by the closest connections. In foreign works, we cannot always decide on the style and manner; we cannot enter on those minute details, which are so interesting in our own. It seems most useful, in some measure, to unite both plans; the more important and temporary subjects may be given under the article of Foreign Intelligence, and be rather a connected view of general attempts, than a broken detail of particular performances. Yet this alone will not give an adequate idea of foreign literature; and in this department something must be added. On the continent, many memoirs are published in miscellaneous collections, which cannot be the subject of our attention in a separate form: many works are announced, which are both curious and useful. These we shall collect in our current Numbers; and, while we are arranging our intelligence, we shall shortly mention those publications, connected with the subject, which our limits will not allow us to examine more particularly. On the whole, we hope to give an account which will be complete, though concise; and useful, though not attended with the formal repetition of titles.

The Appendix, at the end of each volume, will contain an account of those foreign works that are not of a temporary kind, and of those English publications which were necessarily omitted in the current Numbers. This addition arises from causes so evident and unavoidable, that we hope it will be favourably received, as we are confident it will appear, that the attempt is made only to render our Journal superior to every other in its ingenuity and candour; in the importance, novelty, and extent of its intelligence.

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THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For JANUARY, 1788.

Cyclopædia: or, an Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences.
By E. Chambers, F. R. S. Continued from vol. lxiv. p. 89.

WHEN we compared human knowledge to a vast tree, and spoke of the various subdivisions of sciences as its branches, whose bulk and importance differed as much as the number and magnitude of their ramifications, it was not a metaphor taken up by chance, or pursued without design. In this edition of the *Cyclopædia* the image is almost realized, by a new and valuable improvement, we mean an Index, where, under each science, the terms which belong, and, of course, the articles which refer to it, are arranged in alphabetical order. An addition of this kind gives a body and a consistency to the scattered limbs of which a Dictionary must necessarily consist: this Index unites the whole, and restores not only order, but the advantages which must arise from connected views. It is the guide which we referred to, in our Number for August last, with whose assistance we passed from the larger branch, to those lesser ramifications, which depend on it. We shall again take this faithful assistant, and give a comprehensive account of the other improvements and additions, for which we are indebted to Dr. Rees. Yet we ought not to leave it, without saying, that it seems to have been collected with care, and that the subjects are judiciously arranged.

In Botany many of the articles appear to be new, particularly those which relate to the different plants. The systems of Linnæus and Tournefort are explained with much precision, and illustrated by plates. The account of the tea tree, with the method of gathering and curing the leaves, is, in part new, and generally curious. Dr. Rees does not mention a suspicion, which has lately prevailed, that the different flavours are supposed to be owing to the mixture of leaves of different plants: that of Hyson is said to arise from the leaves of a species of olea; and, if tea be carefully examined, some leaves will be found of a less size, and a different shape, from those of the tea shrub.

VOL. LXV. Jan. 1788.

B

In

In Chemistry the editor has done much ; but he could only seize the science in the form it assumed, at the moment of his writing. Various improvements have since lessened the value of some of his articles. The table of elective attractions is imperfect : that of Bergman was first published in 1775, though we believe it was not commonly known in England till the year 1781. Perhaps Bergman's table was unknown to our editor when the article was completed.—Many new articles occur in this branch, as CALCINATION, DISTILLATION, *Woulf's Apparatus*, FURNACES. Chemical History of GOLD and PLATINA, &c. Many articles appear to be much enlarged : that on NITRE is very valuable, and contains the rudiments of all the modern methods of producing this salt. The articles of SULPHUR, VINEGAR, VITRIOL, and ZINC, seem, on comparison, to be in a great measure new.

In CHRONOLOGY we perceive many original articles, and, almost in every one, some additions and elucidations : the same may be observed of COINS : the table seems to be entirely new.

The subject of COMMERCE has not been so advantageously treated in any General Dictionary. The improved parts may be seen under the heads of BALLANCE *of Trade*, BANKER, BROKER, COMPANY, INSURANCE, NAVIGATION *Ad*, and POST. The histories of WOOL, SUGAR, and TOBACCO, seem to be wholly new.

Electricity might afford much room to enlarge, if our limits would admit of mentioning every alteration ; but we have already been obliged to step over several sciences, which we shall enumerate at the end. We already perceive that we cannot be diffuse, except on what is generally new, or particularly interesting. On the science before us many improvements occur ; and if we do not mention the particular ones, it is because we find them in every article. The facts are ascertained with accuracy, and related with precision. We believe that for all the scientific part of this subject, the introduction and explication of the terms that occur in this science, and the arrangement of the matter furnished by modern discoveries, we are indebted to the present editor.

We must make the same acknowledgments for what occurs under the head of Ethics. The subject of morals, since the time of Chambers, has been discussed with greater accuracy than in the period preceding him ; and the editor has freely used the labours of the best writers, to which he has added many observations that appear to be peculiarly his own. We would particularly mention the following articles, as, in our opinion excellent : APPROBATION, BENEVOLENCE *universal*

versal. DEFORMITY, EDUCATION, EMULATION, EVIL, GOOD *moral*, LIBERTY *moral*, PASSION, SENSE, VIRTUE, &c.

The subject of Fluxions, and all higher branches of the mathematics, are treated of with much clearness and precision. The invention of fluxions is attributed to sir Isaac Newton, and his claim is pretty fully established. The nature of fluxions is very well explained; and the application of this mode of calculus to other sciences, is pointed out with great propriety. The improvements chiefly occur in the following articles: CENTER, CYCLOID, EVOLUTE, INFLECTION, MAXIMA and MINIMA, POINTS of *contrary flexure*, QUADRATRIX and QUADRATURE of *Curves*, RADIUS of *Curvature*, RECTIFICATION of *Curves*, SPIRAL, TANGENTS, &c.

In Geography there are many original articles, and various additions to the old ones, those on the figure and magnitude of the EARTH, the EQUATOR, GLOBES, MAPS, ZONE, &c. are either new or enlarged. Dr. Halley's Theory of the heat of climates is clearly explained; and the objections of Dr. Rees have not only great force, but they contain a variety of well authenticated facts. The length only of this article prevents us from transcribing it, for the subject is very nearly connected with Mr. Kirwan's Estimate.

The various arts which belong to Gunnery are very well explained, and the scientific part is elucidated with the same mathematical skill which we have already had occasion to commend. The art of boring cannon is new, since the publication of the first edition, and it is included in this: *carro-nades* were, probably, invented since the publication of that part of the Dictionary, for the word does not occur; but their principles are, we believe, well known.

History is divided into various branches, Ecclesiastical, Civil, Natural, Sacred, and the History of Philosophy. In these different departments many additions constantly occur, which we are unable to mention particularly. The history of philosophy is chiefly the history of those institutions designed to promote it.—The academy for promoting the study of meteorology was, we believe, instituted by the elector Palatine, Theodore, at Manheim, after the period of this part of the Dictionary. We mention it as an addition to our author's collection, and as an institution from which much information is expected. The ancient Academia del Cimento appears too, rising from its ruins. It is re-established on a respectable footing; and they are pursuing their original plan of making experiments with great zeal.

Many of the articles under the head of Hydraulics are new. That very general and useful machine, the PUMP,

is described, in all its varieties, with great precision, and very comprehensively; the theory and construction of *FIRE-Engines*, with the gradual improvements and mode of application, are particularly described, and illustrated by corresponding figures. The editor has also subjoined, in a distinct article, an account of various other methods proposed for extinguishing fire. But what we consider as the principal improvement in this branch, is, the description of the different steam engines. We can find no account of any similar machine in the old edition; so that the whole appears to be the work of the present editor, and it is executed in his usual manner. A machine of this kind, whether we regard its very powerful effects, the simplicity of the contrivance, and its uniform motion, independent of assistance, is one of the greatest of human inventions, and one of which England may with justice boast. Captain Savary's original idea was undoubtedly taken from the marquis of Worcester; but the extent to which it has been since carried, the improvements which have been made, and the number of machines which have been since erected, would have exceeded the most sanguine expectations, even of that wild enterprizing mechanic. The machines made by Bolton and Watt are now preferred, and are undoubtedly the most simple, and managed with the least expence of fuel. The whole article relating to Water is written with great accuracy, and it adds to the credit of Dr. Rees, that no eagerness to reach the conclusion could make him lessen his diligence, or remit his attention. The branches of science which relate to water, viz. Hydrography and Hydrostatics, are executed with great care.

In Ichthyology are many new articles; and the fishes are arranged according to the systems of Artedi, the father of Ichthyology, as a science, and his follower Linnæus. The editor seems to have been desirous of rendering this work popular, as well as instructive to scientific readers. With this view he has not contented himself with the descriptions of the ichthyologist, but has interspersed a variety of useful observations on the migration of herrings, salmon, &c. on the structure of fish-ponds, with the method of breeding and feeding fish for the table, on the history and practice of fisheries, &c.

On insects there is much new information. The article of *ANTS* is newly arranged, and much additional instruction is inserted. The management of bees is equally improved; and their natural history explained more satisfactorily than in the former edition. We shall extract our author's account of M. Schirach's Observations.

It

It has been generally supposed, that the *queen* bee is the only female contained in the hive; that the drones are the males by which she is fecundated; and that the working bees are neutral, or of neither sex. But M. Schirach has lately established a different doctrine, which has been also confirmed by the later observations of Mr. Debrow. According to this writer, all the working or common bees are females in disguise; and the *queen* bee lays only two kinds of eggs, viz. those which are to produce the *DRONES*, and those from which the working bees are to proceed; and from any one or more of these, one or more *queens* may be produced; so that every worm of the latter or common kind, which has been hatched about three days, is capable, under certain circumstances, of becoming the *queen*, or mother of a hive. In proof of this doctrine, new and singular as it may seem, he alleges a number of satisfactory and decisive experiments, which have been since verified by those of Mr. Debrow. In the early months of the spring, and in any preceding month, even so late as November, he cut off from an old hive a piece of that part of the comb which contains the eggs of the working bees; taking care, however, that it contained likewise worms which had been hatched about three days. He fixed this in an empty hive, or box, together with a portion of honey-comb, &c. or in other words, with a sufficiency of food, and building materials, or wax, for the use of the intended colony. He then put into, and confined within the same box, a sufficient number of common working bees, taken from the same or any other hive. As soon as the members of this small community found themselves deprived of their liberty, and without a *queen*, a dreadful uproar ensued, which continued generally, with some short intervals of silence, for the space of about twenty-four hours; during which time it is to be supposed they were alternately meditating and holding council on the future support of the new republic. On the final cessation of this tumult, the general and almost constant result was, that they betook themselves to work; first proceeding to the constructing of a royal cell, and then taking the proper measures for hatching and feeding the brood inclosed with them. Sometimes, even on the second day, the foundations of one or more royal cells were to be perceived; the view of which furnished certain indications that they had elected one of the inclosed worms to the sovereignty. The operation has been hitherto conducted in the house. This new colony may now be safely trusted in the garden, if the weather be warm, and have the liberty allowed them of passing out of the box; of which they instantly avail themselves, and are seen in a short time almost totally to desert their new habitation. In about two hours, however, they begin to re-enter it. We should not neglect to observe, that if they should be placed near the old hive, from which they were taken, they will very often attempt to enter it, but are as constantly repelled by their former com-

panions and brethren. It is prudent, therefore, to place them at a distance from the mother state, in order to avoid the inconveniences of a civil war. The final result of the experiment is, that the colony of the working bees thus shut up, with a morsel of common brood, not only hatch it, but are found, at the end of eighteen or twenty days, to have produced from thence one or two *queens*; which have apparently proceeded from worms of the common sort, pitched upon by them for that purpose; and which, under other circumstances, that is, if they had remained in the old hive, there is reason to suppose would have been changed into common working bees. In the present instance, the common worm appears to be converted by them into a *queen* bee, merely because the hive was in want of one. Hence we may justly infer, that the kingdom of the bees is not, if the expression may be used, a *jure divino* or hereditary monarchy, but an elective kingdom; in which the choice of their future ruler is made by the body of the people, while she is yet in the cradle, or in embryo; and who are determined by motives of preference which will perhaps for ever elude the penetration of the most sagacious naturalists.

‘The conclusions drawn by M. Schirach, from experiments of the preceding kind, very often repeated by himself and others with the same success, are, that all the common or working bees were originally of the female sex; but that when they have undergone their last metamorphosis, they are condemned to a state of perpetual virginity, and the organs of generation are obliterated; merely because they have not been lodged, fed, and brought up in a particular manner, while they were in the worm state. He supposes that the worm, designed by the community to be a *queen*, or mother, owes its metamorphosis into a *queen*, partly to the extraordinary size of its cell, and its peculiar position in it; but principally to a certain appropriate nourishment found there, and carefully administered to it by the working bees, while it was in the worm state; by which, and possibly other means unknown, the development and extension of the germ of the female organs, previously existing in the embryo, is effected; and those differences in its form and size are produced, which afterwards so remarkably distinguish it from the common working bees.’

Dr. Rees very properly observes that M. Schirach has been too hasty in his description, in representing the queen bee as capable of laying eggs, before her connection with the drones, which in reality never happens. He has also confirmed, by a variety of observations, an opinion suggested by Maraldi and Reaumur, that there are drones of the same size as the common bees. These drones, which consume less honey than the larger ones, serve the purpose of supplying the early brood; but when the larger species appear, in April, they are destroyed.

Liquors

Liquors furnish an extensive department. **CYDER, MEAD, METHUEGLIN, MUM, QUASS, TOCAY, VINEGAR, and WINE,** are articles which have been greatly improved. Mr. Henry's method of making artificial yeast is also described; and though Mr. Henry's reasoning on the subject of fermentation is erroneous, the artificial yeast promises to be of service.

In Lithology there are many additions. Those which relate to the **DIAMOND** are very satisfactory. The various systems of lithology are shortly mentioned; but his collection is incomplete, independent of its not containing, from the time of publication, M. Daubenton's very extensive system. The latest crystallographers are not mentioned.

In Logic we observe among the new articles, and those to which valuable additions have been made, **ABSTRACTION, DEMONSTRATION, IDEA, IDENTITY, INDUCTION, INTUITION, METHOD, MODE, PROPOSITION, REASONING, SOPHISM, SYLLOGISM, WHOLE.**

In Magnetism we find an accurate account of Nairne's dipping needle, and of the different kinds of artificial magnets. This part of the subject is very complete. The comparison between electricity and magnetism is less so; *Æpinus's* theory, which is, in many respects accurate, and in every one ingenious, is only slightly hinted at.

Manufactures afford very numerous and extensive articles. In these branches there have been many improvements; and we may expect a proportional number of additions. We shall enumerate the subjects which are improved, and enlarge a little on those which are particularly curious. **BLEACHING, CANDLES, CHARCOAL, CHOCOLATE, and Delf Ware,** are articles which are somewhat extended. The latter, even with the additional articles of **GLAZING**, to which we are referred, is more short and incomplete than we wished, especially as our countrymen have lately so much improved it. The Staffordshire wares are described almost at the end of the article of Pottery; but the account is unsatisfactory, and a little incorrect: the editor refers to Porcelain, where no notice is taken of this new manufacture; but

' Opere in longo, fas est obrepere somnum.'

The article of **ENCAUSTIC PAINTING** is, on the other hand, much improved: yet, since it was written, the subject has been greatly elucidated, and imitations have been produced, little inferior to the ancient painting. The articles of **DYING, ENAMELLING, ENGRAVING, ETCHING, FOUNDRY of printing Letters,** the construction of **FURNACES,** and the art of **GILDING,** are improved. The different methods of gilding are very accurately and satisfactorily detailed. The next object

of great importance, in an account of manufactures, is GLASS. Its history is related; and, to the art of glazing, we perceive pretty numerous additions. We shall extract a part of the history of this invention, as a specimen of our author's talents in this department; and it shall be the part which relates to the introduction of the manufacture in England, which is now arrived to so great perfection, as to be a considerable article of commerce, and, what may appear a solecism in politics, to which it has probably arrived in consequence of the high duties imposed on it.

According to venerable Bede, artificers skilled in making *glass* were brought over into England, in the year 674, by abbot Benedict, who were employed in glazing the church and monastery of Weremouth. According to others, they were first brought over by Wilfrid, bishop of Worcester, about the same time. Till this time the art of making *glass* was unknown in Britain; though *glass* windows did not begin to be used before the year 1180: till this period they were very scarce in private houses, and considered as a kind of luxury, and as marks of great magnificence. Italy had them first, next France, from whence they came into England.

Venice, for many years excelled all Europe in the fineness of its *glasses*; and in the thirteenth century, the Venetians were the only people that had the secret of making crystal looking-*glasses*. The great *glass*-works were at Muran, or Murano, a village near the city, which furnished all Europe with the finest and largest *glasses*.

The *glass* manufacture was first begun in England in 1557: the finer sort was made in the place called Crutched Friars, in London; the fine flint *glass*, little inferior to that of Venice, was first made in the Savoy-house, in the Strand, London. This manufacture appears to have been much improved in 1635, when it was carried on with sea-coal or pit-coal, instead of wood, and a monopoly was granted to sir Robert Mansell, who was allowed to import the fine Venetian flint *glasses* for drinking, the art of making which was not brought to perfection before the reign of William III. But the first *glass* plates, for looking-*glasses* and coach-windows, were made in 1673, at Lambeth, by the encouragement of the duke of Buckingham; who, in 1670, introduced the manufacture of fine *glass* into England, by means of Venetian artists, with amazing success. So that within a century past, the French and English have not only come up to, but even surpassed the Venetians, and we are now no longer supplied from abroad.

The French made a considerable improvement in the art of *glass*, by the invention of a method to cast very large plates, till then unknown, and scarce practised yet by any but themselves and the English.

That court applied itself with a laudable industry to cultivate and improve the *glass* manufacture. A company of *glass*-men

men was established by letters patent ; and it was provided by an arret, not only that the working in *glass* should not derogate any thing from nobility, but even that none but nobles should be allowed to work therein.'

GOLD COLOURED METAL ; JAPANING ; INK *making* ; IVORY, *staining of* ; LACQUERING, MARBLE, *colouring of* ; PAPER *flock, bangings* ; PAPIER MACHE *Pastes* ; POT-ASHES, *various methods of making*, have equally shared the attention of the editor, and have received improvements from his collections. The history of Silk is extremely curious, and well executed. The receipts for silvering are well chosen, and many of them, we know, will answer well.

THE HISTORY of the SOCIETY of ARTS and ARTISTS is chiefly new ; and the whole process of the preparation of sugar is also new. The account of stocking-frames is greatly improved. What Dr. Rees has collected of the invention deserves notice, as it combines circumstances hitherto little known.

' But this account of the original inventor of the *stocking-frame* seems to be erroneous, as it is now generally acknowledged, that it was invented in the year 1589, by William Lee, M. A. of St. John's college, in Cambridge, a native of Woodborough, near Nottingham. Soon after he had completed the frame, he applied to queen Elizabeth for protection and encouragement, but his petition was rejected. Despairing of success at home he went to France, under a promise of being patronized and recompensed by Henry IV. and with nine of his servants, settled at Roan in Normandy. But Mr. Lee, disappointed by the sudden murder of the French monarch of the reward which he had reason to expect, died of a broken heart at Paris. After his death seven of his workmen returned with their frames to England, and, in conjunction with one Aston, who had been apprentice to Mr. Lee, and who had made some improvements in his master's invention, laid the foundation of this manufacture in England.

' In the space of fifty years the art was so improved, and the number of workmen so much increased, that they petitioned the protector to constitute them a body corporate, but their request was refused. King Charles II. in 1663, granted them a charter, extending their jurisdiction to ten miles round London. See COMPANY.

' Such is the account given of this invention by Dr. Deering in his History of Nottingham, p. 100. who has also described the *stocking-frame*, and exhibited several figures of this machine, and of the numerous parts of which it consists.

' Mr. Lee's invention, about twenty-eight years after we had first learned from Spain the method of knitting them by wires and needles, has proved a very considerable benefit to the *stock-*

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ing manufacture, by enabling England in after times to export vast quantities of *silk stockings* to Italy, &c. where, it seems, says Anderson (*Hist. Com.* vol. i. p. 435.) by sir Josiah Child's excellent Discourses on Trade, first published in 1670, they had not then got the use of the *stocking-frame*, though not much less than one hundred years after its invention. Yet Dr. Howell, in his History of the World (vol. ii. p. 222.) makes this invention eleven years later, viz. anno. 1600; and adds, that Mr. Lee not only taught this art in England and France, but his servants did the same in Spain, Venice, and in Ireland.

A late writer in the *Bibliotheca Topographia Britannica*, N^o 7, says that Mr. Lee, after some years residence in France, received an invitation to return to England, which he accepted, and that thus the art of frame work knitting became famous in this country. This account of the invention, he adds, is most generally received, though it has also been attributed to a Mr. Robinson, curate of Thurcaston, in Leicestershire. The first frame, we are told, was brought into Hinckley, before the year 1640, by William Iliffe; and now the manufacture of this town is so extensive, that a larger quantity of hose, of low price, in cotton, thread, and worsted, is supposed to be made there than in any town in England. The manufacture now employs about two thousand five hundred and eighty-five working people; the number of frames is computed at about one thousand, and there are also about two hundred in the neighbouring villages.

The editor is informed, that about the year 1756, Messrs. Jedidiah Strut and William Woollat of Derby, invented a machine, by which, when annexed to the *stocking frame*, the turned ribbed *stockings* are made the same with those made upon the common knitting-pins. These, together with the manner of making the open-work mills in imitation of the French mills, a curious sort of lace for caps, aprons, and handkerchiefs, as well as a great variety of figured goods for waistcoats, &c. have sprung from the same machine, and form a considerable additional branch of the *stocking trade*.

The other articles, under the head of Manufactures, which we find greatly improved, are, STAINING, SULPHUR, TANNING, TAPESTRY, and the *Manufacture of Carpets*, *Wood staining*, WOOL, History of, and the *Woollen manufacture*. YELLOW, ZINC. The receipts for varnishes are directed very properly, and they will generally succeed. The following is, we believe, not generally known.

VARNISH. The composition of a gold-coloured *varnish*, used by the English artists for brass and silver, was communicated to some of the French academicians in 1720, by Mr. Scarlet, and, in 1738, by Mr. Graham, and published in the volume of the French Memoirs for 1761. It is as follows: take two ounces of gum lac, two ounces of yellow amber, forty grains of dragon's blood in tears, half a dram of saffron, and

and forty ounces of good spirit of wine; infuse and digest in the usual manner, and then strain through a linen cloth. The piece to be varnished must be heated before the liquid is applied: it receives from the *varnish* a gold colour, and may be cleaned, when sullied, with warm water.

For the more delicate substances, and particularly for brass, we apprehend, that it is better to dissolve copal in spirit of lavender and spirit of wine; and a varnish of this kind, if it grows yellow by smoke, may be cleaned, by lightly wiping the print with a sponge dipped in spirit of wine. There is a greater difficulty, however, in dissolving copal, in any essential oil, than authors on this subject commonly suppose.

In the *Materia Medica* there are many new articles; and the contents of mineral waters occur under the term *WATER*. The articles, in this department, are generally short, but they seldom seem to be incorrect.

We hoped to have concluded our account of this vast and important work, in the present Number; but much remains to point out, though we have avoided engaging in extensive discussions. We shall return to the subject soon, and it will certainly be then finished.

A concise Account of the Kingdom of Pegu; its Climate, Produce, Trade, and Government; the Manners and Customs of its Inhabitants. By W. Hunter, A. M. Surgeon. 8vo. Printed at Calcutta.

THIS is a plain, and, apparently; a faithful account of a kingdom little known in Europe. Pegu is situated on the eastern side of the bay of Bengal, nearly opposite to Oriza, and to the north-east of the coast of Coromandel. Strictly speaking, the coast of Pegu runs east and west; for the country immediately opposite to the northern Circars is the kingdom of Ava, and the land forms an angle before we arrive at Pegu.

Pegu is a conquered country, and shares all the miseries of delated despotism: their conquerors are their northern neighbours of Ava; but the inhabitants of Pegu struggled hard for their liberty, and feel the weight of their chains so severely, that few years elapse without being distinguished by unsuccessful struggles for it. This country is of great consequence to our settlements in India, since, from it, they derive the most durable kind of wood which that neighbourhood produces. It is called the *teak-wood*, and it is not only useful for ship-building, but for various kinds of furniture. The wood from the neighbourhood of Bombay

is superior to it, but its distance renders it expensive. Tin is also found in that part of the continent, as well as a little gold; and bees wax is one of their staple commodities: their honey has a strong taste, and is said to be not only disagreeable, but unwholesome.

The Pèguers are spirited and warlike; but their northern neighbours excel them, in these qualities. Mr. Hunter mentions a strong instance of the spirit and perseverance of the invaders. A French frigate endeavoured to assist the Peguers, when the armies of the king of Ava attacked them: secure in their floating battery, they seemed to despise the anger of their enemies; but they were attacked at once by numerous boats; and though they defended themselves with spirit, and of course made the greatest devastation among their assailants, the frigate was boarded and taken.

In their manners, they seem to be open, generous, and hospitable: they have not the indolence or the jealousy of the eastern nations. To our East India Company they pay great respect, and whatever may be the motives of party, in detracting from the characters of their servants, it is certain, from indisputable facts, that they receive more attention, and are treated with greater regard in India than subjects of any other European nation. It is justly observed by Mr. Hunter, that travelling, and surveying the manners of other countries, not only enlarge our acquaintance with the human mind, but leads us to compare different customs, and sometimes show the absurdity of our own. In one or two instances, we suspected that he had tortured his representations, to make them more severe satires on our customs; but the plain and honest manner conspicuous in other parts of the work, soon destroyed the suspicion. We shall select a passage as a specimen, and shall prefer one in which we thought that we perceived the tendency just now mentioned.

‘ In the government of this country, we see despotism prevail in its full extent, and despotism too of the very worst kind; for the inhabitants are under the absolute power of a set of petty tyrants, who are themselves nothing more than slaves to the king of Ava. As they have little or no emolument, except what they can raise by extortion, it is exercised in the most unlimited manner. They take cognizance of all disputes between individuals, that come to their ears, without the case being laid before them by either of the parties; and on whatever side the cause is determined, there is a never failing charge brought in against both, for justice, as they express it; and this price of justice, is often three or four times greater, than the value of the matter in agitation.

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An instance of this kind fell under my own observation, in a trivial dispute, which happened between two English gentlemen, when the judges condemned each party to pay tripple the sum contested; for justice, which neither of them had ever thought of seeking at such a tribunal. Yet, however absurd this may appear, it is, perhaps, nothing more than a prejudice, arising from the force of habit, that makes us look with contempt and indignation on those mercenary retailers of justice, and yet feel no similar emotions, when we see, in a country famed for the wisdom of its government, a poor man, by appealing to the laws of that country, in a cause where equity is plainly on his side, reduced to ruin; merely because his antagonist is rich. But the inconveniencies that this government labours under are not only those of despotism, the unhappy subjects feel those of anarchy too. There are about twenty persons concerned in the government of Rangoon, who, though one is subordinate to another, and though matters of the first consequence are determined in a council of the whole, can yet act separately; and any one member of this body can, by his own authority, give out orders, which no inhabitant of Pegu dares to disobey. Those orders may be contrary to the sense of the whole body, in which case they are, indeed, reversed in council; but then there are instances, and I myself observed one, of such orders being, notwithstanding, repeated, more than once, by the same person, and obeyed, each time, till they were again reversed; nor was any redress obtained by the party aggrieved, or any effectual measures taken to prevent such a contempt of authority for the future.'

The country itself is low and sandy; but it is not unwholesome either to the natives or strangers: perhaps the tides, which rise with rapidity, and to great heights, produce a brisker circulation of the air than in other low spots; and, from the antiseptic exhalations, correct the impurities of that element. Mr. Hunter proposes that a settlement should be formed in this country, to procure wood of the best kind, and to obtain gold for the China market. The wood would be highly advantageous in case war was carried to the bay of Bengal, and the gold might, he thinks, be procured for opium, which is already a staple commodity. But till we have something more valuable than opium to offer, or a more varied assortment of merchandise, our returns from thence cannot be considerable.

The Appendix contains observations on the hair, and on the wool of sheep, in hot countries. Mr. Hunter endeavours to show that the degeneracy of the fleeces in warm climates is owing to relaxation; and that the hair is, in fact, an inspissated fluid, drawn out like the silk of the silk-worm, or the web of the spider. The relaxation is supposed to enlarge the pores through

through which it is drawn, and, in consequence of that enlargement, the hair must be larger, stronger, and thinner. These are changes which hair is supposed to undergo in warm climates; and this tendency, in the Spanish sheep, is said to be counteracted by ochre. We shall not add any observations on this subject, because our author has, in no respect, proved his different positions. It is probable that the changes in the hair, are remotely connected with relaxation, because they are connected with heat; but the heat seems to operate in a way, of which Mr. Hunter appears not to be aware. Indeed every part of the physiology of hair is yet uncertain.

Another part of the Appendix contains a description of some artificial caves, in the neighbourhood of Bombay. These caves are not only curious on account of the statues which they contain, but as they are found in a country where the indolence of the inhabitants resists every incitement to exertion. The sculpture is also represented to be executed in a good style. It is evidently not the work of the present inhabitants, as the features do not resemble them, and, it is not probable that they would ever engage in so laborious an undertaking: neither the style of the artists, nor the subjects, lead us to any suspicion of the authors. One of the statues is a woman with a single breast; but the fable of the Amazons is now exploded.—Another, and one conspicuous in different places, is a man pressing his hand on the head of a dwarf, who expresses great pain; but this too scarcely leads to any explanation. The soldiers of Alexander, we believe, never reached so far; and we must either refer these antiquities to the Arabians, who, we have reason to think, sometimes reached the opposite continent; to the Tyrians, who certainly navigated the Persian Gulf, or to the ships of Solomon, who went in the same track for gold. It is not necessary to examine, at any length, the different pretensions of these nations; but we have many reasons for referring them to the expeditions of Solomon.

Essays on the Hepatitis and Spasmodic Affections in India. By Thomas Girdlestone, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

DR. Girdlestone gives a more instructive and satisfactory account of the hepatitis, than we have yet received. He divides the complaint into the chronic, acute, and suppurative stages. The general form of the disease is the first, and it seems to arise from the very great relaxation necessarily brought on by the heat, which is peculiarly felt in the system of the vena portarum, on account of the slow circulation through these vessels. The acute stage is inflammatory.

tory, from errors in diet, or strong liquors; and the suppurative stage, which is chiefly observed by the hollow cough, or external tumor, in reality, by the abscess pointing either externally or towards the lungs, concludes the scene. In fact, the disease seems to be what our author calls the chronic stage: the acute one is accidental, and the suppurative rather the consequence. There are no certain pathognomonic to point it out. A languor, dejection of spirits, impaired appetite, and an uneasy sensation, when the finger is pressed pretty deep in the region of the liver, are the principal symptoms. Dysenteric gripes and stools frequently attend the progress.

The cure by means of mercury is well known. Our author explains its operation, with great probability, from its giving force and energy to the circulation. He prefers, however, mercurial ointment, used in friction, to mercury internally; and observes, that the more mercury is accumulated before the gums are affected, the success is proportionally more certain and complete. The gums, in this disease, are usually hard; but if they are soon inflamed by the mercury, before the system is generally affected, as appears to be the case when the medicine is given by the mouth, it loses its effect. It appears probable, from our author's observations and cases, that the affection of the gums is only the effect of the cure, not the cause of it; for the symptoms are usually relieved, in the best conducted cases, before the gums are inflamed. Perhaps the hardness of the gums prevents their being easily affected, and of course more mercury is accumulated than in ordinary cases, before its peculiar effects appear. When the mercury has been long continued, or frequently repeated, a salivation continues during the rest of life. The quantity of the ointment, recommended by our author, is a drachm of the strongest sort, every day.

The spasms of India are, in Dr. Girdlestone's opinion, the effects of cold. The extremities are unusually cold, and the stomach is exceedingly irritable. He recommends strong frictions, with warm cloths, injections of warm water, with tinctura thebaica, warm wine, with a solution of opium, given repeatedly, though at first thrown up: when the stomach retains the wine, the opium is omitted. His whole practice reminds us of a curious observation of Sydenham, who, in one of his epidemics, remarks, that he could not check the vomiting till he had brought on some determination to the surface.

We have thus given the outline of Dr. Girdlestone's opinions. Many curious and important remarks on diet,
and

and the other medicines useful in hepatitis, must be learned from the work itself. It contains the dictates of experience, assisted by a careful attention and a correct judgment.

An Essay on Phlogiston, and the Constitution of Acids. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Elmly.

THE heresy of Mr. Lavoisier has divided the chemical world; and though the sects of the Phlogistians and Antiphlogistians may not become so important as some others, whose titles resembled each other more nearly, yet they have given a diversity to the language of chemistry, and a different appearance to the facts on which the science is built. Mr. Kirwan is a very able and intelligent chemist; he enters his protest against the doctrine of Mr. Lavoisier; suggests some alteration in his system, respecting the composition of acids, and supports, but with no very good grace, the discovery of the composition of water. In our enquiries, we have had reason to join Mr. Kirwan: we early engaged in support of phlogiston, while we gave the French chemist full credit for the discoveries respecting acids: after a pretty careful examination also of the controversy, we gave it, as our opinion, that the theory of the composition of water was probably well founded. Mr. Kirwan, in this work, differs in some measure from Lavoisier, and thinks that the oxygenous principle, which the French chemist supposed to be vital air, divested of its specific heat, is in reality fixed air. We must own, that his arguments and experiments, on this subject, have not brought full conviction; for though he has repeatedly extracted fixed air from those bodies which possess the oxygenous principle, yet the quantity is uncertain, sometimes trifling, and very generally unequal to the changes produced. We should rather recur to our former position, and suppose that, in such circumstances, atmospheric air is absorbed; but that its appearance, when separated, depends on the affinity which the body, in question, may have for its component parts; so that the pure and fixed, or the phlogisticated portions, are alone suffered to escape. Mr. Kirwan professes his full belief of the doctrine of the composition of water, but is unwilling to acknowledge that, in any process, it is decomposed. It is indeed highly probable that the decomposition of water is less frequent than some theorists, to serve their own purposes, have supposed. We must, however, examine this little work in its order.

Mr. Kirwan begins with ascertaining the weight of given bulks of different airs, and we shall at once give his decision

on

on those subjects by transcribing his table; but we should add, that his determinations are as just as his premises are accurate.

100 Cubic Inches.	Gr.	Proportion to common air.
Common air	31	1000
Dephlogisticated	34	1103
Phlogisticated	30,535	985
Nitrous	37	1194
Vitriolic	70,215	2265
Fixed	46,5	1500
Hepatic	34,286	1106
Alkaline	18,16	600
Inflammable	2,613	84,3

The second section is on the nature of acids, and the general principles of the new theory. In this section he adopts Mr. Lavoisier's system of an oxygenous principle, though he differs from that author in its nature. He restores too, on its native throne, the old principle of phlogiston. Indeed, in every instance where the modern heretics suppose vital air to be concerned, Mr. Kirwan would substitute fixed air; though, if the existence of phlogiston be allowed, the difference is not of great consequence, since vital air contaminated by it, in certain proportions becomes fixed air: and even in metallic calces, there is phlogiston enough to produce this change, which will appear when the air is separated. There is little doubt of the existence of this principle in some acids; but it is not equally evident in all. Mr. Lavoisier's table of the different affinities of the oxygenous principle is introduced; but is combated in almost every part: it is the object of Mr. Kirwan's criticism, and very deservedly, through the whole volume.

On the vitriolic acid our author's observations are not very numerous, its acidifying ingredient is supposed to be fixed air; and, when volatile, he thinks it contains also sulphur. Though Mr. Kirwan seems to acknowledge that, in its formation, pure air is absorbed, he thinks it becomes fixed air, as a component part of the acid. Different arguments and experiments are adduced in support of this opinion; but they chiefly amount to this, that fixed air is separated from it in different experiments. Our author is more explicit, and on a better foundation, when he shows that this acid becomes sulphur only on the addition of a positive principle.

Mr. Kirwan's section on the nitrous acid is a very valuable one, and considerably improves our knowledge of the nature of this very useful agent. Nitrous acid is composed, in our author's opinion, of nitrous basis, his oxygenous principle, united to a small proportion of phlogiston: in other words,

of fixed, pure, phlogisticated, and inflammable airs. Nitrous air, he supposes, consists of the nitrous basis, saturated with phlogiston; but it is not, in his opinion, a component part of the nitrous acid: that office is assigned to fixed air, and we regret that the length of our author's arguments, and the particular relation of his experiments, must prevent our abridging or extracting them. Yet, as we have said that the proportion of fixed air is sometimes too small to admit of its being considered as a component part, we ought to insert our author's mode of obviating the objection.

‘It may be said with great appearance of truth, that the proportion of fixed air, thus obtained, is too small to deserve to be ranked among the constituent parts of the nitrous acid. Before I answer this objection, it will be proper to determine in what proportion it should be contained in this acid; this proportion, as we have already seen, is variable, the phlogisticated acid containing least, and the dephlogisticated most; but, in general, we may raise it at $\frac{1}{3}$ of the acid, as existing in nitre. When the nitre is exposed to a red heat, the union of the constituent parts of the acid is gradually broken; that part of the acid which is at the surface of the alkali, being in contact with the water, which is the most volatile ingredient, is not so strongly acted upon by heat, but passes undecomposed. The residuary nitrous acid becoming now more and more concentrated, decomposes its own fixed air, and thereby becomes more and more phlogisticated. This phlogistication continues to the last, the retained part always dephlogisticating that which escapes, until it is itself at last forced out; and hence the last portion is the most impure, and even contains nitrous air.

‘That fixed air may be decomposed in this manner, appears from sundry other experiments; for instance, that in which Dr. Priestley obtained dephlogisticated air from acetous selenite, 6 Pr. 292. and also, that in which both he and Mr. Lavoisier obtained air nearly of the goodness of common air, from limestone, after the greater part of the fixed air had passed. 6 Pr. 227.

‘To make this matter still more intelligible, it must be observed, that if nitre be heated ever so long, yet if we examine it at any period before its total decomposition, no part of the acid will be found phlogisticated, but that near the surface, which, in the instant of its extrication, is dephlogisticated by the portion of the acid next under it, which then becomes phlogisticated, and is in the same manner decomposed in its turn, by the next inferior stratum; and this process continues until the whole is decomposed. This I have found, by pouring nitrous acid on melted nitre, which never expelled any more than a small portion of nitrous vapour; hence, Mr. Berthollet imagined that Mr. Bergman was deceived in asserting that phlogisticated nitre might be decomposed by the acetous acid; for, in effect, it can decompose but a small part of it, as only a small part of any portion of melted nitre is really phlogisticated; even dephlogisticated

eated air from red precipitate, contains a portion of fixed air, as Dr. Priestley, Mr. Lavoisier, and Mr. Monge have observed.'

Mr. Kirwan next shows, that the dephlogisticated air, supposed to arise from nitre, cannot, as has been suspected by Mr. Cavendish, and others, proceed from the decomposition of water; and he examines with great care the different results from the decomposition of nitre by detonation with charcoal. He concludes, from the result of this experiment by Lavoisier, and from the detonation of nitre with sulphur by Berthollet, that fixed air is actually formed by pure and inflammable air; that the phlogisticated air, of which nitrous acid pretty certainly contains $\frac{1}{3}$, is decomposed or destroyed in the operation; and that nitrous air does not consist of nitrous acid, with the addition of phlogiston. He then examines pretty fully the famous experiment which first suggested the antiphlogistic theory to M. Lavoisier; viz. the calcination of mercury, by means of the nitrous acid, and its revivification by heat: when, in the first instance, it is seen copiously to absorb pure air; and, in the second, to let it escape, while the different airs, into which the nitrous acid appears to be decomposed, make up, according to his calculation, the weight of the real acid employed. In this instance it appears to be calcined by absorbing pure air, and to be revived by losing it: no other power seems to be engaged in the operation. But this experiment Mr. Kirwan criticises with his usual accuracy, and shows that the conclusion is drawn both hastily and unfairly; he afterwards gives the phlogistic explanation of this experiment.

Mr. Kirwan then considers the marine acid, in which he thinks fixed air is the oxygenous principle; and the dephlogisticated marine acid, in his opinion, is only the common acid with an increased quantity of fixed air. In this section his theory seems to fail; and we begin to find the clue which appears to have misled him. It is perhaps improper, in any sense, to suppose the oxygenous principle to be one, which is already an acid; for it may be at once asked, what gives to fixed air its acidity? The tortoise then is only put under the elephant. Our author, however, whose ingenuity is considerable, and whose resources, from the extent of his chemical knowledge, are unbounded, finds great support for his opinion in different facts. But it cannot escape an attentive reader of his work, that his arguments are most striking where the acid contains phlogiston, in any quantity, and less so where that quantity is inconsiderable. He is of course led to suspect that the fixed air, which is the result of the decomposition, is either that portion which is absorbed from the atmosphere, or produced by an accidental contamination. In a former Review, we gave an account of M. Berthollet's very accurate and instructive experiments on

the change which the marine acid undergoes when it becomes dephlogisticated ; and we confess, that Mr. Kirwan has not, in our opinion, shown that the principle added is fixed, instead of pure air.

Aqua regia is the next object of our author's attention. He explains the formation of this powerful agent on his own principles, and combats with good success the theory of M. Berthollet, on this subject.

The phosphoric acid affords much room for triumph over the antiphlogistians. The existence of phlogiston in phosphorus is well established by experiments, which Messrs. Lavoisier and Berthollet have found it equally difficult to elude, or to oppose. While it contains phlogiston, it contains fixed air ; but the glacial acid is exempt both from phlogiston and from the acidifying principle : it is, in reality, the basis of the acid, and its readiness to receive the former constitutes its utility as a chemical agent.

When we arrive at the vegetable acids, fixed air becomes a very conspicuous principle. We long ago hinted, that these acids may be only a concrete form of the aerial acid ; and new discoveries give a force and a probability to our suspicion. Our author's principle may be here allowed if the terms are changed, and we suppose that, in vegetable acids, fixed air is not the oxygenous principle, but the acid itself variously modified, probably by a greater or less proportion of phlogiston. Vegetable acids are resolvable into fixed, inflammable, and phlogisticated airs, of which the two latter are pretty certainly forms of phlogiston and specific heat, though the inflammable air is not a constant, or always a very copious ingredient. The basis of sugar is supposed to be a fine ætherial oil, and the acid to be the oil with a large proportion of fixed air, and with less phlogiston than in its saccharine state. This view of the subject differs from that which we have been used to take, more in appearance than in reality. We have supposed that the acid pre-exists in the sugar, and is only evolved in the operation ; but, whether sugar is a sulphur, whose acid is obscured by a large proportion of phlogiston, or whose fixed air is obtained from the basis of the nitrous acid, is of little consequence. The constitution of the acid remains the same ; but we may add that M. Hermitadt's experiments strongly support our opinion : they were contained in our Foreign Intelligence of last month. Mr. Kirwan has properly shown that the saccharine acid contains phlogiston ; and that its oxygenous principle is very probably fixed air.

Having finished the examination of the acids, Mr. Kirwan proceeds to the strong hold of the antiphlogistians, viz. the calcin-

calcination and reduction of metals, and the formation of fixed air. We need not now explain the new system, nor that of Mr. Cavendish, who supposes, that the imperfect metals take in water, during their calcination, while, in the more perfect ones, it is indifferent whether they or the water lose the principle of inflammability. We shall extract, however, our author's arguments, against the supposition, that water is decomposed in these processes,

‘ And in effect, if we consider the decomposition of water in this case, in a chymical point of view, it cannot but appear exceeding improbable; every decomposition arises either from a single or a double affinity; therefore, if, during the dissolution of iron in the dilute vitriolic acid, water is decomposed, this must happen either by virtue of a single or of a double affinity; yet neither can be said to take place; not a double affinity, since the inflammable air escapes without uniting to the acid; not a single affinity, since there is no proof that any such affinity exists in this case; and if it did exist, water should as easily be decomposed by iron without an acid, as when an acid is present, or rather more easy, since the affinity to the water must diminish its tendency, or that of any of its component parts, to unite to any other substance, and on that account we find a variety of solutions precipitated by the vitriolic acid, merely because it attracts the water necessary to hold them in solution. I would be glad to know what part the acid acts here; in the new theory it seems to be quite idle, and contributes nothing to the solution. Why does not its oxygenous principle unite to the inflammable air of the water, at the same time that the oxygenous principle of the water unites to the metal: since, by the table of Mr. Lavoisier, this principle has a greater affinity to inflammable air than to sulphur. How comes it that volatile vitriolic acid disengages inflammable air from iron? since its own oxygenous principle is sufficiently developed, and sufficiently copious to unite to iron, without having recourse to that of water. How does fixed air expel inflammable air from iron? Do all acids help the decomposition of water, and yet remain inert?’

Again,

‘ It is true that vitriol of iron, when distilled, gives at last dephlogisticated air; but this air evidently proceeds from the decomposition of part of the acid, and not from that of the water; for its production is always preceded by a large quantity of vitriolic air, arising from the absorption of part of the fixed air of that acid, by the metallic calx.

‘ To prove the decomposition of water, Mr. Lavoisier made the following experiments: 1st. He let up a mixture of water and filings of iron, into a tube filled with mercury, and in a few days obtained a small quantity of inflammable air. 2dly. Having passed the steam of boiling water through a red-hot iron tube, he obtained a large quantity of inflammable air; the inner sur-

face of the tube was calcined, and had the appearance of what is called the *specular*, or *tessular iron ore*, of great hardness, scarcely magnetic, and affording no air with acids. The iron increased in weight from 25 to 30 per cent.

'These experiments seem to me to prove nothing more than that water unites to iron, and expels inflammable air from it, which is further confirmed by the following considerations: if a little water be thrown on a large heap of filings of iron, a considerable heat is soon produced, which appears to proceed from the condensation of the water while uniting to the iron; the heat given out exceeding that absorbed by the inflammable air, whose weight is exceeding small. In Mr. Lavoisier's hypothesis, it is only the oxygenous principle of the water, which is absorbed by the iron; and as this is already exceedingly condensed in water, it does not appear to me likely to give out much heat. 2dly. This calx is very different from that formed by the absorption of air, such as rust; for fixed air may be extracted from this, and even dephlogisticated air; but no air of any sort can be extracted from iron calcined by water.'

Dr. Priestley's experiments, which our author thinks make against the new doctrine, are next examined: they have already had a place in our Journal. Mr. Lavoisier's other experiments to the same purpose, on the effects of steam on charcoal, prove, in our author's opinion, no more than that steam has the power of decomposing both charcoal and the iron tube in which it was contained. He next endeavours to show, that metals, in calcination, absorb fixed air, and endeavours to elude the objection that fixed air is not to be recovered from calces in a sufficient quantity to support that opinion, by observing that the phlogiston is greedily absorbed by the reduced metal. It must chiefly appear then, when any neighbouring body can afford them that phlogiston, though he forgets that the fixed air may be as well produced from these neighbouring bodies. Indeed this whole section greatly supports the opinion which we gave in the commencement of this article. In calcinations, in the moist way, fixed air is more conspicuous; but it is impossible to elude the suspicion of the water being, in some degree, concerned in the production. The rest of the section is employed in combating Mr. Lavoisier's opinions, in which the author is generally successful.

The next section is on the dissolution of metals, in which Mr. Kirwan departs somewhat from the usual doctrine, in support of fixed air; but he confutes the antiphlogistians, particularly from the affinities of different acids to metals in different states of calcination. He shows also, that the new system is incapable of explaining the precipitation of metals by each other. In fact, however simple in appearance, and however easy the solution of some phenomena may appear, when viewed

through the medium of Lavoisier's system, yet when every operation is brought to the test of it, difficulties unforeseen, and contradictions unsuspected, continually arise. It is specious, but it is delusive. Mr. Kirwan has contributed his share to destroy this dangerous monster; particularly dangerous, because it allures by a pleasing form and a flattering address.

The volume concludes with some remarks on the properties of iron in its different states, and its conversion into steel. The facts are chiefly taken from Bergman's third volume, and have been the subject of our former consideration: the explanation contributes to support the doctrine of phlogiston. On the whole, Mr. Kirwan's work has contributed greatly to our instruction; and if we ever differ from him, it is with hesitation and diffidence; for his extensive knowledge, no less than his amiable candour, demand our highest respect.

Addresses to the Deity. By James Fordyce, D. D. 2d Edition. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cadell.

WHEN we compare the simple and unadorned language of the prayer dictated by our Saviour for our use, with the splendid pomp of words in which the Deity is sometimes addressed; when we see the genuine language of resignation conclude the petition which we have ventured to raise to the throne of grace; and, on the other hand, survey the confidence with which some preachers have arrogated to themselves, and their sect, the favour of the Almighty, disgust and indignation but weakly express the feelings which they excite. To expatiate, indeed, on the perfections and the attributes of the Deity, may render the mind more sensible of our entire dependence on him, and teach us to bear with a calm resignation, or a proper fortitude, the dispensations of Providence; but, in this flowery path, it is too common to hear a full display of brilliant imagery, till the suppliant is lost in the poet; and what was designed to be a prayer, becomes an eulogetic meditation, while minute descriptions and insignificant details debase the subject which they were intended to heighten and to adorn. These are two very distant and almost opposite errors; but Dr. Fordyce is more frequently guilty of the last; and he has indeed acknowledged that these Addresses are rather contemplations than supplications. They chiefly consist of sentiments arising, in different situations, in a well regulated mind, which feels that God is manifested in all his works, and that in goodness he has made them all. This is a noble and extensive field; and the view of the sea, the subject of one of the Addresses, is a peculiarly happy one. The author, however, sinks too low when he mentions the use of salt to preserve meat. The other

subjects of the Addresses are on salvation by Christ; on contemplation; on Providence; and on the death of Dr. Samuel Johnson. The last Address is not a very proper subject; for the author addresses the world more often than the Deity, who surely was not to be informed of doctor Johnson's opinions, or the state of his mind on his death-bed.

We shall select, as a specimen of the Preface, Dr. Fordyce's sentiments on the conduct of our devotions.

‘Wherever the vital and unadulterated spirit of Christian devotion prevails, its immediate object will be to please Him whom we were made to please, by adoring his perfections; by admiring his works and ways; by entertaining with reverence and complacence the various intimations of his pleasure, especially those contained in holy writ; by acknowledging our absolute dependence, and infinite obligations; by confessing and lamenting the disorders of our nature, and the transgressions of our lives; by imploring his grace and mercy through Jesus Christ; by interceding for our brethren of mankind; by praying for the propagation and establishment of truth, righteousness, and peace on earth; in fine, by longing for a more entire conformity to the will of God, and breathing after the everlasting enjoyment of his friendship. The effects of such a spirit, habitually cherished, and feelingly expressed before him, with conceptions more or less enlarged and elevated, in language more or less emphatical and accurate, sententious or diffuse, must surely be important and happy. Among these effects may be reckoned a profound humility in the sight of God, a high veneration for his presence and attributes, an ardent zeal for his worship and honour, an affectionate faith in the Saviour of the world, a constant imitation of his divine example, a diffusive charity for men of all denominations, a generous and unwearied self-denial for the sake of virtue and society, a total resignation to Providence, an increasing esteem for the Gospel, with clearer and firmer hopes of that immortal life which it has brought to light.’

From the too splendid imagery of the descriptive part we can select no very advantageous passage. Perhaps in the following paragraph the reader will perceive, more clearly, the rational and religious sentiments of the author.

‘When men dispute the truth of a particular Providence, as unworthy of Thee, and inconsistent with the general order of thy proceedings, their thoughts are narrow, and their objections vain. They forget that it was easy for thy wisdom, from the beginning to include in thy comprehensive plan, whatever occasional dispensations might in the progress of ages seem fit to thy rectitude or thy goodness. They forget, that those dispensations are doubtless calculated to carry on the same benevolent and righteous ends, for which the prevailing constitution of thy government was originally devised. They forget, that the hearts
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of all are in thy hand, and that by the immediate influence of thy Spirit, or the subordinate agency of mortal or immortal instruments, Thou canst turn them whithersoever Thou wilt, in a manner productive of measures and events connected with the welfare or chastisement of thy subjects, at the instant that they feel themselves free. Great God, what solicitude to please, what fear of offending Thee, what thankfulness for every merciful interposition, and every gracious assistance, should not these considerations inspire? What fervent prayers for thy continued protection and aid? Oh defend me, thy feeble servant, from such calamities as might overwhelm my nature; or let thy powerful arm support me under them; and keep me, I beseech thee, from such temptations as might seduce my steps from the path of integrity. So dispose and govern my heart, that I may think, and act, and live, as in thy presence, with a sacred regard to thy authority, and never wilfully sin against Thee."

While these Addresses display the piety and benevolence of the author, they do not give, in our opinion, a favourable idea of his judgment, except indeed, as we have reason to conclude from the passage which we have selected from the Preface, he sees the right road, though he travels in one not so well adapted for his purpose.

Interesting Views of Christianity: being a Translation of Part of a Work of M. Bonnet. 12mo. 2s. 6d. in Boards. Dilly.

Philosophical and Critical Enquiries concerning Christianity. By Charles Bonnet, of Geneva, F. R. S. Translated by John Lewis Boissier, Esq. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Stockdale.

MR. Bonnet, very early, attempted to counteract the disadvantageous impressions which some of his philosophical works had made, by publishing a treatise in defence of Christianity. The *Palingenésie Philosophique* was published at Geneva, in 1769; and, the following year, another edition appeared, which, nearly about the same time, was followed by a separate publication of that part which related to Christianity. It is this separate part which our present author has seen, and from which his translation is taken. In Mr. Bonnet's new work, he divided the observations into chapters; and on the appearance of a second edition of the *Recherches sur les Preuves de Christianisme*, in 1771, was added a chapter on the proofs of the existence of a God. When our author's works were collected at Neufchatel, the separate part was again incorporated with the *Palingenésie*; and those who are possessed of the complete edition will find that this work forms the 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, and 21st parts of the *Palingenésie*. We have some reasons to suspect that the translation has followed the edition of 1770. The

The *Recherches* are not translated entire : of the 17th and 18th parts an abstract only is given, but it is a correct one ; and as, in this abstract, the translator does not particularly allude to the 2d and 3d sections, which we have mentioned as added to the former work in 1771, we suppose that he followed a prior edition. We mention this the more carefully, because what we shall say of the translation may, in some measure, arise from the variety of the two editions employed. Our's is that of Neufchatel ; but we have no reason to suspect, from M. Bonnet's Preface, that the variety is considerable.

The work itself is clear, comprehensive, and judicious. The arguments are connected with the brevity and force which render M. Bonnet's works singularly striking, and powerfully persuasive. The chain of evidence is no less complete than well connected : in fact, few works, without any great novelty of argument, have so greatly assisted the cause of Christianity. It cannot be new to many of our readers, and we must of course decline engaging in a particular account of it.

From the translator's abstract we were convinced that he understood the author's system very accurately ; and we supposed that he could not have easily erred, in rendering the meaning of words when he was in possession of the ideas. Yet, either from haste, or some other cause, we found several little errors very early. We, therefore, compared a few of the first chapters with the original, and we shall mention some of the errors, chiefly to recommend a careful revision, previous to another edition. In the greater number of passages, the sense is rendered not only with fidelity, but with great propriety.

Even in the beginning, 'suitableness,' seemed a word which we could have wished had been avoided. Soon afterwards, the 'unction' of language obliterated the lesser error, by the absurdity of the greater. We know, that the original word is 'onction' ; and that there is seldom any other meaning for it in dictionaries. But it could not be properly applied ; and a little enquiry might have discovered what was meant. Onction sometimes signifies grace ; and, when applied to language, that venerable air which religion imparts ; or, in a bad sense, that religious cant which superstition or imposture often affect.

To 'attest to mankind,' is the English of 'attester au genre humain' ; but we wish it had been an English idiom, and that the evangelists had been said to bear witness to a truth. If they bear witness, mankind would be a pleonasm. After a few pages, we meet with a still greater fault. The apostles are said to have 'performed greater things than their master did.' This is neither true, nor the language of Bonnet : our translator is occasionally too eager.

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The second section is more correct; we shall transcribe a Part of it as a specimen :

‘ I know that several parts of the deposition appeared in a very short time after the events, attested by the witnesses. If these are the work of any impostor, he will undoubtedly take great care not to be very circumstantial in his narrative, that he may not furnish the ready means of his own confusion. Nothing, however, can be more circumstantial, than this deposition now before me: in it I find the names of several persons, their quality, their offices, their places of abode, their maladies: I see places, times, circumstances, distinctly marked, and a hundred other minute details; all which concur in determining the event most precisely. In a word, I cannot doubt, but that if I had lived in the place, and at the time in which the deposition was published, it would have been very easy for me to ascertain the truth of the facts. *And this surely I should not have failed to do: would it have been neglected by the most obstinate and powerful enemies of the witnesses?*

‘ I search therefore in the history of the times, for depositions formally contradicting the deposition of the witnesses, and meet with nothing but vague accusations of imposture, of magic, or of superstition. Upon this I put the question to myself, whether a circumstantial deposition can be destroyed by such vague and indefinite imputations?

‘ But, perhaps, say I to myself, the depositions which formally contradicted that of the witnesses, are lost. Why was not the deposition of the witnesses also lost? Because it has been preserved as a most valuable treasure, by a numerous society which still subsists, and which has transmitted it to me. But I discover another society, equally numerous, and much more ancient, which being descended, by uninterrupted succession, from the first adversaries of the witnesses, and inheriting their hatred and prejudices against Christianity, could have as easily preserved those counter depositions, as the many other monuments, which at this day it produces with so much complacency, though many of them tend to betray and confound it.

‘ Besides, I perceive very strong reasons, which must have engaged this society to preserve with the utmost care all the writings in opposition to those of the witnesses; I have particularly in my eye that most weighty and most odious accusation, which the witnesses had so uniformly, so repeatedly, and with such unparalleled courage, dared to charge upon the magistrates of this society, and the astonishing success of the testimony given to the facts upon which they grounded their accusation. How easily could magistrates, who had in their hands the management of the police, have judicially contradicted this testimony! How much were they interested to do so! What might not have been the effect of a judicial and circumstantial deposition, bearing on every page a refutation of that of the witnesses?

Since, therefore, the society, of which I am speaking, can,
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not produce in its own favour a deposition of this sort, I am justly authorised to think, that it never could advance any valid objection against the witnesses.

'It comes strongly into my mind, that the friends of the witnesses, after they became powerful, might have destroyed the writings adverse to their cause. But they have not been able to destroy this great society, their declared enemy; and they did not become powerful till many ages after the event, which was the principal object of the testimony. I am, therefore, obliged to abandon a supposition, which appears to be destitute of foundation.'

In the passage marked by Italics, it would have been more neat, and more near to the original, if the translator had said, 'And, would this, which I should not have failed to *have done*, been neglected, by the most inveterate and most powerful enemies of the witnesses?' After 'justly authorised to think,' M. Bonnet adds, on the principles of sound criticism.

We have mentioned these little oversights with no ill design. The translator's object was good, and his execution, in many respects, excellent. If we had been of his counsel, we should have recommended his translating the two volumes entire; and if his present work reaches another edition, a little care will correct these minute errors.

When this article was ready for the press, we received another translation of this interesting work. From a careful comparison of the translations with each other, and with the original, we are convinced of the justness of our suspicion, that the former translator had seen only the separate edition of 1770.

M. Boissier's version is, in respect of accuracy and elegance, greatly superior to the other. The errors which we have just mentioned in the first translation, he has avoided, and rendered the passages, as we have done. To this there is one exception; he still retains 'attest to mankind;' a defect of idiom rather than an inaccurate version.

In the passages which we have compared, the translation is extremely correct. If we were to be fastidious, we might observe that he has not preserved the expressive brevity of the original; but, aiming probably at perspicuity, is occasionally a little too diffuse. Though this may be assigned as a general character, yet the greatest fault, which we have discovered, is of an opposite kind; we shall select the author's translation, and render it more nearly in the spirit of Bonnet, while we supply the few words which M. Boissier has omitted.

'The distinguishing characteristics of the true sublime appear in these writings; for when God is the object, it is sublime to say, *He spake, and it was done*; but it is easily discerned that the sublime

sublime occurs there only because the thing was of an extraordinary nature, and because the writer delivered it as he saw it, that is, as it was.'

We should have translated it in the following manner :

'This work is truly sublime ; for when God is spoken of, it is sublime to say, that he willed and it was done. But I can easily see that this sublimity arises from the very extraordinary nature of the thing itself'—that the writer related what he saw, that is, what was done, and *has added nothing to it.*

M. Boissier has omitted the two first chapters of the original, that is, of the 17th part of the *Palingenesie*, on

'THE IMMATERIALITY OF THE SOUL, and THE BEING OF a God ; both which subjects the author has treated with his usual ingenuity and force of argument. But in this country, where there are few, if any, materialists or atheists, it seemed unnecessary to enter upon the proof of truths so generally acknowledged. Besides which, it was the translator's professed design to confine himself solely to those parts of the author's work which relate to Christianity, or were indispensably necessary to introduce the subject.'

On this account the work begins with an original paragraph ; but the translator soon takes up his author, and follows him closely through the rest of his volume. M. Bonnet's preface to the separate publication of 1770, is also, with great propriety, preserved : it is an admirable one.

Prestwich's Republica, or a Display of the Honours, Ceremonies, and Ensigns of the Common-wealth, under the Protectorship of Oliver Cromwell. 4to. 7s. 6d. in Boards. Nichols.

OF this whimsical work it is not easy to give a proper account: its contents are miscellaneous, sometimes new and curious, often trifling, and occasionally fanciful. The greater part of it, however, is accurate and authentic, compiled by one of sir John Prestwich's ancestors, near the period of the events. But it is impossible for us to do more than to transcribe an account of the contents, and, in a few instances, to point out subjects of some curiosity : for the rest we must refer to the work itself, which is to be completed in another volume.

The first part contains the common-wealth table, in which it appears that Oliver was (probably) descended from Blethin ap Kynvyn, prince of Powis. It is followed by a description of the procession, with the ceremony of the investiture and installation of Oliver, by 'Edmund Prestwich, an eye and ear witness to all that passed.' This account is, in many respects, curious, and it is rendered more so by a list of the members of the house of commons who were present.

The flags and pennons of sundry commanders of companies in the service of the common-wealth, are then blazoned at length.

‘ My reason, adds the author, for being so prolix in each description was not to please the multitude, but each individual, whose chief pleasure is, that any circumstance, be it ever so trifling, concerning their family, is welcome; I mean, to such generous souls as tread in the virtuous principle of their forefathers.’

The armorial bearings of the commanders, &c. follow in their order, with a list of the governors or major generals, appointed to command in the different districts of England.

The charge of the military establishment of the commonwealth, as recorded in the journals of the house, on the 2d of December, 1652, was estimated at 1,496,215*l.* but by some new regulations of the council of state, the charge was reduced to 1,443,680*l.* Of infantry, there were in England, 4700 soldiers, besides officers: of cavalry 2520: in garrison were 6159 soldiers, besides officers. In Scotland were 15000 infantry, 2580 cavalry, exclusive of 560 dragoons. In Ireland, there were about 2000 men. The navy was not inconsiderable: at home were 56 ships of war, from 52 to 4 guns; abroad 26 ships of war, from 52 to 22 guns. The expence of the navy, for the year 1652, for building ships, furnishing men, &c. amounted to 829,490*l.*

The list of those, who fell in the civil war, or afterwards on the scaffold, is next inserted. The following remark we think worth transcribing.

‘ The editor cannot help observing, that at the beginning of these unhappy and uncivil wars, generally most of the old families were divided among themselves, whereby many a designing flatterer made his fortune by the ruin of both Whig and Tory; as it is a fact well known, that those of each side who acted on pure principles were generally the sufferers. Thus many ancient heads of families were clapped on the block by some great spendthrift, or designing villain, that had a fortune to raise, or had lost one. Little had the under-pullers generally to do in the quarrel, as they constantly avoided any military employment, that thereby they should have leisure to enrich themselves by the destruction and ruin of their own and the opposite party; witness the Catholic family of *Temple*, with others of the same stamp, who enriched themselves by the fall of others; nay, even that of their own party, whom they seemed to espouse with zeal, though secretly they sought their overthrow to enrich themselves. This is evident, as very few of the protector’s family, or that of *Fairfax*, but what were as great sufferers as any of the royal party. Indeed, except in a few, the leaders seem to have been engaged by disgust or ambition, or some sinister inducement. From these causes the country was undone by the ravage one side or both made: and all this not so much for respect to merit or title, as for pique and revenge, and a fondness to shew their parts, and thereby raise themselves on the ruin of others.’

‘ The

'The names and armorial bearings of sundry noble and worthy personages in the common-wealth, with some account of their families,' furnish nothing that we can extract with advantage: the author's ancestor, Edmund Prestwich, of London, is noticed among the rest. Oliver, our author remarks, divided the old families against each other, to govern the whole more easily, and many were destroyed in the contest. He thinks that it is a mistaken opinion, that the supporters of the common-wealth were of the lowest class, and the meanest families.

The death and funeral of Oliver are next described from a MS. of Mr. J. Prestwich, of All Soul's College. This gentleman was fully of opinion, that the protector was poisoned. The body was buried privately, and a gilded coffin honoured with the funeral decorations.* The funeral ensigns of honour, belonging to Oliver, are described, and farther particulars relating to the ceremony, and the expences of the funeral, are subjoined.

The birth, marriage, and issue of Oliver, are pointed out at some length, and a list of the members of parliament, who sat in the year 1658, is afterwards added.

The constitution of England is, in our author's opinion, the true republican form, and he thinks that no law can give a better title to the supreme sovereignty than the general consent of those who are governed. His examination, however, of the constitution of England, degenerates into an antiquarian discussion, and concludes with an heraldic display of the style, title, and achievements of their present majesties.

An alphabetical roll of the names and armorial bearings of most of the present nobility, and ancient families of these kingdoms, together with those of Germany, France, and Spain, is begun in this volume, and to be finished in the second. Our author seems only to have concluded the letter A. The observations, however, which occur on this subject, must be deferred till the appearance of the second volume.

The Vision of Columbus: a Poem, in nine Books, by Joel Barlow, Esq. 12mo. 2s. in Boards. Dilly.

THE subject of this poem, in regard to the author's local situation, is well-chosen; the design grand and extensive, adapted for the display both of his descriptive and reflecting powers. The attempt is arduous, and, in general, he shews himself not unequal to it. The scenery and appearance of the hero, with which the first book opens, is solemn and interesting.

* His remains were privately interred in a small paddock, near Holborn, in that very spot over which the obelisk is placed in Red Lion Square. The Secret! John Prestwich.

Long

' Long had the sage, the first who dared to brave
 The unknown dangers of the western wave,
 Who taught mankind where future empires lay
 In these fair confines of descending day,
 With cares o'erwhelm'd, in life's distressing gloom,
 With'd from a thankless world a peaceful tomb ;
 While kings and nations, envious of his name,
 Enjoy'd his toils and triumph'd o'er his fame,
 And gave the chief, from promised empire hurl'd,
 Chains for a crown, a prison for a world.
 Now night and silence held their lonely reign,
 The half-orb'd moon declining to the main ;
 Descending clouds, o'er varying ether driven,
 Obscur'd the stars and shut the eye from heaven ;
 Cold mists through opening grates the cell invade,
 And deathlike terrors haunt the midnight shade ;
 When from a visionary, short repose,
 That raised new cares and tempered keener woes,
 Columbus woke, and to the walls address'd
 The deep-felt sorrows of his manly breast.'

After a characteristic and affecting speech of Columbus,

——— a thundering sound
 Roll'd round the shuddering walls, and shook the ground ;
 O'er all the dome, where solemn arches bend,
 The roofs unfold and streams of light descend ;
 The growing splendor fill'd the astonish'd room,
 And gales ethereal breathed a glad perfume ;
 Mild in the midst a radiant seraph shone,
 Robed in the vestments of the rising sun ;
 Tall rose his stature, youth's primeval grace
 Moved o'er his limbs and brighten'd in his face.
 His closing wings, in golden plumage drest,
 With gentle sweep came folding o'er his breast,
 His locks in rolling ringlets glittering hung,
 And sounds melodious moved his heav'nly tongue.'

These lines are equally musical with the preceding, but have no great pretensions to originality. The angelic apparel, like an Asiatic's dress, or military uniform, seldom or never varies in poetic writ. The 'glad perfume, robes of splendor, golden plumage, grace of youth, glittering locks, and wings folding o'er the breast,' have decorated their appearance, or constituted their wardrobe, time immemorial. The last circumstance is not so common, though it may be found in the picturesque representation of Raphael in the 5th book of *Paradise Lost*, and which probably the author had in his eye when he composed the preceding passage. The idea is taken from the prophetic writings, and the description there given of an angelic being, we apprehend inferior to none in any language.

guage. We do not blame the author for treading in his predecessor's steps. It is a circumstance much easier to remark than alter. Particular images annexed to supernatural beings have gained possession of our minds, and to vary from them might appear unnatural or absurd. The idea in the first lines is well expressed; but though thunder and lightning are, according to Fielding, the proper paraphernalia of a ghost, yet neither of them seems a proper attendant on a celestial visitant, who appears for so benevolent a purpose as the present. The last line is obscure but might be easily altered.—The grand design of the poem now commences. The angel displays, in vision to Columbus, a view of the American continent; its principal mountains, rivers, lakes, &c. are described. The natives, their characteristic qualities, and supposed origin are investigated. The two great empires, Mexico and Peru, are particularly dwelt upon. An historical detail of the transactions in the latter, intermixed with some romantic fictions, supposed to have happened before the Spaniards subdued that country, is next given. The progress of the European settlements in the northern parts, and the nature of those colonial establishments, is delineated. This leads to the military transactions, particularly those in the late contest that have ravaged that quarter of the globe. Here, as it may naturally be supposed, the leaders of the continental army receive a large tribute of applause. The author too often blends ancient manners with those that are modern. 'Steuben's veteran armour,' the Britons advancing with 'lifted lance,' and Montgomery by his single prowess overthrowing 'hostile legions,' is not descriptive of modern warfare. The attributes of a romance here suit but badly with a general of the present time; and we think Washington must smile at seeing himself represented as mowing down whole armies like an Amadis or Orlando.

'Behind, great Washington his falchion drives,

Thins the pale ranks, and copious vengeance gives*.

Hosts captive bow, and move behind his arm,

And hosts before him wing the driven storm.'

The American's great ally in this poem, as in all others that have from the same quarter fallen under our inspection, is invested with the splendor of an Asiatic despot, and complimented with the spirit of an Hampden.

'Bright o'er the scenes of state a golden throne,

Instarr'd with gems and hung with purple, shone.

Great Louis there, the pride of monarchs, sat,

And fleets and moving armies round him wait;

O'er western shores extend his ardent eyes,

Thro' glorious toils where struggling nations rise.'

* To render this rhyme correct, the word should bear a very different meaning.

He expresses great zeal for the 'liberal universal cause,' is melted into tears for the oppressed Americans, and 'assumes his arms reluctant for the sake of peace.' This liberality of sentiment is doubtless highly laudable in an absolute monarch; and as his own people seem desirous of partaking the blessing of those inherent natural rights for which he has so generously contended abroad, how can he consistently refuse their reasonable requests? Should the reader suspect that Mr. Barlow may be a little mistaken in the principles he attributes to his Gallic majesty, and that his zeal for liberty may by this time be somewhat abated, he will, we trust, accord with us in praising the justice and spirit of the following encomium on one of our illustrious countrymen.

'High on the tallest deck majestic shone
Great Raleigh, pointing tow'rd the western sun;
His eye, bent forward, ardent and sublime,
Seem'd piercing nature and evolving time;
Beside him stood a globe, whose figures traced
A future empire in each wilder'd waste;
All former works of men behind him shone,
Graved by his hand in ever-during stone;
On his mild brow a various crown displays
The hero's laurel and the scholar's bays.'

Several subsequent lines are equally animated, but some of them rather verge on the bombast. Mr. Barlow's general merit renders it excusable. So daring a muse as his must sometimes be expected in her sublime flight to veil her head in the clouds. In justice to this gentleman we must observe, that, unlike a late American poet, he abstains from all illiberal abuse of the British army, and the generals who commanded it. As an American, indeed, he is partial to his countrymen, and we commend him for it. A certain degree of enthusiasm is laudable both in a patriot and a poet. We find likewise, in this performance, many philosophical disquisitions on the cause of the dissimilarity among nations; on the peopling of America; on the progress of arts and sciences; and the extensive influence which the discoveries of Columbus may have upon the interest and happiness of mankind. That subjects so extensive and arduous should not always be accurately investigated, that several faulty passages might be selected from a poem of such magnitude as the present, cannot be wondered at, and ought not to detract from its general merit. Mr. Barlow thinks with freedom, and expresses himself with spirit. The introduction, which contains the life of Columbus, is written in an agreeable easy manner: the dissertation on the genius and institutions of Manco Capac, in which the Peruvian legislator is compared

or contrasted with Moses, Lycurgus, Mahomet, and Peter of Russia, from its acuteness and perspicuity, reflects credit on the talents both of the hero and author of the essay.

A Course of Physico-Theological Lectures upon the State of the World, from the Creation to the Deluge. By Robert Miln, A. M. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Faulder.

IF it were designed to demonstrate the care of Providence as well as its wisdom from the arrangements of the universe, the various supports and assistance which man receives, and the wonderful structure of his organs, adapted either for the continuance of life, the preservation of the species, or even the gratification of the senses, physico-theology might be an useful study. But it would require extensive knowledge, acute penetration, and a sound judgment, to perceive what really exists, and not to convert blemishes into blessings, or to suppose wonderful order in what is the effect of accidental circumstances, or in arrangements which are the offsprings of the imagination. Mr. Ray's very excellent work is defective in some of these respects, not from *his* errors, but from the imperfect state of science at the period when he wrote. Mr. Miln does not examine every part of the subject: he chiefly confines himself to the philosophy of the Old Testament, the description of the creation, the fall and the deluge. In these accounts he is very unequal, and very inconsistent. He contends, for instance, for the philosophical accuracy of every part of the Mosajic account of the creation, and enlarges on his own explanations and the fancies of others, while in another place, where the motion of the sun is mentioned, he expressly tells us, that the scriptures are not designed to teach us philosophy. Again: while he supposes the account of the creation to be dictated by inspiration, and to be philosophically true, he, in another place, allows, that the design of Moses was chiefly to preserve the genealogy of the Israelites, and the connection of their different branches. Another inconsistency is, in the population of the antediluvian world: when it is necessary to explain the different connections, and to give some account of people spoken of, seemingly distinct from the family of Adam, in the earlier periods the population is represented to increase with rapidity: about the time of the deluge, when so few entered the ark with Noah, the population is supposed to be inconsiderable. In short, the author is engaged on uncertain and precarious ground; so that it is not surprising that he should sometimes slide, and sometimes sink: we rather wonder that, with much good sense, and no little share of information, he should have undertaken the task at all.

The first Lecture is on the book of Job : Mr. Miln supposes it to be written before the giving of the law from mount Sinai, because there is no allusion to the rites of Moses, the sojourning of the Israelites in Ægypt, or their peregrination through the wilderness. We have formerly read Homer with care, and recollect nothing of that kind in him ; and we really think it equally reasonable to suppose the Grecian ballads of the early age, which from that cause he would assign to Job. The distance of Arabia from Ægypt and Palæstine is not much greater than that of Greece, or at least of Ionia. It is more reprehensible in Mr. Miln to draw serious arguments from the bold, the exuberant imagery of this valuable relic. ‘Where wast thou, when I laid the foundations of the earth, when the morning stars sang together, and all the sons of God shouted for joy ?’ This is a sublime and animated apostrophe ; and it is adduced by our author to show, that stars (literally stars) existed before the foundation of our world : we should not have been surpris’d if he had considered the sons of God in an equally literal sense. The substance of the book of Genesis is supposed to be revealed to Adam, and handed down to Moses.

It would be improper to consider the history of the creation as related by Moses, too minutely, nor are we willing to retail the sneers of infidels against it, because they are weak, idle, and ill-founded. There is one argument which must always have weight : if the Bible is not a strictly philosophical description of different appearances in every part, we are not obliged to consider it as such in any. If the history of the antediluvian ages is not a true account of what really happened, in its whole extent, there is no reason for thinking it any thing more than a connecting link, to give an union and consistency to the whole. That it is not an historical account, is evident from the tree of life, the tree of knowledge of good and evil, the serpent, &c. These are so plainly allegorical, so clearly descriptive of depraved inclinations, and of temptations in every age, that it seems never to have been designed but as a lesson to guard against the indulgence of sensual appetites. Even our author is more than once inclined to consider it as an allegory ; and he is stopped, seemingly, from one consideration alone. We shall transcribe the passage.

‘*I will put an enmity between thee and the woman, and between thy seed and her seed. It shall bruise thy head, and thou shalt bruise his heel.*’ It is very remarkable in these words, that the enmity was only to subsist between the serpent, and the woman with her seed. But had this history been an allegory, in which the serpent represents passion, what reason can be given, why there should be no opposition on the part of the man ? Was he to have

have no passions wherewith to contend, but to live as he liked, while the woman was only to be kept under restraint? This proves the history to be real, and not allegorical.'

In this part the allegory is carried on with respect to the serpent somewhat literally; but no one could for a moment think that a real serpent was intended. The wicked one who was supposed to have suggested these thoughts, and to have urged the woman to disobedience, is considered as the rooted enemy, to mankind, and to the woman in particular, for *she alone* disobeyed, in consequence of *his* advice. The opposition between them is pointed out as between a human being and a reptile; nor is there any reason to suppose, by referring to her seed, that there was any allusion to our Saviour. This is a far-fetched analogy, without any foundation, unless our Saviour was to have sprung immediately from Eve, without any intermediate descendant. The works of Moses are distinguished by their simplicity, their sublimity, and their eloquence; yet we cannot, with our author, so greatly admire his art, in comprising the history of 2000 years in a few short chapters, when we consider that the events are so few, that even his few pages are filled with evident allegory.

The second Lecture contains a particular account of the creation, according to Moses. Mr. Miln examines every day's work with care, and explains what may seem doubtful and uncertain. Indeed these points are laboured with so much accuracy as to render the whole frequently ridiculous. On this serious subject we would wish to avoid levity; but as we have given an opinion, we shall support it by a specimen.

'Some may wonder, why making the air should be the work of one whole day, especially as this seems to be no more than the effect of natural causes. But such should consider, that the firmament and clouds are objects of great magnitude in holy writing. In them the great Creator gives to mankind the most striking display of his majesty, power, and goodness, *He makes the clouds his pavillion*, from whence he utters the voice of his excellency, at which the mountains are moved out of their places, and the pillars of the earth do tremble. By them he watereth and refresheth the earth; and makes it a nursing mother for the various tribes of its inhabitants. He useth the clouds not only for mercy, but for correction; and by them turns a fruitful land into barrenness for the wickedness of them that dwell therein. When the psalmist calls upon a l nature to celebrate the praises of its Creator, he thus begins, *Praise ye the Lord from the heavens, praise him in the heights.*'

Does this argument amount to any thing more than that what the Hebrew poets employed frequently in their imagery, was of great importance in the eyes of an Hebrew historian?

That one work is more difficult than another to the Almighty is an impious supposition; and that much time was required to make what was afterwards to furnish such varied imagery, is one which we are ashamed to suggest even after our author, and still more ashamed to dwell on. The following passage may perhaps excite a smile :

‘ The manner of her (Eve’s) formation was different from that of her husband. He was made of *rude* dust, but she of *dust* already *dignified* and *refined*; *which accounts for the superior delicacy of the female sex.*’

There are many similar passages, which we shall not swell our article by enlarging on : there are many which might furnish subject for ridicule, if our respect for the author and his subject did not check our pen. If Mr. Miln had not voluntarily put on the fetters, he would not have excited our attention by his mode of walking in them : we must repeat, that he is well acquainted with philosophy, and with the labours of commentators on the Bible.

The third Lecture is on the wisdom and goodness of God in the creation. It shows the piety and the goodness of the author’s heart in a strong light. His instances of God’s goodness are not, however, correctly explained. He speaks of our planet’s possessing a favourite place in the system, without reflecting that he ought to have considered the wisdom of God in adjusting the various constitutions of the inhabitants of the different planets to their situations. We might undoubtedly been made capable of bearing the heat of Mercury, or the cold of the Herschel with equal ease ; or either planet might be constituted so as to fit constitutions like our’s.

The fourth Lecture is on the state of man in paradise. The garden of Eden is supposed to have been situated somewhere above the Persian gulf, on the banks of the Euphrates. He describes the situation of Adam, according to the account of Moses. Though the circumstances are considered too literally, yet there are many judicious thoughts and just reflections interspersed in this Lecture.

The following essay is on the fall, and the sixth on the consequences of the fall. The curse on the ground mentioned by Moses, our author supposes may be explained from a destruction of its fertility, in consequence of volcanos ; and the flaming sword of the cherubim at the east end of the garden, to signify a natural conflagration of that portion of the globe. These explanations may probably be just ; but they certainly are founded on an imaginary basis. The effect of the fire turning that portion of ground into sea, is probably more so. Mr. Miln’s observation on the sin of Adam being transferred to his posterity

posterity we shall not select, because he seems to leave the question undecided, whether the guilt really remains.

The seventh Lecture is on the state of the world after the fall: but much of this is uncertain, since Moses, with an anxious rapidity, hastens to his principal object. He soon leaves the posterity of Cain, and pursues with care that of Seth. Yet even here our author will step out of his way to debase his subject; for when he quotes the passage of Abel's being a keeper of sheep, and Cain a tiller of the ground, it shews, as he says, that the former was a more honourable employment, otherwise *the elder brother would not have made choice of it*: it was perhaps more essentially necessary to preserve life, and therefore the first object of employment. Mr. Miln's remark reminds us of an observation on one of St. Paul's Epistles, where he mentions a relation by marriage. It was sagely observed, that it was no wonder St. Paul's relations were married well, since their husbands might expect to rise in the church. This Lecture contains, however, some just remarks on the patriarchal religion, sacrifices, and the banishment of Cain.

From the subsequent Lecture on the family of Cain and Seth, as well as on the longevity of the patriarchs, we shall extract a specimen of Mr. Miln's abilities in sacred criticism: it is an ingenious and probable explanation.

'We are next presented with a speech of Lamech to Adah and Zillah. *Hear my voice, ye wives of Lamech: hearken unto my speech: for I have slain a man to my wounding, and a young man to my hurt. If Cain shall be avenged seven fold, then Lamech seventy and seven fold.* These words are some ancient fragment of a history, and have no connection with what goes before or follows after. Therefore it is impossible to say on what occasion, or for what purpose they were spoken.

'The Jews had a foolish conceit that Lamech slew Cain. But had this been the case, how could he have said, that he had slain a young man, for by this time Cain must have been greatly advanced in years? Besides, instead of being punished, he says that he should be avenged, i. e. others would be punished far more severely for killing him, than if they had killed Cain. The most rational conjecture about the intent of Lamech's declaration is this: the murder of Abel had for a long time occasioned an animosity between the descendents of Seth and Cain, which had made the latter build a city, that his children might live near together, and be able more easily to unite for the common safety. And it happening that Adah and Zillah, upon hearing some alarming news, acquainted their husband of the great danger he was in. When Lamech, to compose their minds and banish their fears, made unto them the following speech, which should begin with a question, and then may be thus paraphrased. Why should we make our lives un-

D 4 easy,

easily with these groundless suspicions? And what have I done that I should be afraid? Have I slain a man, young or old, or offered violence to our brethren of the other family? and surely reason must teach them, that they have no right to invade or hurt me. Cain indeed killed his younger brother Abel, but God was pleased so far to forgive his sin, as to threaten to take the severest vengeance on any one that should kill him: and if so, surely they must meet with a greater punishment, who shall presume to kill me, or any of my innocent family. For if Cain shall be avenged seven fold, truly Lamech seventy and seven fold. And probably by discourses of this kind, and other arts which he made use of, he so far overcame the fears and shyness of the whole of his family, that thereafter, they ventured to commence an acquaintance with the rest of their brethren, till at last both became equally corrupted; which provoked God to inflict an awful punishment upon the whole.'

The subsequent Lectures are on the depravity of the antediluvians, and the deluge. The deluge, in our author's opinion, was partial only, as there was not water enough to render it general. But we know not with sufficient accuracy the state of the Antediluvian world to decide on this subject. The mountains are very probably of a subsequent date; and the great density of our globe, at present, may have originated from its being deprived of water in the central parts, in consequence of that change. The whole is uncertain, and must remain so; but unless we believe the deluge to be universal, we cannot reconcile the positive decisions of the Almighty with the subsequent events: and, if it was so, it is no less difficult to understand how all the species were preserved in any vessel. Who brought the rattle-snake, the anacondo of Ceylon, the hippopotamus, the lion, or the hyæna, into the ark? or who preserved the lamb from the wolf, or the kid from the lion? The whole must be resolved into a miracle, scarcely short of creation.

The execution of these remaining Lectures is not greatly superior to that of the former ones. The minuteness of our author's descriptions lead him into some disadvantageous details, and his anxiety to reconcile the scripture-history to our philosophy and our conceptions, is seldom recompensed by success. We find him often in labyrinths, from which he cannot escape with ease, and for which purpose we cannot furnish a clue.

Essays on the Microscope. By George Adams, Mathematical Instrument Maker to his Majesty. 4to. 11. 6s. in Boards. Adams.

IN pursuance of his plan, to give an account of the different instruments subservient to philosophical enquiries, Mr. Adams takes up the microscope, and gives us a very satisfactory

tory description of the construction of this instrument in its different forms, and some entertaining disquisitions on those subjects which it is employed to illustrate. In his *Essay on Electricity*, a science of experiment, the explanation of the use of different instruments, as we observed in our review of that work,† comprehended almost the whole of what was known. The microscope is an assistant of a different kind; and it was not easy to steer between a dry mechanical description, and a diffuse account of different objects remotely connected with it. Mr. Adams's *Essays* may, to many, appear a patch work of discordant materials from different authors, till they reflect that they are in some measure necessary to the author's original purpose; and that they furnish a varied and a pleasing entertainment. If we examine the work with a critical rigour, we shall perhaps find in it too many details which have little connection with the microscope, and with which the generality of readers are sufficiently acquainted: probably the author wished to form an entertaining volume, though at the expence of a little uniformity of design. The reader, however, who is tired in turning over these leaves, must have little curiosity; or if he finds only what he knew before, must possess extensive and extraordinary knowledge. We shall examine the contents of Mr. Adams's work more particularly.

The invention of the microscope, and the use of simple lenses, first employs our author's attention. Every philosopher knows the great power of the small globules of melted glass, as magnifiers; and every experienced observer has at times felt the inconveniencies, and been led away by the misrepresentations of compound instruments. Mr. Adams particularly explains the method of melting glass, in order to imitate the spherules of P. Torre with success. He afterwards goes on to the more complicated microscopes, and describes Culpapper's microscope; the common solar microscope; that for opaque objects; the instruments invented for particular purposes, by Wilson, Withering, Lyonet, and Ellis: the microscope peculiarly adapted for botanists; the telescopic microscope; his own lucernal microscope; and Cuff's double-constructed one. The solar microscope is undoubtedly the best adapted for amusement; that which magnifies the surface of opaque objects, is a beautiful and useful invention. Mr. Adams's lucernal microscope is admirably adapted for viewing objects, and for drawing; while the double microscope, with the usual additions, is well fitted for almost every purpose, and may be made subservient to observations of every kind, as well as to amusement. The philosopher, however, the cautious enquirer should

† See *Crit. Rev.* Vol. lvii. page: 11.

scarcely

scarcely trust more than to a single lens. For increasing the light, in viewing either minute objects or very dense ones, we are surprised that no advantage has been taken of that brilliant spectrum, produced by transmitting the light of the sun through a globe of water. The force of light is particularly conspicuous in the solar microscope, and leaf-gold alone resists it; for a little blue light is only to be observed on the edges of the minute holes, which the irregularity of the hammer's action leaves. The author teaches us also the use of microscopes, the preparation of the objects, the action of these instruments, and the method of estimating their magnifying powers. On all these subjects his explanations are very clear, but sometimes too minute, particularly in describing the similar part of different instruments under the different heads.

Every writer on microscopes has given descriptions of the different insects discovered by means of their instrument. But, as Mr. Adams justly observes, entomology has been lately cultivated with so much zeal and success, that many errors, and more imperfections, are to be discovered in the works of his predecessors. He collects accounts of the œconomy of these little beings, which we often discover only by their depredations, and treats at some length of their metamorphoses, generation, respiration, food, and dwellings. He has generally copied from actual observers, and writers of well-founded reputation: but while this part of his work can be considered as little more than a compilation, we must decline either analyzing or transcribing from it: the facts are, however, very generally curious and entertaining.

The account of the anatomical structure of the caterpillar, which is found in the trunk of the willow, is chiefly taken from Mr. Lyonet. In the same chapter is a description of the barnacle, of the proboscis of a bee, of the wings and eyes of insects, in which he improperly observes, that the wings are of a *talcky nature*; of the *leucospis dorsifera* of Fabricius, a new genus discovered since the last edition of Linnæus's System of Nature; of the lobster insect, probably a new species, not unlike a louse; and of another insect which Mr. Adams tells us is called by Linnæus *trips*; but we can neither find the name nor the description in the *Systema Naturæ*. The scales of fish, the skin of the lump fish, the *chrysomela asparagi*; a species of *noturus* of Fabricius, are also described in this miscellaneous chapter. Many parts of it are indeed new; but they are so intimately connected with the plates, that we do not find it easy to select any description, though the following one may be curious, and to the intelligent entomologist may be easily understood.

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‘ When Mr. Marsham first saw it at Richmond, he considered it as an undescribed insect, and an unique in this country; but he has since found that it is mentioned by Fabricius, in his *Systema Entomologiae*, as a new genus, under the name of *Leucospis dorsigera*; and there is one of the insects in the cabinet of the celebrated Linnæus, now in the possession of J. E. Smith, M. D. F. R. S. Sulz, and other writers, have also described it.

‘ It appears at first sight like a wasp, to which genus the folded wings would have given it a place, had not the remarkable sting, or tube, on the back, removed it from thence. It is probably a species between, and uniting the sphex and wasp, in some degree partaking of the characters of both. The antennæ are black and cylindrical, increasing in thickness towards the extremity; the joint nearest the head is yellow, the head is black, the thorax is also black, and encompassed round with a yellow line, and furnished with a cross one of the same colour, near the head. The scutellum is yellow, the abdomen black, with two yellow bands, and a spot of the same colour on each side, between the bands. A deep black polished groove extends down the back from the thorax to the anus, into which the sting turns, and is deposited, leaving the anus very circular; a yellow line runs on each side the sting. The anus, and the whole body, when viewed with a shallow magnifier, appear punctuated; these points, when examined in the microscope, appear hexagonal, as in the plate; and in the centre of each hexagon a small hair is to be seen; the feet are yellow, the hinder thighs very thick and toothed, and also form a groove for the next joint; they are yellow, with black spots. It is found in Italy, Switzerland, France, and Germany.’

In the following chapter is a very correct and extensive description of the form and the manners of the fresh-water polypus. It is collected, like the rest of this work, from the best sources; but as the natural history of this insect has been the subject of much enquiry, we cannot extract any thing from this chapter sufficiently new to be interesting.

Mr. Adams then proceeds to describe those animals which are observed in infusions of different substances; the following general account of their appearances may be amusing to those who have never observed these diminutive animals.

‘ It has been long known, that if seeds, herbs, or other vegetable substances, are infused in water, the water will soon be filled with an indefinite number of little animals. We find them, in general, moving in all directions with equal ease and rapidity, sometimes obliquely, sometimes straight forwards, at other times circularly, one while rolling and turning round, and then running backwards and forwards through the whole dimensions of the drop, as if in sport; at other times attacking with

with avidity the little heaps of matter they meet with in their way. They know how to avoid with dexterity any obstacles that would interrupt their motion, and even to avoid one another; you may see hundreds in motion in a drop of water, that never strike against each other; sometimes they will suddenly change the direction in which they are moving, and take one diametrically opposite thereto. By inclining the glass on which the drop of water is laid, it may be made to move in any direction; the animalcula in the drop will swim as easily against the stream as with it.

‘If the water begins to evaporate, and the drop to grow smaller, they flock impetuously towards the remaining fluid; an anxious desire of attaining this momentary respite of life is very visible, as well as an uncommon agitation of the organs by which they imbibe the water. These motions grow languid as the water fails, till they at last cease. If they are left dry for a little time, it is impossible to re-animate them by giving them fresh water.

‘Animalcula and insects will support a great degree of cold, but both one and the other perish when it is carried beyond a certain point. The same degree of heat that destroys the existence of insects, is fatal to animalcula; as there are animalcula produced in water at the freezing point, so there are insects which live in snow.’

Mr. Adams attacks the vegetative power, and the organic molecules of Messrs. Needham and Buffon.—He shews that these atoms are really animals, and describes their manners, the modes of their increase, and even their fins, from Mr. Ellis. In some parts of this detail, we fear the imagination has added circumstances, and imposed on the eyes: we own that we are suspicious of minute microscopical observations. Lewenhoeck, Buffon, Linnæus, and Monro, have been, in more than one instance, deceived. But the existence and the general form of these animals are sufficiently established; so that it is not improper to add a description of the various individuals; and, in this respect, Mr. Adams follows the arrangement of O. F. Müller. After each definition, observations on its appearance and origin follow: those on the *Vorticella rotatoria* are very curious.

The ninth chapter is on the organization and construction of timber, as viewed by the microscope. Our author's instructors, in this branch, are chiefly M. du Hamel, and Sir John Hill, though he owes somewhat also to Dr. Grew. Du Hamel's work, the *Physiques des Arbres*, is not so well known as it deserves; and the observations collected from this naturalist are very valuable.

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The appearance of the crystals of salts is the last object of our author's attention. He seems, in his explanation of crystallization, to consider the water of crystallization to be essential to the form of the crystal; but for this opinion there seems to be no very good foundation. The water appears to be mechanically intangled in the salts; and, instead of its escape destroying the crystal, it appears to escape, because the crystal is destroyed. In explaining these phenomena, however, if we allow a polarity in the small particles of the salt, we must necessarily admit of two poles; for attraction alone is not sufficient, unless we add to their properties an *electric* attraction, which probably does not take place, without some degree of repulsion.—A list of the objects proper for the microscope follow, that observers, as our author remarks, may not be contented alone with the few objects, which are generally sold with the instrument, and consider it as a spectacle which is begun and finished with a display of this limited scene. Indeed, his whole work is better adapted to prevent views so confined: by rousing the mind, and inducing the observer to look through every part of nature, he can alone prevent the microscope from becoming the plaything of children of a larger size.

The volume is illustrated by above thirty* plates, of rather unequal merit. The best are executed, as the French term it, *en noir*, in imitation of drawings with Indian ink, with great accuracy and beauty: even the inferior ones are clear and expressive. The frontispiece is extremely beautiful: the light, proceeding from a fine figure of Truth, with one or two little exceptions only, is managed with singular skill. The engravings not only represent the different kinds of microscopes, but a great variety of different objects magnified.

Though, in our examination of these essays, we have found much to praise, yet we must not indulge ourselves in indiscriminate panegyric, the refuge of indolence, and a careless examination. We think, that he has omitted to describe a very curious, and, in the physiology of vegetation, an interesting scene, viz. the appearance of the pollen, in hot water, the bursting of the elastic covering of each grain, and the escape of the smaller atoms, the true farina. There are other omissions in the vegetable part, at least of equal if not superior importance, to many things which are admitted; particularly the late discoveries of Hedwig, relating to the parts of fructification of mosses and mushrooms.

* The number is thirty-one, but some of them are repeated under the same title.

The essays are sometimes enlivened, as Mr. Adams will probably call it, by poetical quotations, and occasionally by prose run mad. This method is displeasing to a philosopher: it breaks the chain of his reflections, and leads to the mortifying reflection, that philosophy is not supposed to be sufficiently interesting without these meretricious ornaments. We cannot compliment Mr. Adams on his taste in the selection of his adventitious decorations: some of them, like the jewels in the nose of an Indian, only shew how much deformity may be increased by misplaced finery. Mr. Adams's language is neat, but often philosophically incorrect. The references to the plates are, in some instances, faulty. Though these errors detract a little from the merit of the work, and the pleasure of the reader, yet, on the whole, this performance is a very respectable one. In another edition, we would recommend a particular list of the plates to be added, since it is not easy, if we look at the engravings only, to find what they are intended to represent.—Our author's next work, in this department of science, will be *Astronomical and Geographical Essays*.

A Tour through the Islands of Scotland, and the Hebride Isles, in 1786. By John Knox. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Walter.

It appears that the plan of improving the fisheries in Scotland has much engaged Mr. Knox's attention for several years; and to promote this end, he has repeatedly written and published addresses to the gentlemen of that country, and the public; which, with some observations on the antiquities of Scotland, are prefixed to the narrative of the tour.

On examining this work, we find it to be an enlargement of a pamphlet published in 1784, under the title of 'A View of the British Empire, &c.' and of which we gave an account in our fifty-eighth volume.

The volume begins with a short account of the author's journey from London to Edinburgh, and thence to Oban, in Argyleshire; after which he gives a general description of the West Highlands and Hebride Isles, between Oban and Cape Wrath, in the northern parts of Scotland. Oban, he observes, is formed by nature, and by a combination of favourable circumstances, for being a principal harbour, and a central mart for the South Highlands, and the numerous islands near that coast. Here likewise he thinks that a royal dock and an arsenal would be extremely advantageous to the nation.

The next place which claims particular attention from this traveller, is the island of Lismore, above seven miles in length by one in breadth, and containing fifteen hundred inhabitants. Here, as at Oban, he proposes that a town should be built for the

the accommodation of fishermen; and two of the same kind at proper distances in Mull; a large island, and conveniently situated for trade and navigation.

Dr. Johnson has told us, that a dinner in the western islands differs very little from a dinner in England, except that in the place of tarts there are always different preparations of milk; and that their suppers are like their dinners, various and plentiful. Mr. Knox remarks on this description, that the doctor forgets the great variety of wild fowl and fish at the tables of the islanders, which no people in England, except those of the first fortunes, can command; and even few of those can procure such variety in equal perfection.

The following is given as the bill of fare of a Highland breakfast.

‘ A dram of whiskey, gin, rum, or brandy, plain, or infused with berries that grow among the heath.

‘ French rolls; oat and barley bread.

‘ Tea and coffee; honey in the comb; red and black currant jellies; marmalade, conserves, and excellent cream.

‘ Fine flavoured butter, fresh and salted; Cheshire and Highland cheese, the last very indifferent.

‘ A plateful of very fresh eggs.

‘ Fresh and salted herrings broiled

‘ Ditto haddocks and whittings, the skin being taken off.

‘ Cold round of venison, beef and mutton hams.

‘ Besides these articles, which are commonly placed on the table at once, there are generally cold beef and moor-fowl to those who chuse to call for them. After breakfast the men amuse themselves with the gun, fishing, or sailing, till the evening, when they dine, which meal serves, with some families for supper.’

Great Loch Broom has in all ages been celebrated for its herring fisheries, and is consequently the grand resort of the buffes from the towns on the Clyde, at the distance of two hundred miles or upwards. Whatever be the cause, the arrival of the herrings is said to be more certain here than in any other part of the kingdom. Till of late, they were remarkable for their large size, as well as their richness and flavour. Their richness, we are informed, continues the same; but their size is diminished from five hundred to eight or nine hundred for each barrel.

Mr. Knox tells us, it has been observed by the oldest man now living, that the shoals of herrings do not frequent the coast of Sutherland with that regularity and constancy which is perceived on the shores of Ross-shire. But though this uncertainty of the herrings furnishes a discouraging circumstance against a fishing station, the cod and ling fishery is invariable

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to those who can venture a considerable way in the open sea, where the fish are large and inexhaustible; and the great fishery off the south coast of Iceland, to which there is an open sea, and no interruption whatever, is yet more important. The subsequent extract affords strong reasons for erecting a town in this quarter.

‘Vessels which frequent that fishery from Holland and other parts, generally allow one month upon an average, for the outward bound passage; but if a town was established at Loch Laxford, or Loch Inchard, the vessels from thence could run over with any wind, in three or four days. Other vessels have to navigate the dangerous passage of the Pentland Firth, or the channel between the Orkney and the Shetland islands; but between Cape Wrath and Iceland there are no lands, no interruption to the progress of the vessels through the night as well as the day.

‘Shipping from other parts, who have long outward and homeward voyages, generally chuse the longest day, which happens not to be the best season for cod: that fish is in its highest perfection between November and April, or the beginning of May at farthest: a circumstance which may throw the Iceland fishery almost entirely into the hands of the north-west inhabitants of Scotland, and particularly those upon Lord Rae’s estate. The very oil extracted from fish taken in the Iceland seas might enrich the whole coast in a few years.

‘But there is an argument in reserve, that supercedes all other considerations, and points out in the most forcible manner, the expediency of a town near Cape Wrath, even admitting that no fishery could be carried on from these shores, or near them.

‘The distance between Loch Inchard and Cape Wrath, and from thence to Loch Eribol on the north sea, is above twenty miles. In this long track, which to navigate requires different winds, there is no place where a vessel can safely anchor in rough weather, or where she can receive the smallest assistance to repair any damage she may have received in her voyage. The coast to Cape Wrath is composed of a perpendicular line of rock from 100 to 250 feet high, against which the sea breaks with inconceivable violence, throwing its spray sometimes over the summits, to a considerable distance upon the lands.

‘On the east side of the Cape the shore is exactly similar, excepting the opening at Durness, which being mostly dry land at low water, no vessels approach it unless driven thither by stress of weather, when they are instantly stranded or broke to pieces.

‘The effects of this inhospitable shore, which denies either an asylum or a supply to the sinking vessel, falls heavy, as formerly observed, upon the commerce of these kingdoms, besides the number of men who die through cold and fatigue, or who go down with the ship to the bottom of the ocean. A town therefore

Therefore, at either of the above-mentioned places, would prove a most desirable boon to the shipping of all the European nations, and particularly to those of Great-Britain and Ireland. Here able ship-carpenters might be accommodated with a graving dock, and furnished with all manner of materials for the immediate repair of such vessels as were forced thither through leaks, dent, rough weather, or contrary winds.

Mr. Knox informs us, that in different parts of his journey he expressed a wish to sleep in the room which had been occupied by Dr. Johnson. What beneficial effect he experienced from this nocturnal gratification we are not told, nor does it appear from his narrative. He seems to have been at great pains in examining the western coast of Scotland in particular: he points out several places where, he thinks, towns might be built with great advantage, towards promoting the fisheries; and for his exertions in endeavouring to excite the public attention to this important object, he is entitled to commendation.

Select Beauties of Ancient English Poetry; with Remarks by Henry Headley, A. B. 2 vols. 12mo. 8s. sewed. Cadell.

FROM a period considerably earlier than the reign of queen Elizabeth, to the conclusion of the last century, this nation has produced a race of poets, whose works, though now neglected and forgotten, were once the delight and admiration of the age in which they lived. Some of these have soared to the heights of the epic and dramatic muse: some have undertaken to illustrate the annals of their country; and have beautified the plainness of historical narration with the graces and ornaments of poetry: some have sent their fancies to wander in the fairy regions of allegory, have embodied the virtues and vices, the passions and affections of man, and dressed them out with all the charms of fiction. Some transport us into the calmness and repose of rural scenery; and entertain us with the artless loves of shepherds: while others, on the contrary, have introduced us to the refined gallantries and politeness of courts. Some elevate our minds to the noblest sentiments of heroism and valour; and others soothe and subdue us by the tenderest feelings of humanity. By a fate, however, not uncommon, they have sunk into neglect: and the original editions are now become so scarce, that few have an opportunity of consulting them. An attempt, therefore, to restore these writings to general notice, by the means of a republication, is certainly useful and commendable; since it not only tends to gratify curiosity, but to strengthen and improve the

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public taste, by enlarging the sphere of intelligence, and by presenting to its view an additional supply of objects which at once contribute to enrich the imagination, and to soften the heart.

But though such, in some respects, have been the characteristic excellencies of the writers we have mentioned, their faults, on the contrary, have been so numerous, as greatly to overbalance them. In order to arrive at their beauties, it is necessary to toil through whole pages, which are not only dry and inspid, but even disgusting to the more correct taste of modern readers. In this account, a collection from the several poets, in which the best parts of each may be brought forward immediately to view, and what is uninteresting or disagreeable may be suppressed, seems better adapted to the purposes of general entertainment than an entire new edition of their works.

These are some of the arguments which appear to have influenced Mr. Headley in the volumes now submitted to our consideration. Let us hear his own words on the subject:

‘ Selections expressly of beauties, from modern books of credit, unless immediately intended for the use of schools, are in a great degree, idle and impertinent, and do but multiply books to no good end; by anticipating him, they deprive the reader of that pleasure which every one feels, and of that right which every one is entitled to, of judging for himself: but in obscure literature of a more remote period, the contents of which are strangely unequal, even where it is the wish of the editor to exhibit them entire, it is safer, previously to allure curiosity by select specimens of prominent excellence, than to run the risque of suppressing it totally by an indiscriminate and bulky republication of the whole; for it not unfrequently happens, on the first inspection of such works, in which the beauties bear no proportion to the defects, that by an unlucky sort of perverseness the reader is confronted with a dull passage, or perhaps a series of them, the volume is instantly laid aside, and with it every intention of a re-examination. In such cases, therefore, and in such only, selections seem eminently of use; and were it possible to obtain the opinions of the forgotten authors in question, there can be little doubt of their acquiescing in a revival of their works, however partial, rather than meet the horrors of perpetual oblivion.’

These authors have found an able advocate in Mr. Headley, and we do not think, if it were possible, as he says, to obtain their opinions, that they would regret having their cause committed to such hands. The arguments which he himself has used in their behalf, as well as what he has given us in their own words, are of such a nature as will probably insure them a fa-

a favourable decision from their judges. We will, however, examine this work more particularly, and shall give our opinions on the several parts, as they have struck us in reading them.

The Preface is chiefly employed in explaining the editor's design and method of proceeding in the present selection, and in giving an account of other similar publications which have appeared.

In the Introduction, which employs twenty pages, Mr. Headley has entered largely into the merits of the ancient and modern English poets. To those who have derived their poetical principles from the school of Pope; and who naturally retain a veneration for their master, he will perhaps appear in this comparison, to have leaned with too great partiality to the side of the former.

Perhaps, the example of Pope has produced an effect on our poetry, similar to that of Titian in the province of painting. Both were men of undoubted genius, and both possessed the higher excellencies of their art in an eminent degree: but their followers, who had neither so much imagination nor judgment, were captivated with that softness and harmony of colouring, which strikes the observer at first sight; and without giving themselves time to distinguish nobler beauties, made that the immediate object of their pursuit, which is at best but a secondary qualification. The taste, however, of the age is at length gradually recovering itself from this extreme of vicious refinement. The labours of some of the first friends of literature (among whom it would be unjust to omit the author of the History of English Poetry), have been successfully exerted in restoring the grander and more simple style of Spenser and Milton. In promoting this reform, the pieces now under consideration may not be without their advantage. Many of them abound with that strength and richness of imagery which mark the scenes of the *Fairy Queen*, and *Paradise Lost*: and others possess, severally, that warmly warmth of sentiment, and that natural and affecting tenderness which distinguish the narratives of Shakspeare.

The biographical sketches, which follow next, are not the least valuable or entertaining part of this work. They contain a variety of pleasant remarks, much judicious criticism, and some curious anecdotes. For the latter, Mr. Headley has been assisted by Aubrey's MSS. preserved in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford. The character of Aubrey has, we think, been vindicated by Mr. Warton, in the Preface to his very elegant and learned edition of *Milton's Minor Poems*.

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The poetry in this first volume is divided under two heads, Descriptive and Pathetic Pieces. Among the former, we recognized, with pleasure, the Induction to the *Mirror for Magistrates*, by Sackville, which we have often read and admired as one of the sublimest pieces of English poetry. The translation of the first book of Marino's *Sospetto d' Herode*, by Crashaw, is in the same grand style. A new edition of the translation of Marino would be a valuable acquisition to the public. The selections from Drayton, Niccols, and Daniel, which rank under the last head, are written with a simple and affecting sweetness, that must interest every reader of feeling.

The second volume is divided into five heads; consisting of Didactic and Moral Pieces, Elegies and Epitaphs, Miscellaneous Pieces, Sonnets, and Speeches. The first of these we think the least interesting of the whole selection. A moral sentiment introduced in the midst of imagery, or pathetic description, gives an air of seriousness and dignity to the whole; and is generally heard both with attention and pleasure: but when the poet openly professes that his sole object is to teach us, he has need of a more than ordinary power of insinuation, as well as elegance of address, to insure a favourable reception to his instructions. In this respect, therefore, the modern poets seem justly to claim the advantage. It cannot, however, be denied, that these pieces possess a simplicity which is often pleasing: if the reader does not always find poetry, he may expect to meet with good sense; and though he may not be delighted, he will scarcely fail to be improved.

Under all the other heads there are several specimens, which are beautiful of their kind. In particular, the Sonnets of Drummond are remarkable for a classical chasteness and purity, not usually found in the poets of the last century.

We submit it to Mr. Headley's consideration, whether his plan would not have been more regular, if, instead of classing the pieces under different heads, he had printed them in their chronological order, after the manner of the *Muse's Library*? The poetry is in general well chosen. The editor has sometimes, perhaps, as he says, 'listened to the captivating whispers of mercy, instead of the cool dictates of unsentimental criticism;' but, in the few instances which occur, we are not averse to granting this indulgence to his philanthropy. Among the pieces of this selection we have sought in vain for the names of Fairfax, Suckling, Randolph, and some others, whom we should have expected to meet with. We were, in particular, much disappointed at finding no specimen from Stephen Hawes, who certainly deserved a place here, not only

only for the early date of his poetry, but for that pleasing simplicity which characterises the History of Graund Amour, and La Belle Pucelle.

At the end of the second volume are subjoined sixty pages of Notes, in which the learned reader will, we believe, find much amusement, and perhaps information. They display an extensive knowledge, and a very accurate observation of the older poets.

We find, from the editor's Preface, that he has materials for two additional volumes: and we hope it will not be long before he gratifies the public with them. Whenever he is disposed to do it, we believe he need not fear meeting with a welcome reception. He seems to lament that his situation has not been favourable to these pursuits. It is the happiness of few to wander unconfined through all the delights of a literary elysium, and to say with the shade of the ancient bard :

Nulli certa domus : lucis habitamus opacis,
Riparumque toros, et prata recentia rivis,
Incolimus.

We think, however, we are consulting the public utility when we say that we wish Mr. Headley every additional source of information that he can desire.

The present volumes come recommended by a very numerous and respectable list of subscribers; and are dedicated to Mr. Windham, Member for Norwich.

An Attempt to illustrate various important Passages in the Epistles, &c. of the New Testament, from our Lord's Prophecies of the Destruction of Jerusalem, and from some Prophecies of the Old Testament. By N. Nisbett, M. A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

THE object of our very modest and intelligent Author is to show, that the expressions in different parts of the New Testament which apparently relate to the last day, in reality point out only the decline of the Jewish empire by the destruction of Jerusalem, and the extinction of the Jews as a nation. The chief passages which he examines are the xxivth chapter of St. Matthew, with the parallel ones in the other Evangelists; the two Epistles of Paul to the Thessalonians, and the 3d chapter of the Second Epistle of Peter. His position, he endeavours to prove, by a comparison of different parts of the Old Testament; where, in a bold and figurative phraseology, the prophets, in similar language, point out events near at hand, by the express observation of our Saviour and the different Apostles, who confine the completion of the prophe-

ries to the present generation; and by showing that, in their situation, prudence would suggest a cautious language, which their followers, from their other doctrines, and oral information, could not misunderstand.

The observations on the fifth chapter of the First Epistle to the converts of Thessalonica are, in some measure, the foundation of much of the reasoning: we shall consequently select it.

‘ I shall begin with the 5th chapter of the First Epistle, which, from its close connection with the conclusion of the former chapter, has generally been supposed to be a continuation of the subject of the general resurrection at the last day, of which the Apostle is there speaking, “ Of the times and the seasons, brethren, ye have no need that I write to you.” In answer to this representation, it might be observed, that the Apostle apparently concludes his former argument by adding, in the last verse, “ wherefore comfort one another with these words,” and this certainly deserves some attention, independent of any other consideration.

‘ Besides; if the times and the seasons relate to the time of the resurrection at the last day, the Apostle could not have said, that the Christians were not in darkness, that that day should overtake them as a thief; for I presume it will be allowed by all, that they were as much in darkness as to the time when it should take place, as the unbelieving Jews themselves; not to mention that it was a matter of mere curiosity, which the Apostle would hardly have indulged. I think this must appear to every attentive reader, to be an argument of some considerable weight against the common interpretation. But other evidence is not wanting, that the Apostle in this chapter has begun a new subject; or rather, that the conclusion of the former chapter was only an occasional digression from the main design of the epistle.

‘ The only way to ascertain the Apostle’s meaning, and of course to determine the sense of the ensuing context, is to examine in what sense the phrase, “ times and seasons,” is used by the sacred writers; for upon that the whole evidently depends.’

The texts quoted, in which this phrase occurs in the Old Testament, are the 20th, 21st, 39th, and 40th verses of the 2d chapter of Daniel, and the 25th verse of the 7th chapter, where it evidently alludes to changes merely political. Our author, however, goes on:

‘ There is one passage more, where this phrase is used, and that is in the New Testament, by our Saviour himself; and he evidently adopts the sense, as well as the expression of the prophet; for when his disciples asked him when he would restore the kingdom to Israel, without giving them a direct answer to their question, he replied: “ it is not for you to know the times and the seasons which the Father hath put in his own power.” As if he had said—“ You have no business to pry too curiously into

into the dispensation of Heaven, in producing those great revolutions which his wisdom may see fit to bring about; but to rest satisfied that they will take place in their proper time.

‘When, therefore, the Apostle uses the like phrase, probably, as in the case of our Lord, in answer to some query put to him, it is not likely that he should vary the established meaning of it, by referring it to the general resurrection, but applied it to that period when the Jewish constitution was to be abolished, and Jerusalem laid in ruins; especially if it is considered that this period was then very near at hand.’

But while we give full credit to Mr. Nisbett for his ability, we own that he has not brought conviction to our minds. The boldness of eastern metaphor is not applicable to the sober style of epistolary instruction; and the destruction of a city is too obscurely pointed out, by the coming of the Lord. We confess, that we should rather look for a solution of the difficulties in the different interpretation of the term *generation*; and we cannot think it inconsistent with the Apostle’s characters, to warn their converts, to avoid evil, by the uncertain period of the duration of the world, or to urge them to persist in the faith, since their time of trial might not be long.—But we must take another opportunity of explaining our opinions on this subject.

The Man of Sin, Mr. Nisbett supposes to be some impostor of that time, and not to allude to the reputed successors of St. Peter. The remarks on Dr. M’Knight’s translation are not important: that author agrees with Mr. Nisbett in his interpretation of some passages; but others, he supposes, really allude to the last day.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

AS it is some time since we resumed subjects of Natural Philosophy and History, the materials, in this department, have accumulated; but, if a little disadvantage arises from the lateness of some part of our information, it will be more than compensated by our being enabled to communicate it in a more connected order. Indeed, though we mention our lateness, it is a comparative term only: for we shall only step back a few months, except in some controverted subjects, while, in the usual course, it would have been styled early information, some years hence.

Our readers are acquainted with the splendid work of Mess. Marivetz and Gouffier, entitled *Physique du Monde*. We have mentioned the successive publication of different parts of the fifth volume. The third part appeared very lately, and contains

their theory of fire, which, we are sorry to observe, is, in many respects, exceptionable. They think, that the æther, or the æthereal fluid, is the sole matter of fire; but that it produces heat only, when put in motion by the parts of bodies. 'We have found,' say they, 'that the state of bodies, when they are styled hot, depends on the intestine motion of their parts; and this motion can only be attributed to the action of a fluid, which pervades and agitates the smallest particles. Fire, which cannot then be the principle and cause of its motion, must be its consequence and necessary effect. We could not, therefore, till this time, form any idea of fire, if we would consider it as a distinct body, except as a body whose effects are perceived by its being exerted to action in consequence of friction, and the intensity of whose motion increases in proportion to the solidity of the body employed, and the force as well as the velocity of the frictions.'—This is the Newtonian system, which Newton doubted of, and which the chemistry of modern times has destroyed. The authors support it by numerous arguments, and attack their antagonists with much spirit, though without success.—The system is opposed even in their own country; and in a late publication of M. Reynier, on 'Fire, and some of its principal effects,' a very different opinion is maintained. 'All bodies,' says our author, 'contain fire, not as a fluid pervading them, but as a constituent part, and of course this portion of their substance cannot be accumulated without changing their forms. It is dilatable, and can change its dimensions, and, in its different motions, tends to restore an equilibrium, in which it equally presses, and is pressed on.' This system very much resembles M. de Luc's, which we shall examine at some length, in our next Number. M. Reynier, however, differs from him, in attributing all the operations of this fluid to its alternate dilatations and compressions. Heat, for instance, is only fire, dilated by any cause; and this principle is, in the work before us, extended so as to explain many of the phenomena of nature.

M. Reynier is not very successful in other branches of his philosophy. He has been long the antagonist of the systems of Bonnet and Spallanzani; and, in different essays, has attempted to shew that organized beings may be reproduced from fecundated seeds, without the concurrence of the sexes, and that these beings may be formed by the simple aggregation of organized matter. We now mention him, because he has very lately returned to the charge, and, in a very elaborate memoir, added different arguments and facts in support of his last position.

The facts which afford him the best assistance, in this last memoir, are the phenomena of the vegetable fly from the mushroom of mosses*. There is a kind of mushroom, the *Clavaria Militaris*.

* We use the terms *Mosses* for mossy grounds. Solway moss, and other similar grounds, have the same denomination.

sis of Linnæus, (Syst. Natur. Ed. Vindob. 725.) which grows only on the head of a dead insect, in the nymphe state. The phenomenon was first observed in the Caribbee islands, and a proper account of it, with a judicious explanation, was given by Dr. Watson, and sir John Hill; but the kind of mushroom was, in those climates, a different one. The vegetating fly of Europe was described in a letter from M. Muller to M. Buckner, inserted in many literary journals. M. Reynier describes this beautiful saffron-coloured mushroom very particularly, and insists that it always grows on insects, from which botanists tear it rudely, and without either examination or reflection. He has discovered many new sorts of this plant; and thinks not only that they grow on organized beings, but that their form is the consequence of the matters that produced them. This curious opinion is to be the subject of a subsequent memoir.

Having found two plants of this kind last autumn, he began to examine them, and distinctly saw, that each plant penetrated the hairy shell and the chrysalis, and burst these coverings in consequence of its expansion, at the same time. If we admit that every body proceeds from a germ, in this case we must suppose, says he, that the germ had penetrated the shell and the chrysalis, or had been taken into the insect's stomach, and passed with its fluid into that organ, previous to its metamorphosis. The first position, he thinks, falls of course; and the second, he endeavours to shew, is equally without foundation, as the action of the stomach, the great solvent powers of the gastric juices, must destroy the principle of life. The question is thus reduced to an absurdity; but the absurdity may, perhaps, be retorted. The facts are not well established: many botanists have found this mushroom on peat. De Lat found it on the surface of the cranium of a living bee; and Bruyset has made a similar observation. In America, it has indeed been found arising from the internal parts of the exuviz, but of exuviz so decayed, as to be permeable in many parts to the air; and those who have contemplated the simple arrangement of the stomach, and circulating system of insects, will smile at the solvent powers of the gastric juice, and the action of the organ which contains it. Our author, however, goes on: he shews how an insect must produce a vegetable, because the matter of vegetables and animals differ only in the former containing less fire than the latter; and the insect must lose much of its fire by putrefaction. We must, therefore, wonder that every dead *Daphne* is not changed into a laurel; or that yews, in our church-yards, are not as common as graves. The whole theory, of which our readers will probably wish for no farther specimen, is an elaborate explanation of Buffon's system of organized matter, where much use is made of the internal mould, and the meshes of M. Bonnet.

M. Reynier has not escaped without opposition, nor has he remained silent: to his antagonist M. Millin de Grandmaison,
of

of the academy of Orleans, we have yet seen no reply ; but to another antagonist, on a collateral branch of a dispute on the same principles, he has addressed some remarks.—We must take this matter up a little higher. The same author published a memoir on the *marchantia polymorpha* *, (L. Sp. Plant. 1603) in which he endeavours to show, that this kind of moss is reproduced from the cups, without the intervention of any impregnating farina from male flowers, since the cups were early and carefully separated from the parent, and every other plant. He did not long enjoy this partial triumph. The abbé P. an ecclesiastic of some rank, soon reproved him for his hasty conclusion, and for not reflecting that, in the instance he mentioned, the propagation was rather by means of a slip than by seed ; that, from having examined one part only, he could not decide on the nature of other parts, which might be sexual ; and that at best, if the fact contended for was really true of the *marchantia*, it would not greatly affect the general question, especially as the seeds of many cryptogamic plants had already been discovered. To these observations M. Reynier has just replied ; but his great argument is directed against the general analogy of the propagation of plants, and his best support of this argument is the experiments of Spalanzani, which we have examined in our review of the translation of his two volumes. In the interval, between the reply and the rejoinder, a very sensible letter, addressed to M. de la Metherie, appeared in the *Journal de Physique*, in which this question is greatly elucidated. We shall only attend to those parts of it which relate to the present dispute. Schmiedel, the author observes, to whom we are indebted for an excellent work, entitled, *Icones Plantarum et Analyses Partium*, published in indifferent portions, at Norimberg, from the year 1747 to 1782, in folio, has explained the different organs of this species of *marchantia*, which are subservient to its increase.—The one is the little cup, which Reynier observed ; and it contains minute globules, by no means sexual, which M. Schmiedel calls *granula vivipara*. The cups are in fact slips or suckers, as Reynier himself has suggested ; and this able author has erred only in supposing them the only modes of propagation, for the *marchantia* has, besides these slips, male and female organs. They have both a similar appearance, that of an umbrella, or a head, on a foot-stalk. The borders of the heads of the male flowers are only waved, and those of the female divided into eight or ten rays. The former, examined with a good microscope, are porous ; and these pores lead to small oval cavities, which the author calls polliniferous follicles, or the true antheræ. Under the rays of the latter is a little range of germs, by age changed into capsules, which, in-

* The trivial name *polymorpha* arises from its heads, at different times, assuming different forms ; by which means botanists of credit have improperly multiplied the species of the *marchantia*.

stead of being free, as in other genera of mosses, are divided by a membrane which shelters them. This description is confirmed in every essential respect, by M. Hedwig; and, in his work, entitled *Theoria Generationis & Fructificationis Plantarum Cryptogamicarum*, a very excellent dissertation, which obtained the prize from the academy at Petersburg, for the year 1783, it is illustrated by splendid and accurate plates. Many other parts of the fructification are also described and delineated; but we could enlarge only on what was most essential to our present enquiry. Indeed we should have long since reviewed the whole work, if the necessity of constantly referring to the plates had not prevented us. We may add, however, to the other observations, that M. Hedwig not only discovered the seeds, but sowed them:—they produced plants, and figures are given of their appearance on their first expansion.

We have, in this detail, given the origin, and we suspect the termination, of this attack on the system of Bonnet, by a disciple of Buffon; an attack and a dispute, in themselves of no great importance; but which have led to facts and observations both new and curious, instructive and important.

Though we may anticipate our account of a future volume of the *Memoirs of the Society of Agriculture*, yet M. Bernard's remarks are too nearly connected with our present subject, to be omitted. They relate to the fig-tree, and the very singular operation named caprification. It was found that figs ripened imperfectly, and that their seeds were not fruitful, if a branch of the wild fig (*caprificus*) was not suspended over the tree. As the wild fig contained insects, it was supposed that these insects penetrated the fruit of the tree to which they were brought, and gave a more free admission to the air, and to the sun. Linnæus explained the operation, by supposing that the insects brought the farina from the wild fig, which contained male flowers only, to the domestic fig, which contained the female ones. From what Hasselquist saw, in Palestine, he seemed to doubt of this mode of fructification, and M. Bernard opposes it more decidedly. He could never find the insect in the cultivated fig; and, in reality, it appeared to leave the wild fig, after the stamina were mature, and their pollen dissipated: besides, he adds, what they may have brought on their wings must be rubbed away, in the little aperture, which they would form for themselves. At Malta, where there are seven or eight varieties of the domestic fig, this operation is only performed on these which ripen latest: the former are of a proper size, fine flavour, and in great abundance, without it; so that he thinks the caprification only hinders the ripening. But it probably does more: we must, however, follow M. Bernard.

He examined the parts of fructification of the fig; and he observes, if this examination be made previous to the ripening, that round the eye of the fig, and in the substance of its covering, may be seen triangular dentated leaves, pressed one against another;

another; and, under these leaves are the stamina, whose pollen is destined for the impregnation of the grains, which fill the rest of the fruit. These male organs are much more numerous in the wild fig than in the domestic; and the stamina are found to contain a yellow dust, which may be collected, when it is ripe. The wild figs, when ripe, are not succulent, and have no taste, though the grains are disposed in the same manner as in the other kind. The pith of the grain of the wild fruit serves as food to a species of the cynips, whose larva is white, till the moment of its transformation; and it is by an opening, in the direction of the pistil, that the insect penetrates the grain. From this account, which is in many respects new, it is probable that the insect is only communicated by accident to the domestic fig, and that the flowers of this genus are sometimes hermaphrodites. But the number of hermaphrodite flowers being fewer on the cultivated than on the wild fig, the seeds are fecundated more certainly and quickly by the caprification; and every botanist knows that, when the impregnation is completed, the flower soon withers; while, if by any accident it is delayed, it continues in bloom much longer. This view of the subject, therefore, explains very completely the reason why, in Malta, the caprification is practised on the late kind of figs, because it hastens the formation and maturity of the fruit.

Since we are now engaged in botanical researches, and, as we may not soon have an opportunity to give an extensive account, we shall add a short notice of a new work of the abbé Cavanilles, on the geranium: our readers may recollect his labours on the malvaceous plants, and the geranium is arranged very near to them, in a natural order. This genus of ornamental plants is a very numerous one: Tournefort knew about sixty species; the younger Burman, seventy four; and even Murray, in the *Système Vegetabilium*, of 1784, could enumerate but eighty-two. M. Cavanilles has described one hundred and twenty-eight species. He has himself cultivated a great number. Almost all are engraved, and the plates are superior even to those of his former volumes. We may just observe, that our author divides the species of geranium, either as they have regular or irregular corollas: the former class contains, in general, the European species, whose leaves are most commonly opposite; the latter contains the greater part of the African species, whose leaves are more frequently alternate. This class contains seventy-one species, the other fifty-seven.

The abbé Poirêt has favoured the world with some farther descriptions of the insects of Barbary, and we shall take this opportunity of continuing our account of his memoir.

The beetles are the next objects of his attention, and the first species described, is the scarabæus *marginatus*, scutellarius, muticus, clypeo rhombico, elytris connatis, punctatis glabris, lateribus marginatis. This insect is entirely black, and is not
unlike

unlike the scarabeus hæmisphericus of Pallas, (*Icones Insectorum*, pl. vi. fig. 23.) yet it is smaller; its helmet almost smooth, with some other varieties. It inhabits sandy places, and digs a hole for its young under the dung of cows, where it lays its eggs, and covers the aperture with sand: the larvæ reside in this gloomy dungeon till they have undergone their different changes, and then escape from it by an oblique passage, which they dig for themselves.

Though it has been already described, the abbé speaks of the sacred beetle of the Egyptians, which they made the emblem of Neitha, or of their Minerva. It was supposed to be of both sexes, and to produce its young without any connection with the male: of course it was a proper emblem of that goddess, whom they styled the Creator. *Ælian* supposes it to be the emblem also of a soldier, since they had it engraved on their rings.—Our author, however, leaves the reveries of an antiquary, and speaks of it as a naturalist, who has sought it in its retreats a gloomy and disgusting throne for a divinity—under cow's dung.

This insect wanders on the sand till the moment when it is to provide for its young. He then becomes active and indefatigable. He hollows out a piece of dirt, deposits the eggs in it, and covers them with the dung, the food of the larvæ: this mass he rolls on the sand, till it increases to the size of a small orange. He is impatient till he has found a place to deposit this precious burthen; scarcely ever quitting it, he sometimes draws it with his hinder legs, and sometimes pushes it forward with his head. If it is taken from him, he is violently agitated; searches with eagerness on every side, and never leaves the person whom he discovers to be the robber. When this ball is sufficiently dry, he digs a hole in the sand of eight or ten inches deep, and there lays his future offspring. He accompanies them to their retreat, and finishes there his own existence. The larvæ appear towards the end of autumn, and live in their cave till the spring, when they become perfect insects, though sometimes the insects are met in the winter with the larvæ; and it is not easy to say, whether they belong to the family of that, or of the former year.

The only spider mentioned in the continuation of the memoir now before us, is the *aranea fasciata*, abdomine fasciis flavescens, pedibus fusco annulatis. The abbé supposes it to be the same which *Fabricius* has described from the museum of sir *Joseph Banks*. (*System. Entomologiæ*, p. 433. 11.)—The difference is only in the manner in which the eyes seem to be disposed.—This spider arrives at its greatest bulk in July: it is then as large as the thumb. It inhabits hedges and thickets: its webs have large meshes, and it resides in the centre. The snares are spread for large flies, wasps, drones, and even locusts: the lesser insects can escape through the meshes. The animal which it entangles, is soon bound with strong threads, killed by the spider's jaws, and partly eat, if the spider is hungry; the rest is con-

concealed under some neighbouring dry leaves, covered with a kind of web, and a blackish glue in great abundance. Its larder is said to be often plentifully stored: among these provisions our author found the beautiful sphex maxilloso, formerly described.

Its nest is of the size of a pigeon's egg, divided horizontally, and suspended by the threads of the insect, which are of a silvery white, and stronger than silk. The young ones live in amity, but when grown up are mortal enemies. They never meet but they fight with violence, and their battle only ends with the death of the weakest. The dead body is carefully stored in the larder. Twelve of these spiders were shut up together; and, after a battle of eight days, the strongest only remained alive. In the same thickets, our author met with another spider of a similar kind, whose manners and ferociousness were the same. It resembled velvet, and its colours were black and brown; agreeably shaded. It does not lay its eggs like the former, but deposits them on some solid body, fastens them with a glue, and covers them with threads spun, seemingly without order, and so distant from each other, that the disposition of the eggs may be easily seen. The eggs are left to chance, and the parent-insect gives itself little trouble about them.

Histoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences, pour l'Année 1783; avec les Memoires de Mathematique et de Physique, pour la même Année. 4to. Paris, 1786.

AFTER a successful progress for near ninety years, the Royal Academy of Sciences have changed the plan of their publication. Their history, which was an abstract of their memoirs, and an useful abridgement, lately executed by the marquis de Condorcet, is now omitted; and, in its place, we find the observations communicated to the society, and the reports of its commissioners, on particular subjects. The history, they observe, is omitted, because it has answered its purpose; and, if its design was merely to make the language and the subjects of science more familiar, or to give a concise view of the objects of the philosopher, to those who required nothing farther, their remark is just. But it has answered many other purposes; and the general regret with which philosophers received the first account of the change, is a more convincing proof of their opinion, than any thing that we can urge. We accept, however, with great pleasure, the observations of the Royal Academy in any form; but we shall change our plan also, and review this volume in the order in which the memoirs are arranged in it.

The first report is on the aerostatic machine of M. Montgolfier, by Messrs. Le Roi, Tillet, Brisson, Cadet, Lavoisier, Boscuit, de Condorcet, and Demarest. It contains a concise and well-written history of the invention, but offers nothing new.

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An individual, who wished to remain unknown, requested that the Academy would propose prizes for the memoir, which would point out, in the most satisfactory manner, the means of preserving the healths of the men employed in unwholesome operations. He offered, for this purpose, the interest of 12,000 livres, (500l. sterling); and the first premium has been bestowed on the best dissertation on the following subject: To determine the nature and the causes of the diseases to which gilders are exposed, and to point out the best methods of preserving their healths, either by physical or mechanical means. The author is M. Henry Albert Goffe, of Geneva. He has, however, chiefly confined his observations to those who work on small pieces, particularly on watches. The Academy wish that he would extend his remarks; and think, that by enlarging his *preserving furnace*, it might be used by those who work on a larger scale.

The eloges are those of Dr. Hunter, M. Euler, M. Bezout, an eminent mathematician, M. d'Alembert, the Comte de Tressan, author of the military articles in the Encyclopædia, and, of some, rather indecent, romances, and of M. Wargentin, an eminent mathematician and astronomer at Stockholm.

The first memoir, in this volume, is on the obliquity of the ecliptic, and on its diminution, by M. le Gentil. The true obliquity he supposes to be $23^{\circ} 28' 6''.9$; and the diminution to be $37''$ in every hundred years. Some observations, on particular fixed stars, are added at the end, with some remarks on the observations of M. de la Caille, made with the same instrument which M. le Gentil employed.

Two memoirs on the solstitial heights of the sun, in June 1782 and 3, next follow; but they are incapable of abridgment.

We have more than once, in our Foreign Literary Intelligence, mentioned M. de la Place's memoir on the figure of the earth: it is inserted in this volume, next to M. le Gentil's dissertations, and we greatly regret that it is not in our power to give so particular an account of it as its real merit would require, not only from its length, but of its numerous algebraical calculations. The great object of this paper is to ascertain, as exactly as possible, the figure of the earth, and somewhat relating to its constitution. The figure of the earth is of great importance in many questions of natural philosophy and astronomy, since, in theory, this planet is considered as a point, placed in its centre, and, to apply theory to practice, it is necessary to ascertain the length of the radii from this point to the circumference. The variation of its parallaxes, which depend on its figure, are too minute to be observed with respect to the sun and the planets; but, if the flattening at the poles is equal to $\frac{1}{175}$, as has been supposed, it would amount to $20''$ with respect to the moon. The effect of the figure of the earth on the calculation of the principal phenomena which depend on it, as the variation of gravity, from the equator to the poles; the parallaxes; eclipses;
precession

precession of equinoxes; and nutation of the earth's axis; is examined by M. de la Place, from what theory or observation has furnished.

The proportion of the polar to the equatorial axis is supposed to be as 249 to 250, very nearly, by a new kind of calculation from the different measures of a degree in different latitudes; but M. de la Place thinks it probable, from these premises, that the earth is not a regular ellipsis, that it is not a solid of revolution, and that the southern pole is flatter than the northern. If this is the case, it will in some degree account for the greater cold of the antarctic regions; above that which is observed in the arctic in the same latitudes; yet, from the consideration of the equilibrium of the earth, from the length of the pendulums in different places, our author thinks it more certain, that the earth is really an ellipsoid of revolution, the proportion of whose axes are as 320 to 321; and that the different phenomena, just mentioned, coincide very nearly with this supposition. It is already known that the density of the earth increases from the circumference to the centre, though the law which it follows will probably never be discovered, till another more fortunate Maupertuis shall actually practise what the other proposed, and endeavour to dig to its centre.

The observations made by M. le Monnier, in June 1782, at the summer solstice, on the gnomon and object-glass of Saint Sulpice, will be unintelligible without a tedious description of the instruments and situation; and it will, at last, be uninteresting.

The next memoir, by the marquis de Chabert, on the use of marine time-pieces with respect to navigation, and particularly to geography, is a very important one. Its object is to determine the difference in longitude between some points of the Antilles and coasts of North America, and Fort-Royal in Martinico; or between the same places and Cape Francois in St. Domingo, by observations, made during the cruises of Comte d'Estaing in 1778 and 1779, and Comte de Grasse, in 1781 and 1782. M. de Chabert was captain of the Vaillant in the first period, and of the St. Esprit in the second. He laudably employed the intervals of war in the pursuits of astronomy. The longitudes, he observes, with the time-pieces, are calculated very nearly, and he expatiates on the advantages to be derived from them. With their assistance, he asserts, that he could calculate the direction and the velocity of the different currents through which they passed. The numerous longitudes, ascertained in this memoir, we cannot enumerate, as they would exceed our limits. The marquis recommends spring-clocks, as those moved with weights are too cumbersome, and easily put out of order, by the shock of an engagement. The English time-pieces are usually of the size of a large watch, and they go with great accuracy.

M. Sabatier was the author of a memoir on the brain and its mem-

membranes, published in the seventh volume of the memoirs of the Savans Etrangeres. He pursues the subject, and, in this volume, his dissertation on some peculiarities in the structure of the spinal marrow, and its coverings, is inserted. This accurate anatomical detail we cannot abridge, but may remark, that he denies any transverse medullary fibres, or nervous communication between the different sides of the spinal marrow. — He mentions the grey cortical appearance in different parts of the marrow, which we have usually considered as a source of nervous energy, and denies that there is any vacuity, any lengthened ventricle, from the calamus scriptorius of the brain through the substance of the medulla spinalis. In the ganglion, formed by the vertebral nerves, the cortical substance appears; but M. Sabatier denies that the nervous fibrils from each cord are mixed in the ganglion: their appearance changes, but they may be traced distinct.

M. Monge has produced water from burning inflammable and dephlogisticated airs together, by means of the electrical spark, in greater quantities than Mr. Cavendish or M. Lavoisier. As his experiments were made without knowing those of the former chemists, they are entitled to particular attention. By repeated explosions he produced three ounces three drachms and above forty-five grains of water, slightly acidulated. The acid was seemingly the vitriolic, and proceeded, in M. Monge's opinion, from an accidental impregnation from the oil of vitriol, of which the inflammable air was formed; and the water had an empyreumatic taste. The remaining airs were dephlogisticated, inflammable, and fixed. The last seemingly prevented the explosion of the former, and our author attributes it to the impurity of the air in the vessels: perhaps it might be formed by the explosion. We think that, in many respects, M. Monge's experiments confirm the theory of the composition of water.

The next memoir is by M. de la Lande, on the eclipse of the moon on the 18th of March, 1783, which, as it was nearly central at Paris, the time favourable, and observations made by seven different astronomers in that city, the author thinks is well adapted for ascertaining the true size of the shadow of the earth, and the proper allowance to be made for its atmosphere. The semi-duration of the total eclipse was $51^{\circ} 4''$, and the necessary allowance for the atmosphere $36''$.

The following memoir is also by M. de la Lande, on the change of inclination which must take place in the orbits of the planets, in consequence of the reciprocal attractions, and the alterations in the planetary orbits. Mars suffers the greatest change, as its inclination diminishes nearly $29^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$ in every hundred years. The particular table we cannot transcribe.

In the extract of observations, which determine the geographical position of the city and mouth of the river of St. Domingo, the latitude appears to be $18^{\circ} 28' 30''$, and the longitude $72^{\circ} 30'$ west, instead of $73^{\circ} 45'$, as in the best maps.

M. Fongeroux de Bondaroy makes a singular, and probably an useful observation, on the horned rye. Two grains, by accident, fell near a heap of pigeon's dung, in a dry ground. Each produced from seventy to eighty ears; but, of that plant next the dung the ears had about one-fourth of their grains horned. The author only concludes, that this disease does not proceed from moisture: he suspects, with Geoffroy, that it may arise from some disease in the parts of fructification of the plant.

Observations on two total eclipses of the moon, on March 18; 1783, and in the night of the 10th and 11th of September, of the same year, by M. Messier, follow; but we cannot engage in the very accurate and particular detail of this able observer, without transcribing his own words.

M. Messier has also communicated observations on the comet of 1783, the twenty-first that he has observed, from the observatory of the marine, and the sixty eighth whose orbit has been calculated.

The abbé Tessier has communicated some experiments, whose object is to shew the effect of light on certain plants; but he has added little to what was before known. We shall select a few of his most interesting conclusions. Plants lean towards the light most in their early state; when at a great distance from it; when placed against dark colours; and when the seed is sown in such a situation that the young plant can rise most easily. They will incline towards the light of a lamp; and, in a place perfectly dark, the shoots do not rise, but mix indiscriminately with the roots. He enquires, too, whether the different modifications of light had the same effect on plants, in the operation of blanching, as the direct light. Reflected light had a similar effect, but in a less degree than the direct; and, by multiplying the reflections, the power was proportionally weakened. The light of a lamp has less effect than even the reflected light of the day, and the reflected light of the lamp is proportionally weaker: even the light of the moon seems to have some effect. — A plant need not be far from the light to lose its colour: it is sufficient if the light does not fall upon it. The effects of coloured light are not yet accurately ascertained.

The parliament of Paris requested the advice of the Academy about the assize of bread, on account of a dispute at Rochefort relating to a tax on bread. The commissioners, named by the Academy for this purpose, were Mess. le Roy, Tiller, and Demarest; and their report follows the abbé Tessier's memoir. The numerous and accurate experiments which fill this very extensive and useful essay; make it almost impossible to give any proper account of it; while the different customs, methods of preparing the bread, and the variety of measures, would make even the best account unintelligible and uninteresting. The report contains above one hundred quarto pages; the experiments are numerous and well digested; the reasoning close, pointed, and convincing.

M. D'Onis du Sejour next explains his new analytical method^s for resolving astronomical questions. This is the eighteenth memoir on the same subject; and the design of this essay is to apply the former general methods to the observations on Mars, made in 1751, in order to obtain the mean parallax of the sun, and to verify the conclusions, drawn by the same means, from the observations on the passage of Venus over the sun: these were the subject of the sixteenth memoir. The parallax, from these observations, is $9''.473$; that deduced from the observations on Venus was 8.813 . The difference 0.660 . Our author prefers the latter, and thinks its accuracy to be chiefly depended on; and in this the best astronomers in Europe join with him.

The abbé de Gua then adds a treatise on spherical trigonometry, which he professes to deduce, very briefly and completely, from the algebraical solution of the most simple of its problems, by means of the different transformations, of which the respective proportions of the sines, &c. of the same arc or plane angle render the solution susceptible. It contains, too, some formulæ and remarks, which he supposes to be new and useful.

The only problem required, is, the two sides and the containing angle of any spherical triangle being given, to find the third side. There is much neatness and accuracy in our author's method, but we do not see that it is superior to Simpson's, with which our mathematical readers must be well acquainted.—The corollaries are thirteen in number, and diverge so much from the original proposition, that every advantage from the connection seems to be lost.—We must resume this volume in a future Number.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

D I V I N I T Y.

The Analogy between the Light of Inspiration and the Light of Learning, as Qualifications for the Ministry: a Sermon preached in the Cathedral Church of Gloucester, at a public Ordination of Priests and Deacons, on Sunday, September 9, 1787. By the Rev. Samuel Horsley, LL.D. F.R.S. 4to. 1s. Robson and Clarke,

THIS is in many respects an elegant and learned discourse, from 1 Cor. ii. 2. "For I determined not to know any thing among you, save Jesus Christ and him crucified." Dr. Horsley endeavours to show, that when the apostles seem to depreciate human learning, they refer to the subtle eloquence of many pretenders to the Gospel, whose refinements had deprived it of its essence and energy. The learning requisite for a preacher was, in the apostles, the gift of tongues, the inspiration of the Holy Ghost: in modern divines, this gift must be supplied by study and attention; and the deductions of modern enthusiasts, who depend only on their zeal and their fervour, are not less founded on the real meaning of the texts than on reason and common sense.—The Gifts and the Offices, in this Epistle of St. Paul,

F 2

Paul,

Paul, Dr. Horsley thinks, answer to each other in their respective orders; but these sentiments are not peculiar to our author. His opinion, that the Offices show that a Hierarchy and an extensive establishment had taken place in the Christian church, when little more than half a century had elapsed from the death of Christ, is more original, but more uncertain. On the whole, this sermon has much merit; but we fear that it may occasion altercation.

An Essay on the Depravity of the Nation, with a View to the Promotion of Sunday Schools, &c. of which a more extended Plan is proposed. By the Rev. Joseph Berington. 1s. 8vo. Robinsons.

This is a more finished Essay than we could have expected from the title; yet it is more conspicuous from the neat and rounded periods of the language, than from the novelty of the author's opinions. The effects of vicious indulgence on the individual, he transfers to society; and shows, that the checks which have hitherto been applied to prevent the spreading of these injurious deviations are insufficient. After many remarks, whose application to the subject is remote, and not always clear, some of which we think not well founded, he considers Sunday schools as the principal and best remedy for the evil. His plan for extending their utility, is to connect them only with the general principles of religion, not with the tenets of a sect; and to put into the hands of the children, elementary books of general morality, and undisputed theology. The usual catechisms, he observes, with great justice, are in general too abstruse for the age at which they are taught.

We have more than once observed, that though plans of this kind are apparently liberal and judicious, they would probably end in the subversion of all religion. We would not abolish the divisions of sects, but moderate their vehemence, and reconcile them to each other, that they might converse as brethren and friends. Mr. Berington need not be afraid, at present, of intolerance.

A plain Account of the Ordinance of Baptism; by William Foot. The third Edition, with the Author's last Corrections and Improvements, by Joshua Toulmin. A. M. small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

This little tract is highly commendable for the candour and good sense displayed in it. We have seldom seen a controversial subject managed with so little asperity. Yet we cannot agree in the author's conclusions: his principles, and the interpretation of the texts have often, and may be with justness combated; so that it is not surprising that we should diverge greatly from each other at last. The character of this work is now established; and, if this had not been a third edition, a controversy of this kind would be unsuitable to our situation.

Jesus Christ the true God, and only Object of supreme Adoration. By J. Hodson, M. D. 2 Vols. Small 8vo. 5s. sewed. Deighton.

Dr. Hodson's Preface is florid and abrupt; but the work is written.

written in a more gentle strain; and is, in many respects, perspicuous, and sometimes forcible. A great part of it consists in quotations from different parts of the Bible, and in a comparison of various passages from the Old and New Testament. In the first essay, he endeavours to prove the divinity of Jesus Christ; in the next, his humanity; of course, in the third, he is shown to be both God and man. In the second volume, different objections, which have been made to the divinity of Christ, are attempted to be answered, with very different success. The objections are, that Jesus Christ, in the Gospel, hath not avowed himself to be God; that he has not only never required prayer to be addressed to him, but has absolutely forbidden it; and that this trinity of person, or nature, is not only unnecessary, but inconsistent. These objections are frequently answered very imperfectly, and we greatly prefer the first volume to the second.

We are not so certain of the force of Dr. Hodson's vindication of his stepping out of the way of his profession, as he seems to be: tractat fabrilis fabri, is an adage, whose good sense strongly recommends it, and its general acceptance proves its truth. In these volumes there is some acuteness, a large collection of apposite passages from the scripture; but so little novelty either in the selection, or the application, that while on the one hand we are unable to select any adequate specimen, on the other we cannot recommend this work, in any other way than as a new form of old arguments; as a repetition without any considerable improvement.

Pædobaptism examined, on the Principles, Concessions, and Reasonings of the most learned Pædobaptists; second Edition. 2 Vols. Dilly.

The first edition of this work was examined in our 57th Volume, page 463; and it is since greatly enlarged, by many valuable additions. As we gave then a specimen of Mr. Booth's method of arguing, and as we have, in our 53d Volume, given our opinion on the subject, it is sufficient to have mentioned this new and enlarged edition of an excellent and well conducted defence.

Ecclesiastes, in Three Parts. A new Translation with a Paraphrase. To which is added, A new Translation of other Passages of Scripture; with Notes and Reflections on the present Fashion of correcting the Hebrew Text by Conjecture. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Lowndes.

If our author contends on the one hand, that the text of the sacred scriptures are very little, if at all corrupted; and the modern critics, that much should be amended, and much restored, before the sense of the Hebrew authors be ascertained with precision, it will be at once obvious, that the dispute can only be decided by recurring to MSS. of different æras, and comparing the value of the different readings. This comparison is now before us, and we think that, from this evidence, Mr.

Greenaway's opinion appears not well established. Yet we agree with him when he contends, that not only in sacred, but profane authors, a careful attention would often supersede the enquiry after a various reading.

This work contains a translation, with a commentary on Ecclesiastics, published at different times, and in no regular order,—with some remarks on other parts of the Old Testament. Of his translation, and of his Preface, we can select no specimen, because no passage will give an adequate view of the work. The author is sometimes whimsical and erroneous in his interpretations, and sometimes judicious and correct; but, in every instance, he is serious and religious; he is generally also calm and candid, except when the texts have been much tortured to render them intelligible, and consistent with the context. In his remarks on profane authors, in the Preface, he occasionally employs the utmost licence of conjectural emendation, while he warmly opposes this method of drawing the sense from obscurity: in one or two instances, he has shown some dexterity, in explaining without any of the expedients of Procrustes. His observations are occasionally too far extended; and we are led to think of the old age of Nestor, when the friends and the companions of his younger days occur to his recollection. But though we mention it as critics, as men we sincerely pardon it, and attentively listen with the respect due to grey hairs, uncontaminated with vice,

M E D I C A L

Bath Waters, a conjectural Idea of their Nature and Qualities, in three Letters. By A. W. M. D. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons.

Dr. Wilson either wrote his Letters about the year 1776, or from that time he had neglected chemical enquiries, and lost all remembrance of the intervening period. But this too is a conjectural idea; now a conjectural idea consists of 'inferences drawn from, and a judgment formed upon collated circumstances;' at least our author tells us so, though on less authority we should not have believed it. The inference just hinted at, we draw from the 'collated circumstances' of our author's ignorance of every newly discovered fact: and, in his own words, where he tells us what Mess. Baume and Meyer are now '*penetrating into*.' But what they are *penetrating into* is what they guessed at in 1776, and of which our author's knowledge is derived from Macquer's Dictionary, published in 1778, though translated some little time afterwards.

Having given *our* conjectural idea, we must proceed to Dr. Wilson's; and here we own that we are somewhat at a loss. The matters discovered by evaporation do not assist him; and, as to his opinion of the aerial impregnation, we cannot trust to an analysis; we must take his own words:

'2. As to the second point, namely, the unanalysable ingredients with which the water is impregnated. There is no manner

manner of doubt but that the Bath waters, along with their heat, acquire a specific, definable impregnation, though too subtle to be caught, to which I have no hesitation in ascribing their most eminent and powerful qualities.

‘Inflamable gas is perfectly generated in the resolution of pyritous substances, which is always attended with fermentative heat. Though it is of the nature of an highly inflammable oil, yet, in the form of vapour, it freely mixes with water; as perhaps any inflamable substance would do in the same divided state. It appears to me that Bath waters are no further either sulphurous or calybeate than they are impregnated by that pyritical ferment which supports their heat: I think I am justified, therefore, in concluding that they derive their heat and their characteristic qualities from the same immediate cause.’

Again,

‘Acid gas, commonly called fixed air, has by no means escaped the attention of medical people: which they may find as pleasantly in brisk cyder, or spruce beer, as in a saline draught in the act of effervescence: but, inflamable gas has not only escaped their attention, but whenever, without their intention, or permission, it has insinuated itself into their compositions, they have taken particular care to avoid it: as, in the washing of sal polychrest, and the almost total disuse of the balsam of sulphur; while the disgusting ingredient was in fact the most active and important one in the compositions.

‘This inflamable gas, called also hepatic air, which I shall call the progeny of sulphur, because, I do not think it can properly be accounted the inflamable part of it only; but rather an inversion of its substance or corporeal particles into a volatile and more perfectly inflamable modification. I have lately seen an account of some experiments tending to confirm this idea of the matter.

‘This inflamable vapour I consider as one of the most active, to be at the same time, to the sense, mild principles that can be employed in medicine: even sulphur in the form of flowers, which is not in quite so bad repute as this progeny of it is amongst physical folk, never exerts its efficacy in the animal constitution, but in so far as it is subtilised into this volatile inflamable state; a state which the inflammation of sulphur in the open air cannot reduce any of its parts to, as is manifest from both the singular pungency of its smell, and the colour of its flame when burning.’

The mention of hepatic air may seem to oppose our ‘conjectural idea;’ but a very little attention to Dr. Wilson’s account will confirm it, and lead us to suppose, that he is only relating his dreams in the interval of his forgetfulness, when he was probably asleep.

The second essay is intended to show that no putrefaction takes place in fevers, except in the last moments; and that there is no infection. This is a very comfortable opinion, and we

with that there was something more solid to support it than mere assertion. The author rails at the doctrine of spasm; yet he speaks of the stoppage of circulation in the extremities, the vacillatory tremor of the extreme vessels, and the exertions to overcome this tremor, and restore the circulation. This doctrine is, in other words, that of spasm and reaction. There are, however, some useful remarks in this essay; and some which seem to show that Dr. Wilson is not unacquainted with practice. But we object strongly to scalding the patient with hot water by way of a stimulus.

An Essay on the Treatment of Consumptions, by Richard Charles, 8vo. 1s. Herdsfield.

Mr. Charles supposes, that consumptions arise from too great viscosity of the blood; and that fluids, in this viscid state, are absorbed, and stagnated in the glands. To this theory there is but one objection, viz. that in such cases the blood is not preternaturally viscid; the buffy coat arising from the tenuity, which suffers the red particles to fall down before the crassamentum concretes: this tenuity is, however, only apparent, from the increased action of the vessels. In the latter stages, particularly, the blood is in reality too thin. The medicine which our author employs, must be examined by experience; for it may be of service, though the theory is erroneous.

R Liquminis salis diuretici—Suponis Mollis aa unc. unam
essentia limonum drach. unam. M.

By liquamen, we suppose that our author means the diuretic salt, in a deliquescent state. Of this liniment a tea spoonful or two are to be rubbed in, on the breast or abdomen, morning and evening. No other medicine is recommended; but, for the general management, the reader is referred to Dr. Fothergill, Dr. Reid, &c.—and a copious extract follows from Dr. Buchan. We heartily wish success to our author's plan; but we own that we have very little confidence in it. Will a drachm of diuretic salt, as much soap, and seven drops of essence of lemons, rubbed on the skin, lessen general irritability? We wish that it would!

P O L I T I C A L.

The Speeches of Mr. Wilkes in the House of Commons. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. No Publisher's Name.

The *Last Words* of Mr. Baxter sold so well, that the world was soon entertained with *More Last Words*. We hope that the sale of these Speeches will produce the same effect; and that if infirmities should prevent Mr. Wilkes from going to the house, we may at least receive *intended* speeches.—The author will forgive our insinuation, for the sake of the comparison; but, in more than one instance, we looked on some of these as, in a great measure, intended Speeches; we mean, in the same manner as Cicero's in favour of Milo, the effect of which, in speaking, was much inferior to its impression when read. We mean not to accuse
Mr.

Mr. Wilkes of the timidity of Cicero; but, as we never suspected him of writing previously what he should speak, it is not improbable that he may have sometimes written afterwards, what he *might* have said. Or, perhaps, he publishes his Speeches for the reason which he assigned when he persuaded Lord G. G. to adopt a similar conduct.

‘ Upon all occasions, in every station of life, and at the risk of what I hold most important, personal freedom, I will continue the strenuous defender of the liberty of the press, the bulwark of all our liberties. I beg pardon, Mr. Speaker, for this digression. I was going to remark, that his lordship’s justification would have come more full and satisfactory by the publication of the genuine speech than by a complaint to this house of *misrepresentation*, or a prosecution in a court of law. We have often been charmed within these walls with the manly sentiments, the honest effusions of the heart, which characterise my noble friend’s speeches. I therefore venture to supplicate his lordship to gratify the impatience of the public at large, as well as of his own constituents, and the numerous and zealous synods and presbyteries of Scotland, with the permission of reading what you, sir, and the House heard with so much pleasure. This will not only confute the wicked *libellers* of his lordship (for *Matthews* is not the only one, they are *legion*), but remain a weighty obligation on the present age and posterity. It will furnish a clear demonstration that in these times, and in this house, we possess one noble senator from the North, who has told ministers the boldest and most unwelcome truths, without the smallest amendment hitherto in a single member of administration.’

We have selected this passage as a specimen of our author’s shrewd, sarcastic manner. At this time it is only necessary to say, that the Speeches before us contain those inserted in the two first volumes of 1777, and the additional one of 1778. These three volumes make about two-thirds of that now before us; though every little scrap which can illustrate the Speeches, or add to the volume, is subjoined.

The subjects of our author’s oratory are well known to be many of the popular (sometimes called patriotic) questions which have occurred in parliament. They are proofs of a good understanding, and a readiness in adapting, in proper language, whatever his reading may have furnished to the question before the house; added to the sarcastic manner already noticed.

Speech of Mr. Wilkes on the Impeachment of Mr. Hastings. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

Mr. Wilkes defends the late governor-general of Bengal, upon the principle of his successful administration in the East, enforced by the thankful acknowledgments which he had repeatedly received from the court of directors. The Speech is conceived in the animated language of its author; and breathes a spirit of generosity untainted with political prejudices.

A Let-

A Letter to James Tobin, Esq. late Member of his Majesty's Council in the Island of Nevis, from James Ramsay, A. M. 6d. Phillips.

In Volume lxiv. p. 78. we examined Mr. Tobin's letter; and observed, that the controversy was degenerating into personal invective. It has now reached almost to its acmé: of course there is an end of argument, a period put to information; and it would be no less difficult than unpleasing, to engage in an examination of this Letter.

N O V E L S.

The School for Fathers; or, the Victim of a Curse. Containing Authentic Memoirs and Anecdotes, with Historical Facts. Three Volumes. 12mo. 9s. Robinsons.

It is perhaps, as the editor observes, of no great consequence, whether a novel be really authentic: it is read with avidity, and while it gives a faithful picture of real life, the authenticity of its materials are of little comparative importance. The letters, however, of which these volumes in a great degree consist, we believe to be genuine. They are simply elegant and neat, without adventitious ornaments. Alfred feels for Elwina the warmest affection, while he assumes only the name of her friend; but a disguise so repugnant to his natural feelings, and even to nature, is awkwardly put on, and worn with uneasiness. Elwina meets him with a similar flame; and if the whole of the letters appear, this friendship seems to rise more suddenly than is common; they become at once too warm for friends, and not sufficiently explicit for lovers. This conduct, though apparently faulty, is not inconsistent with nature. Those who, for different reasons, dare not talk of love, will employ the language which is allowed, but are seemingly inconsistent, as it is dictated by a passion different from that which they have assumed. Alfred and Elwina are separated by family-ambition, assisted a little by their own. He is sent to Minorca, killed during the siege; and she dies soon after hearing the news; it was communicated too abruptly, from motives which, for the credit of human nature, we hope are misrepresented.

If the letters, as we believe, are genuine, the heart of Alfred was well regulated, and his mind well stored with information of different kinds. He was minutely attentive, tender, and affectionate. Elwina was his counterpart, and the little elegant attentions are seemingly directed by a mind of exquisite sensibility. 'Our Maria' must forgive us, if we do not pay an equal compliment to the language of the introductory part: it is in some places incorrect, and in many embarrassed. The title too is exceptionable. Can Harley's misfortunes arise from the imprecations of his grandfather on a son, who at least, in the instance which drew them on his devoted head, was not blameable? Can his son be the victim of that groundless curse? Every sentiment of reason and religion revolts at a suggestion so improper

proper and so improbable; we think these volumes would have lost no part of their value, if it had been entirely expunged. The American Adventures, though interesting, do not seem to be equally genuine. The story of Logan is a little improbable. On the whole, we have been highly pleased with these letters, and perhaps should have received a greater and a more unalloyed gratification from them without the narratives. The Sprig of Myrtle, and some similar traits are exquisite, though similar circumstances occur in the 'Correspondents'.

Ela, or the Delusions of the Heart; a Tale founded on Facts.
12mo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons,

This little Tale is truly simple and pathetic; and while its distress for a time pains, its moral mends the heart. The conduct of the story renders it interesting, and differs from the frequent narratives which, in this season of the year, the press sends forth in abundance; and it is the conduct and the reflections on the different incidents, rather than the novelty of the story, that distinguish the Delusions of Ela. There is some improbability in the catastrophe; nor did the nightingale entertain, or the wood-pigeon soothe us, who reflected that the scene was in India. These harsh notes occasionally destroyed the harmony and merit of the rest of the work, which deserves no inconsiderable commendation.

Catherine, or the Wood of Llewellyn; a descriptive Tale, by the Author of the Village of Martindale. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed Lane.

We never wish to break a butterfly on a wheel, and often praise where the severity of criticism might have checked the tender mercies which well-meant endeavours have drawn from our tribunal. If, however, we own that we may have been sometimes too merciful, the fault of those who extract every particle of blame, and again publish mutilated characters, mutilated at the expence of common sense, grammar, and justice, cannot fail of exciting the warmest indignation. The editor will soon recollect what has suggested these remarks; and he will remember that nothing draws down the vengeance of justice with greater certainty than the abuse of clemency.

These volumes contain a simple and pathetic Tale.—Pure description sometimes holds the place of sense; and, instead of new characters, we meet with situations somewhat uncommon, and occasionally improbable. The union of the Old Bachelor, and the Old Maid, if not entirely new, is at least a novelty in histories of this kind.—On the whole, however, the unity of the plan, the artificial concealment of the event, with the neatness of the language, render this novel more estimable than the 'every day publications,' designed for the circulating libraries. The parodies are very well executed; but the frontispiece is so much the reverse, that, like the candle in the noted epigram, it cures the reader of every partiality that he may have felt for the personal charms of the heroine,

Augusta;

Augusta; or the Dependent Niece, in Letters. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Vernor.

One of those productions which neither excite admiration nor contempt. There is not an atom in these volumes which some former novellist might not claim.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

A free Translation of the Preface to Bellendenus; containing animated Strictures on the great Political Characters of the present Time. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Payne and Son.

While one friend of the late editor of Bellendenus informs the world of the subject of the work, another has rendered the political Preface, which introduces it, more accessible to common readers. There is an originality in the language of this translation; but, while by this means the value is augmented, we are led to suspect that the translator enjoyed peculiar advantages, which greatly contribute to the excellence of his work. There is a neatness in rendering *some* difficult and complicated passages, which could not easily be attained but by one who possessed the idea as well as the words. Indeed, the errors which we have observed are not those where the sense seems to be mistaken, or where the idiom is the Latin one; but in a few colloquial phrases, that sometimes seem to injure the elegance of the whole. In short, this translation can only be styled 'free' in opposition to one where

— Verbum verbo curabit reddere fidus

Interpres.

But political discussions are the phrenzies of the moment: the time may soon arrive when the editor's elegant Latinity, and his translator's faithful attention, will be involved in oblivion, with the panegyrics and invectives of the day. Why did not the author chuse a subject as durably interesting as his own eloquence?

The True Alarm! an Essay: shewing the pernicious Influence of Houses of Industry on the political Interests of this Country. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

The author of this pamphlet endeavours to shew the pernicious influence of houses of industry on the political interests of this country. If all that he affirms concerning these receptacles of the poor be well founded (and we believe there is much truth in his assertions), they must prove of real prejudice to the public. Without previous investigation, however, it would doubtless be too precipitate to determine on the abolition of them all, from abuses discovered in a few. But that a minute examination of their œconomy, and their effects, in the different parts of the kingdom, should be commenced as soon as possible, under the authority of the legislature, would be a measure worthy of attention, and is strongly inculcated by the observations contained in the present pamphlet.

Memoirs

Memoirs of Major Edward M'Gauran. In a Series of Letters, written by himself. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Hookham.

Major M'Gauran has served in a military capacity in several armies; and has experienced many vicissitudes in life. In these Memoirs he presents us not only with his own adventures, but a description of the countries through which he has passed. He appears to be a gentleman of a volatile disposition, but of good principles. His life has hitherto been devoted to one Minerva, and we now wish him much success in his application to the other.

The Conjuror Unmask'd. 2s. 6d. Denton.

This production, which is translated from the French, contains an explanation of all the surprising performances exhibited in this kingdom and on the continent, by the most eminent professors of flight of hand; with descriptions, observations, and directions for the tricks of the divining rod, automaton chess-player, self-performing organ, speaking figure, artificial serpents, mechanical birds, &c. &c.—a choice and plentiful bill of fare for the gratification of curiosity.

An Address to the Manufacturers and Traders of Great Britain. 12mo. 6d. Otridge.

The design of this address is to point out the hurtful consequences of selling commodities under the market-price. The author's principle seems not to be destitute of foundation; but he has thought proper to support it in such a bombastic strain of argument, as is extremely unsuitable to the subject. His plan for remedying the evils complained of, however, merits attention; as does likewise his proposal for the better employment of the poor.

A Dissertation on the Construction of Locks. By Joseph Bramah. 8vo. 1s. Baldwin.

This ingenious artist clearly evinces, that the best constructed locks are liable to be secretly opened, either by pick-locks, or false keys, skillfully made. But, to the honour of his own invention, he describes a particular kind of lock, constructed by himself, which affords perfect security against all the machinations of art. As we cannot give our readers an adequate idea of it without plates, we must be contented with informing them, that the peculiarity of this curious piece of mechanism consists in making the wards moveable; and in adapting the Lock to the key, instead of fitting the key to the lock. The perusal of this pamphlet will afford pleasure to those who are conversant in mechanics.

A Letter to the Treasurer of the Society instituted for the Purpose of effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade; from the Rev. Robert Boucher Nickolls. Small 8vo. 2d. Phillips.

This letter is truly humane, sensible, and interesting: it affords a strong argument for abolishing the slave trade, inasmuch as it will procure better treatment to the Negroes; to keep up the stock

stock of native slaves: there is little doubt, if we trust to reason or facts, but that a sufficient supply will arise from their natural increase, a supply equal even to the extended cultivations. This view of the subject, however, will not satisfy those whose affected humanity or real zeal aims at the total abolition of slavery. We own, that we wish either the circumstances, or the political situation of the West India islands, would admit of this salutary reform; but, after maturely weighing every argument, we are convinced, that it is not only inexpedient, but impracticable. To abolish the Guinea trade should be the present chief object; and the next step may not be equally difficult; but the change must be gradual.

An Essay on Anger; by John Fawcett. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

If, as Horace says, anger is a paroxysm of madness, our author, who endeavours to direct its object and measure, may be justly said to teach men cum ratione insanire—an attempt which has been supposed to be sufficiently absurd. This *Essay on Anger* has, however, some merit: it is plain and practical; and it may be useful. Criticism has, therefore, no object: the faults of the author are covered by good designs of the moralist; and the critic would be ill employed who searched for faults that would lessen the utility of the author and his work.

Mrs. Inglesfield's Justification, containing the Proceedings in the Ecclesiastical Court, before the right-worshipful Peter Calvert, LL.D. By Mrs. Ann Inglesfield. 8vo. 2s. Sewell.

This pamphlet contains an account of the proceedings of the ecclesiastical court relative to Mrs. Inglesfield; who now appeals to the public in vindication of her character, insisting that she is cleared from all injurious aspersions, by the favourable decision of the court.

Captain Inglesfield's Vindication of his Conduct: or, a Reply to a Pamphlet entitled, "Mrs. Inglesfield's Justification." 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

The present pamphlet is a reply to the preceding. The captain, not satisfied with the arguments adduced in Mrs. Inglesfield's favour, in the ecclesiastical court, perseveres in maintaining the criminality of which she had been accused, and manifests such an opinion of her conduct as seems utterly incompatible with the idea of reconciliation recommended to the parties by the court.

An Answer to Captain Inglesfield's Vindication of his Conduct, &c. 8vo. 6d. Sewell.

This unbecoming dispute has been already maintained too long before the tribunal of the public. We rather wish than hope that a reconciliation might take place between captain and Mrs. Inglesfield; but it is an event which never can be effected by violent means; and the altercation serves only to render the unfortunate breach more irreparable.

CORRE

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE are much obliged to the author of the 'Treatise on Gout and Gravel,' for his candour and complaisance; yet we are still at a distance. He speaks of the difference between the concreting acid and the phosphoric, 'in all the trials to which' the former 'has been put.' He would favour us by mentioning them. It is not proved by the strong and powerful attraction which the calculeous acid has for magnesia: it is not proved by the superior affinity which muriatic acid has for the fossil alkali. In both these instances the *similarity* between the two acids is striking. We have made no experiments on the subject; and if we had, we should be cautious of quoting them, as experiments on anonymous authority are not always well received by the world, though we should feel ourselves indebted to the author of the treatise for those decisive ones, on which his opinion is so firmly fixed.

We cannot yet acquit our correspondent of not being indebted to Mr. Berthollet for the hint, because, before the publication of his memoir, he was not aware that the concreting matter was an acid. He now differs from him on the nature of the acid, though without adducing a single experiment in favour of his own opinion: the two experiments just mentioned, which are his own, are decidedly against him, and they are the only ones, in his treatise, which are applicable to this dispute. He must allow us to add, that he has never said that he was not indebted to Berthollet; and till he has explained the foundation of his different opinion respecting the nature of the acid, the suspicion must necessarily remain.

Our correspondent has left off transcribing from the Review, at the very sentence where we mentioned the phosphoric acid as a principle of the animal earth, which we supposed to be one of the ingredients of calculi. We do not wonder then that he saw nothing of the phosphoric acid; but we wonder that he accused us of knowing nothing of it, for very obvious reasons. If fixed air is not a formal as well as a virtual ingredient in calculi, how will our correspondent account for the action of lime-water, and of caustic alkali on it, in Scheele's experiments.

Our correspondent's acquaintance with the chemical nature of the blood is very limited. No fixed air has been demonstrated in it: its neutral salts ~~have~~ been separated: no separate acid has ever been found in either the chyle or circulating fluids. Why these things are so, we know not: it is enough that these are facts. 'If,' says our correspondent, 'a little of any acid be mixed with fresh urine, it acquires in a very short time after the precipitation has taken place, the peculiar foetid smell by which the urine of nephritic patients is distinguished.' We have transcribed this additional argument, because the author points it out with some care, and shall add only one short remark: we never found any foetid smell in nephritic urine, except

cept when an abscess has discharged purulent matter into the bladder. Yet we have seen many scores of nephritic patients, and have constantly smelt the urine, because we always supposed that the fœtor was a proof of the presence of pus, and distinguished it from the increased flow of mucus, which commonly attends the presence of any acrid substance in the bladder. Has our author tried the experiment as often? or must we put his knowledge of chemical physiology and practice on the same footing on which we had once occasion to put his chemical acquisitions?

We should apologise to our correspondent, and to our readers, for considering this subject to so great an extent; but we hope that the discussions in which we have been engaged, will promote the progress of science, and extend the knowledge of the nature of this singular acid.

We are much obliged to 'Another Friend' of the Critical Review, for his offers. We profess to review every reviewable publication; but, in the hurry of collection, some escape us, and we shall gratefully acknowledge any communication of this kind.

We have received a very long and a very obliging letter from 'Criticus,' who compliments us on the execution of the two articles of M. Volney; but he wishes that we had examined 'the variation in the accounts of this author and M. Savary more accurately, and given our opinion on the disputed points.' To have enlarged on the various observations which the perusal of M. Volney suggested, would, in our own opinion, have entangled us in the mazes of controversy. But it may give some satisfaction to our correspondent, to inform him that M. Michaelis, in a foreign Journal, has attacked M. Savary, and shown that much of his erudition is copied from Abulfeda, and actually written after his return.

We should not probably have engaged in any controversy relating to the Anodyne Ætherial Spirit, if we had been aware that it would have occasioned so many remarks, and that opinions on the subject were so various. Our article has by some of our correspondents been considered as hostile to Mr. Tickell, and by others as too favourable. If we can judge of our own designs, we can truly say, that we gave those sentiments which arose from a very careful and attentive examination of the medicine, and of the diseases for which it was directed. We concealed only what might have been injurious to the inventor, without benefitting the world. If we did not, as Medicus wishes, give the result of our own experience with it, we must candidly own, that we had not then used it in cases sufficiently appropriated, and sufficiently varied, to enable us to give any decided opinion on that subject.



THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For FEBRUARY, 1788.

Mary Queen of Scots Vindicated. By John Whitaker, B. D.
8vo. 3 Vols. 18s. in Boards. Murray, London; Creech,
Edinburgh.

THE age of chivalry is not wholly passed away: knight-errants sally out in pursuit of imaginary adventures; they dress up the object of their vows in the most glittering attire; adorn her with every merit and every virtue; then throw down the gauntlet in defence of an image which owes its decorations to their skill.—The amiable, the elegant dowager of France was little adapted by nature to the turbulent rule of a ferocious and uncivilised nation; yet, while chance offered to her assistance able and honest counsellors, and while Providence preserved them, her life was comparatively easy, and her reign happy. We have no reason, from any of the events of her life, to think her prudence was considerable, or her judgment accurate: in the early periods there are many reasons for a very different opinion, though she profited in the school of adversity by the severe lessons of her artful rival. Mary's person, formed to inspire love, her accomplishments, which even a rude age could feel and value, raised contending admirers in her prosperity, and commiserating friends in her adversity. From the machinations of these, rather than from actual guilt, she suffered in her life; and her memory has experienced the wounds of calumny since that time. Elizabeth was too eager to lose sight even of inadvertencies in her rival, and too earnest for her downfall to conceal them without animadversion: her courtiers magnified every little tale, and aspersed the memory of Mary, to justify, if possible, an act cruel, malicious, and perfidious.

So little was the bishop of Ross's Vindication regarded, that the tide rolled on with undiminished force, till it was checked in 1754, by Mr. Goodall; whose efforts were assisted by Mr. Tytler. Afterwards Dr. Stuart, in the first instance; and Mr. Whitaker, in the present Volumes, attempted to turn the torrent in an opposite direction. Many manuscript ma-

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terials

terials are still to be found in different collections; for the friends of Mary who survived her were numerous, though the power of Elizabeth prevented their speaking openly or loudly. We could have wished that Mr. Whitaker's zeal had led him to these repositories, instead of again dishing up the crambé recocta of his predecessor; instead of dilating, amplifying, and adding to suppositions and difficulties, which, at this distance, must involve the questions in obscurity, without a possibility of being able to elucidate them.

After a very mature consideration of all the arguments, we own that, in our eyes, Mary appears not to have been criminal; and we believe the letters are in reality the forgeries of her enemies. She was innocent of the murder of Darnley, though his conduct could not lead her to respect his memory, or greatly to regret the loss she had sustained. She was captivated by Henry's person: his picture remains; and it represents a tall, robust, but an awkward and ungainly young man. His face is not animated by a soul either of spirit or sensibility; and, consistently with this appearance, his conduct seems to have been mean, trifling, wavering, and silly. Bothwell is said to have recommended himself to her notice by his intrepidity: if Mary was not privy to his design of carrying her off, and there is no very decisive reason to believe that she was, we cannot, while we reflect on her situation, and the state of society at that time, blame her for her subsequent conduct, though she had remained free from the violation which Mr. Whitaker contends that she had experienced. Yet, with all Bothwell's turbulence and spirit, we cannot suppose that he would have proceeded so far with his sovereign, if, from Mary's indiscretion, he had not known that he had a powerful advocate in her heart. This reasoning, however, proceeds on the supposition that the letters and the contract are forgeries; and, to prove that they are so, is the object of Mr. Whitaker's three large volumes.

We shall not examine these volumes minutely: the profusion of words; the repetition of arguments; and reasoning sometimes the most trifling, deter us from it. It is Mr. Whitaker's opinion that Mary was innocent. With that view, every thing like an argument, every thing like a reason, both good and bad, are accumulated. It is not enough that his heroine is not guilty; but she must be the wisest, the best of queens, and of women. With an amiable heart, and with strict integrity, she indeed shines when placed near her insidious relation; and if we speak of her as an elegant woman, in a rude age, we may allow gallantry to expatiate largely in her praise. A severe historian must be more exact.

We

We suspected Mr. Whitaker, even in the beginning of the first volume: the picture was too flattering to be a correct drawing. Her eloquence is spoken of repeatedly from Camden's Annals; and the original of this word is 'suada.' It is not eloquence, it is persuasion; and they must have been more, or less than men, who could not be persuaded by the arguments and tears of an elegant woman, of a woman in distress, persecuted and oppressed. The language of those who conversed with Mary must be rigorously examined. It is not the only instance of our author's mistranslation, though it is so trifling a one that we should not have noticed it, if some of his arguments had not been of the philological kind. The *Prêtres fortunés* of Boileau are styled the 'happy priests:' it is true, the word may be translated *happy*; but their luck, not their felicity, is the subject of the poet's satire. These little circumstances must have their weight in the arguments drawn from the internal evidence of letters no longer in existence, of which only imperfect and inaccurate translations remain. Our author's arguments by no means show that they were not written originally in French.

We need not dwell on the historian's contradiction of himself, in the character of Mary. After the most profuse commendations of her judgment and prudence, he allows that she did not hold the reins of government with firmness; that she was guilty occasionally of 'great folly,' and of numerous indiscretions.

In the examination of the letters Mr. Whitaker reasons with greater strictness and acuteness. He remarks, at length, how the first rumour of letters intercepted grew gradually to the alarming magnitude of written records; that the time when they were said to be intercepted renders the whole doubtful, because, from various circumstances, it was impossible that they could then have been seized; that extracts were circulated before the letters were seen; that the originals were never examined by impartial witnesses, or compared with Mary's own writing, but by the designing Elizabeth; that the reputed substance of the letters when they were first seized, was very different from what appeared in them when the pretended originals were produced. In short, every part of the transaction when nicely sifted, showed, in his opinion, that the framers of the plot had not determined in what manner to carry it on. At this distance much must undoubtedly remain in obscurity; nor is it to be expected that we can account for the conduct, which, if we for a moment suppose the letters genuine, would be proper for a regent to pursue, when his queen was suspect-

ed; or the guardian of a son, when the mother was attacked in the severest manner. Yet there was an evident endeavour, even in those to whom Mary's fame was not of consequence, to avoid enquiry. A fair comparison was never made, the accounts of different witnesses very evidently, in our opinion, relate to different sets of letters; and the leaders of the faction were known to be able to counterfeit her hand. The letters too,—letters of the greatest importance, are sent without even a seal. We shall add a specimen of our author's reasoning, who could not have been more explicit if he had been the confidant of Lethington.

The first time that the idea of a set of forged letters was suggested to the rebels, was on the 24th of July, 1567. It was pretty certainly a spark struck off from the mind of Lethington, by the friendly collision of the ideas of adultery and murder, then floating among the mob of clergy and gentry in Edinburgh, and his own habits of forging the hand-writing of Mary. These habits are sufficiently attested by his own confession; as he acknowledged in secret to the commissioners at York, that he had frequently forged her writing. His active hand, therefore, caught the spark as it flew, threw in the combustibles, which his active genius could always furnish, and fanned both immediately into a little flame. He is expressly said by the rebels themselves, to have been "esteemed by them as one of the best engines or spirits of his country." He is particularly reported to have had "a crafty head and fell [or sharp] tongue." Elizabeth also is declared by her own ambassadour, to have known him well "for his wisdom to conceive, and his wit to convey, whatsoever his mind is bent unto to bring it to pass." And he is described by another cotemporary, to have been "naturally inclined to plotting and intriguing, and fond of encountering difficulties, as tools that served to sharpen his wit, of which he had a very great stock." He instantly conceived the plan of a series of letters, fabricated in a writing similar to Mary's, and proving all that the mob asserted, in order to terrify Mary into the wanted resignation. He instantly connected it with its proper accompaniments. His mind had always a quickness of invention, and a vigour of formation about it. And his tongue, which was as lively as his fancy, instantly reported the whole for a system already in existence, to Throgmorton; to whose lodgings he frequently repaired, and in whose ear he frequently pretended to whisper the secret designs of the party. He was, no doubt, the principal channel of intelligence to Throgmorton on all occasions. He was the only channel upon this. Had the project of the letters been known to any except the relater and the reporter, it must soon have crept out among the busy partizans in the city, and appeared in some of Throgmorton's intelligences concerning them. Such a pretended

tended discovery, if it had once gone out beyond the two, would not long have crept. It would soon have raised itself upon its feet. It would soon have stalked forth in gigantic formidableness, among the amazed crowds. And it was privately intimated to Throgmorton only, that he might act in conjunction with Lethington and his four associates in treachery; that he might write like them to Mary, upon the dangers that were pressing upon her from every side; and that so he might unite to drive the poor doe, which they could not hunt down, into the toils prepared for her.'

So rapidly run our author's ideas, and so plausible is his relation: yet this very able, this quick convenient engine forged, if the other parts of Mr. Whitaker's suspicion be true, the letters, so awkwardly and imperfectly, that two or three editions were necessary before they were fit to meet the public eye: the dullest tool of the most uninformed party could not have succeeded worse.

The variations with respect to the number of letters, the sonnets, &c. at some times said to be found with them, while at other times letters only seem to be spoken of, are arguments of little importance, unless it be proved necessary to speak in common of such things in the style of a lease, and to repeat, on every occasion, executors, administrators, and assigns, as well as barns, stables, and out-houses. There is one fact which appears to us very strong: the clerk of the privy council mentions the letters as written and *subscribed* by her own hand. It is impossible to account for the introduction of the last word, unless the letters there produced had been subscribed. The real letters had no signature, and we cannot avoid joining Mr. Whitaker in his suspicion, that though they could forge the hand of Mary, they could not imitate her seal. Of course unsealed letters, on such subjects, could not properly have a signature; and such letters must be consequently obscure and illusive. We are aware of Mr. Hume's answer to this point; and though we allow his arguments to have great weight, and that they are not sufficiently considered by Mr. Whitaker, yet, in this instance, from the language of the report it is impossible to apply the subscription to the contract.

We have, in this article, chiefly given a specimen of our author's manner, with some remarks on the management of the controversy; and we have selected rather those parts which are subservient to this design, than those in which he has materially elucidated the question. The latter are, indeed, found with much difficulty. He has amplified hints, and has extended the sentences of others to whole pages. From this error, and a want of a pointed and comprehensive view of the

argument, the impression left on the mind is weak. We lose sight of Mary, and see only a tiresome advocate.

It is a little remarkable, that if the conduct of the regency was so varying; if their description of the letters was so frequently changed, that the Duke of Norfolk had not detected the imposition. He was a commissioner at York, and at Westminster; he was a member of the privy council: and yet these letters at different places seem to have assumed different shapes. From his trial it appeared that he considered them as genuine: in the conferences with the bishop of Ross, no doubt of their authenticity appears to have been expressed. This fact should certainly be accounted for better than it has been; though every one who has examined every part of the subject will be induced to think Mary less guilty than she has been generally supposed.

The second Volume contains critical remarks on the letters, and the internal evidence of the forgery. It is tedious, dry, and disgusting. It proves, we think, pretty plainly, though our author contends for a different opinion, that the original, as Hume supposed, is lost; and that the Latin and the French are retranslations from the Scotch version. The argument, in which Mr. Whitaker is most successful, is that which relates to the anachronisms.

The third Volume commences with accounts of some other forgeries, in order to show that it was not an uncommon crime in those times, nor peculiar to Lethington. Mr. Whitaker supposes too, that the letters sent as from Mary to Elizabeth were the production of this deceitful secretary; that the forgery of the letters to Bothwell might be compared with the forgeries of the same hand in letters to Elizabeth. Indeed, Mr. Whitaker's mind is so full of forgeries, that he will hardly allow of the existence of any public instrument of that æra, without interpolations. Criticisms on the Sonnets follow; and they are as uninteresting as the critical remarks on the Letters. After a remark on some observations of Lord Hailes, he returns to the Sonnets, and endeavours to prove them incompatible with history, and with each other. The Contracts next share Mr. Whitaker's attention: one of these he allows to be genuine, and the two others to be forgeries, framed in order to depreciate the character of Mary, by leading the reader to suppose that they were made before the murder of the king.

Mr. Whitaker next examines the circumstances of the murder of Darnley; and is so very minute, that if he had attended the conspirators in every movement, he could not have been more accurately informed of their designs. Murray,

Lethington,

Lethington, and Bothwell were, in his opinion, the chief contrivers of the murder; and it was executed by their servants, or assassins hired by them,

The Appendix contains some original papers, with remarks on the forgeries and interpolations which occur in them. Mr. Whitaker thinks that Buchanan repented of his slanders against Queen Mary: but his opinion rests on uncertain evidence; and Thuanus, if indeed he was the author of *Thuanus Relitutus*, published at Amsterdam, gives a very different account.

We must now take our leave of Mr. Whitaker, whom we can commend only for his good designs. If the little that he has added to the labours of Goodall, Tytler, and Stuart, had been compressed into one half of one volume, it might have been of service to the cause he has espoused.

Additions and Corrections to the former Editions of Dr. Robertson's History of Scotland. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

THESE Additions and Corrections are inserted in their respective places, in the eleventh edition of Dr. Robertson's History; but are likewise published separately, for the convenience of those who have purchased the former editions. We cannot better inform our readers of the author's conduct, in the execution of these amendments, than by presenting them with the Preface to the edition above mentioned.

'It is now twenty-eight years since I published the History of Scotland. During that time I have been favoured by my friends with several remarks upon it; and various strictures have been made by persons who entertained sentiments different from mine, with respect to the transactions in the reign of queen Mary. From whatever quarter information came, in whatever mode it has been communicated, I have considered it calmly, and with attention. Wherever I perceived that I had erred, either in relating events, or in delineating characters, I have, without hesitation, corrected those errors. Wherever I am satisfied that my original ideas were just and well-founded, I adhere to them; and, resting upon their conformity to evidence already produced, I enter into no discussion or controversy in order to support them. Wherever the opportunity of consulting original papers, either in print or in manuscript, to which I had not formerly access, has enabled me to throw new light upon any part of the history, I have made alterations and additions, which, I flatter myself, will be found to be of some importance.'

In our preceding article we own that our opinion was formed from the general force of all the arguments; and if it were

not, it would not be suitable to our plan to engage particularly in defence of the unfortunate queen. The arguments adduced in the pamphlet are very striking: and Dr. Robertson urges the opinion of the duke of Norfolk, with great force. It is an argument which it is difficult to elude. We shall select it as a specimen of the author's mildness in this controversy, after so much illiberality has been displayed by some of his antagonists.

‘Nor did Norfolk declare these to be his sentiments only in public official letters, he expressed himself in the same manner to his most confidential friends. In a secret conference with the bishop of Ross at York, the duke informed him that he had seen the letters, &c. which the regent had to produce against the queen, whereby there would be such matter proved against her, as would dishonour her for ever. State Trials, edition of Hargrave, i. 91. Murdin, 52. The bishop of Ross, if he had known the letters to be a notorious forgery, must have been naturally led, in consequence of this declaration, to undeceive the duke, and to expose the imposture. But, instead of this, the duke and he and Lethington, after consulting together, agreed, that the bishop should write to Mary, then at Bolton, and instruct her to make such a proposal to Elizabeth as might prevent the public production of the letters and other evidence, State Trials, i. 94. Murdin, 45. Indeed, the whole of this secret conference seems to imply, that Lethington, Ross, and Norfolk, were conscious of some defect in Mary's cause, and therefore exerted all their ingenuity in order to avoid a public accusation. Murdin, 52, 53. To Banister, whom the duke seems to have trusted more entirely than any other of his servants, he expressed himself in similar terms with respect to the queen of Scots. State Trials, i. 98. The words of Banister's evidence are remarkable: “I confess that I, waiting of my lord and master, when the Earl of Suffex and Mr. Chancellor of the dutchy that now is, were in commission at York, did hear his grace say, that upon examination of the matter of the murder, it did appear that the Queen of Scots was guilty and privy to the murder of lord Darnly, whereby I verily thought that his grace would never join in marriage with her.” Murdin, 134. Elizabeth, in her instructions to the Earl of Shrewsbury and Beale in 1583, asserts, that both the duke and earl of Arundel did declare to herself, that the proof, by the view of her letters, did fall out sufficient against the queen of Scots; however they were after drawn to cover her faults and pronounce her innocency.’

Winter Evenings; or Lucubrations on Life and Letters. 12mo.
3 Vols. 9s. in Boards. Dilly.

IN the dreary moments of winter we receive an entertaining companion with pleasure: we stir the fire, and snuff the

the candles; look around with calm complacency, while the burst of elements rages around us; and, in our own little circle, at least, feel no storm. The author of these *Lucubrations* has cheered the moments of solitude by his own remarks; and, by bringing a few old,—a few almost forgotten companions with him, has renewed the pleasing recollection of former days. His subjects are too numerous to be even transitorily described; and in each, he displays much learning and information. His language is always neat; and, if we except a few anomalies, we dare not call them errors, very correct. His taste, formed on the purest classic models, is accurate and refined;—his piety is rational, and his morality unstained.

But we must stop our career of commendation; we can proceed no farther; for justice requires we should reverse the tablet; our impartiality will not permit us to close the account in the favourable strain we could have wished to have continued. If the reader of these volumes looks for information which other works do not contain; if he disdains sometimes to pursue reflections that at once suggest themselves on the slightest consideration, he will be disappointed. There is no idea so hackneyed on any subject which occurs among the titles of these *Essays*, that may not occasionally be found in them; there is no quotation so trite, that our author will not transcribe. He has defended the practice of quoting from the Latin poets, by just arguments; but we think they only prove that citations are admissible when either a new or an apposite remark occurs in authors of antiquity; when a common subject is adorned by a peculiar, a ‘curious felicity’ of expression. In every other circumstance, they have the effect of proverbs in conversation, which are not supposed to add to the elegance of discourse.

From retirement, probably, our author has become fastidious: on the subjects of newspapers and the theatre, he is occasionally uncandid, and frequently too severe. His style is too little varied to render a succession of essays pleasing; and the *Letters*, supposed to be written by correspondents, are languid and uniform. If he had not hinted at their being his own productions, they would soon have betrayed their author.

If, however, we wish for a companion who will not fatigue the mind, perhaps already wearied by complex investigation; who will innocently, and sometimes profitably, draw it to subjects where, though no novelty occurs, the sentiments of others are decorated in pleasing language; who preserves the strictest propriety, and the nicest decorum, our author may be selected without danger of disappointment. If he only reflects images we have already seen, or transcribes from authors whom we have formerly read, he may assist the mind, by contributing to

to preserve the evanescent vestiges, or reviving the pleasures which was once felt with the keener zest of novelty. On both these accounts we owe him some obligations; and he seems to aim at no more.

We shall select a few specimens of this writer's manner, and shall endeavour to choose passages of different kinds, which shall illustrate, so far as our limits will admit, our preceding observations.

I read Xenophon's *Memorabilia* in Greek, and I was delighted with them. I read them in an English translation, and I found them tedious and inspid. The translation was apparently performed with sufficient fidelity; but it did not affect or strike with any peculiar force. I have experienced effects exactly similar in the perusal of other books. To what shall I attribute them? Are there such charms in the Greek language as are able to give a value to sentiments which of themselves have no recommendation? Certainly not: but there is a conciseness, and, at the same time, a comprehension of expression in the Greek language, which, I think, the English cannot equal. On the mind of a reader who completely understands the language of a Greek author, the ideas are impressed with more force and perspicuity by the original, than by any translation. The ancient Greek authors, it is acknowledged, paid great attention to the art of composition, to the choice and arrangement of words, and to the structure of periods, so as to communicate the idea, or raise the sentiment intended with peculiar force and precision. Xenophon is known to have been one of the most successful cultivators of the art of composition; and it cannot be supposed that all who have undertaken to translate any of his works, though they might understand the matter, could have equalled him in the art of composition for which his country and himself were remarkably celebrated.

The pleasure which a reader feels in the perusal of a Greek author, has been attributed to the pride of conscious superiority over those who are not able to unlock the treasures of which he keeps the key. This opinion has owed its origin to the poor appearance which some of the most celebrated authors of antiquity have made, when presented to the public in the dress of a modern language. The English reader has read translations of the classics, without being able to discover any excellence adequate to the universal reputation of the author. The translator, though he comprehended his author, was perhaps a poor writer, unable to communicate with spirit the thoughts which he conceived with a sufficient degree of accuracy. The blame unjustly fell on the original author and his admirers. He was supposed to have written poorly, and they to have admired him only from motives of pride and affectation. Some, whose ignorance prevented them from deciding fairly, rejoiced to see that ancient learning, which they possessed not, despised; and eagerly joined

joined in attributing to arrogance and pedantry all praise of Greek and Latin, to which they were inveterate enemies, as well as perfect strangers.

‘But the supposition that the pleasure which men feel in reading authors in the ancient languages, arises solely, or chiefly, from the pride of possessing a skill in those languages, is too unreasonable to be generally admitted. Of the many thousand admirers of the ancients, who, in every part of their conduct and studies, displayed great judgment and great virtue, must we suppose the greater part either deceived in the estimate of the authors whom they read, or actuated by pride, and mistaking the self-complacency of conscious learning and ability for the pleasure naturally arising from the study of a fine author? Why is not a man, who understands Welch, German, Dutch, and any other language, not remarkable for literary productions, as much inclined to extol the writers in those languages as the reader of Greek and Latin, if the motive for praise consists only in possessing a knowledge of a language unknown to the majority of his countrymen or companions?’

‘In accounting for the great esteem in which the Greek and Latin authors are held, much must be attributed to the languages solely, and exclusively of thought, doctrine, or method. Many who are but poorly qualified to give any opinion on the subject, will impute it to pedantry, when I say, that those languages possess inherent beauties, and an aptitude for elegant and expressive composition, to which the best among modern languages can make no just pretension. Till, therefore, an ancient Greek author can be translated into a language equal to his own, it will be unjust and unreasonable to form a final judgment of him from the best translation.’

The following remarks on the diffidence of boys, and the impropriety of rendering them forward and confident, are expanded in some other essays, and are of great importance.

‘Diffidence wears off when the mind becomes conscious of a sufficient degree of strength to support confidence. With respect to confidence without merit to support it, though often valued in the world, and particularly in the law, I hold it in great dishonour. It may push its way to employment and opulence, but it is scarcely consistent with a good mind; and without a good mind what happiness is to be found in employment and opulence.

“Sincerum est nisi vas quodcunque infundis acefcit.”

HOR.

‘People who value themselves on knowing the world are very apt to insist on effrontery as a necessary virtue to go through the world with success, or rather to recommend it as the substitute and succedaneum of every virtue. But I never hear these persons boasting of their knowledge of the world, and the value of worldly wisdom, but I think of some passages in Scripture in which it is not held in so high estimation—“The children

dren of this world are wiser in their generation than the children of light :” but it should be remembered, that the wisdom is not that which is from above, but that of the serpent, that of the accursed spirits, originating and terminating in evil under the fair semblance of good.’

The following remarks on prayer are equally just and clearly expressed : with these we must conclude our article.

‘ The language of a prayer should be natural, and warm from the heart, yet at the same time restrained and chastised by good sense, otherwise it must degenerate to the nonsense of the dotard, or the madness of the enthusiast. Dr. Johnson deserves great praise for the simplicity and energy of many of his prayers. Nothing of his usual style, his long words, or formal periods, is to be observed in them. His good understanding suggested to him the impropriety of all affectation when he laid aside all pretensions to wisdom, and with an humility, which must always become the greatest of mortals, approached the throne of the Almighty.

‘ After all that taste and criticism can suggest, it is certain that uprightness of intention and fervent piety are the best beauties of supplicatory writings. He to whom prayer is addressed considers not the form of words, and the structure of periods, but the faith, the sincerity, the charity of the poor petitioner. If the heart is right, the errors of the understanding and of the lips will pass unnoticed. Yet it is decent and reasonable to take care, according to the best of our knowledge, not to offer up prayers in which there is any known defect unworthy a creature furnished by the Creator with those intellectual powers, which surely can never be more honourably exerted than in the service of Him who gave them.

“ I use not to run rashly into prayer,” says Howell, “ without a trembling precedent meditation ; and if any odd thoughts intervene and grow upon me, I check myself and recommence ; and this is incident to long prayers, which are more subject to man’s weakness and the devil’s malice.”

Sermons by Charles Symmons, B. D. of Clare-hall, Cambridge.
8vo. 5s. in Boards. E. and T. Williams.

MR. Symmons seems to be a young author ; perhaps a young man : he possesses the faults and the excellencies of youth, viz. its fire and luxuriance, not always sufficiently repressed by cooler judgment. His Preface is incorrect and injudicious. It led us to form an opinion of his Sermons, which we changed afterwards with pleasure. Let us state the first paragraph as a specimen.

‘ At a period when the eloquence of the pulpit seems particularly to be studied, it may be regarded as presumption in the author to swell that copious stream of divinity with which *the dress overflows* ; especially as, with unaffected diffidence, he declares

declares his consciousness of *insufficiency* to meet the notice which he solicits ; and his sense of the uncommon and superior merit of some modern publications of a description similar to his own.—To the charge of presumption he wishes that he could give a full and satisfactory answer. But from the plain matter of fact, he hopes for the extenuation of his errors as a writer, if not for the exculpation of his rashness as a publisher.

In the subsequent parts of it, he defends luxuriant language, frequently introducing the words of Scripture, and a warm spirit of devotion, in opposition to the cooler essays which are often delivered to the public from the pulpit.—From these observations, and no inconsiderable share of egotism, we expected the language of poetry, with the warmth of enthusiasm ;—metaphors crowded, misapplied, and confused ;—with a spirit of declamation calculated for the Tabernacle. It is not our faults, if the author holds out false lights to mislead ; but perhaps, from this pre-conceived opinion, his Sermons appeared to greater advantage. We have read them with great care, and they possess no little merit. The luxuriance, natural to the author, is repressed with much care in the more accurate corrected Sermons ; and we perceive that, in the others, where it is more conspicuous, Mr. Symmons is aware that it may run away with his pen ; and endeavours, though sometimes in vain, to guard against this error. Perhaps, on the whole, the language is too warm and florid : but we would not decide too positively on this subject ; and it would be more unsuitable in our Journal, since we have more than once reprehended a too plain and timid manner. We can more confidently say, that these Sermons contain just remarks, clear and pointed explanations of different passages of the Scriptures, with a rational and animated piety.—In many of the Sermons, the divisions, which are not ostentatiously pointed out, are peculiarly happy.

The subjects are: Sermon I. Civil, moral, and religious Advantages derived from Christianity.—II. On Death.—III. On Human Discontent ; or, the duty of Submission to God.—IV. On the Death of Christ.—V. On the Atonement of Christ.—VI. On the Resurrection.—VII. On Natural and Spiritual Man.—Sermon VIII. On the Dispensations of God.—IX. On the Christian Dispensation.—X. On the Temporal Advantages of a Religious Life.—XI. On the Birth, Dignity, and Character of the Messiah.—XII. On the Necessity of constant Attention to the religious Improvement of Life.

Perhaps, in no passage is the author's luxuriance more reprehensible than in the following one : it is taken from the third Sermon.

‘ May

‘May not therefore “the thing formed say to him that formed it, Why hast thou made me thus?” I asked thee not for existence. Why then didst thou obtrude it, if it must be followed by affliction? Creation, it is pretended, is the work of love. Why then am I placed in a world which brings forth only thorns and thistles?—Why gifted with eyes looking afore and after, when the retrospect is misery, and the prospect disappointment? The spells of hope, indeed, may sometimes raise a palace to cheat our fatigue, but reflection quickly dissolves the shadowy fabric: and we find ourselves still upon the blasted desert, or in the howling wilderness.’

‘Cease, wretch! forbear the frantic expostulation.’ It is ignorance,—ingratitude,—impiety.—Go to *reason*;—she will tell thee, for she has told many, that this life is not the completion of thy being;—that it is the period only when thy obedience is to be ascertained;—thy mental energies called forth; thy virtues strengthened, exalted, refined, and prepared for a more illustrious condition.—Go to *revelation*;—she will tell thee that thou art “a stranger and a pilgrim,” whose home is beyond the grave. That thou art here upon trial, surrounded with afflictions to exercise, and with temptations to assay:—that thou must “fight the good fight,” and be victorious before thou art crowned:—that, as thou art a labourer in the vineyard, thou must toil before thou art paid.’

We prefer the first Sermon as most correct; and in which the author’s fire is most carefully prevented from rising into a blaze. We shall select a specimen of our author’s best manner from this discourse:

‘Under a scheme of theology (that is the Pagan) so absurd and so nefarious, with what effect could the people be enjoined to reverence their gods? Could they reverence the capricious, the violent, the revengeful, the lewd? Could they look up with confidence or esteem to creatures, who excelled the worst of mortals only in power and exemption from death? No.—From such gods, contemptible as the objects of worship, and dangerous as the objects of imitation, the best that could be done was to take the sceptre of the world: and (with the prudence of Epicurus) to remove them to a distant heaven; where, undisturbed by the cares of government, they might indulge in their darling sensualities.—The world would certainly not lose by the deposition of these mock rulers; whose place might be as competently supplied by those non-entities of atheism—chance and fate.’

‘During the prevalence of such religious illusion how unhappy and liable to error must be the condition of man! Assured by his observation that “there was one event to the righteous and to the wicked,” that joys and miseries were indifferently scattered in the paths of life, he saw no other state of being where the caprices of fortune could be accounted for and rectified. In what manner then was he to act? To accept the splendid offers

of

of vice; or to wed the austerity of unendowed virtue? Reason surely whispered him "to eat and to drink;"—to give his appetites their full riot;—for "to-morrow he was to die." In a very short time,—a year,—a day,—an hour, perhaps, he was no more. The earth-bubble (if I may so express it) was to break.—The sensitive puppet sent upon the stage of existence only, as it seemed, to play a few fantastic tricks;—to enjoy some happiness,—but to suffer much misery, was for ever to vanish, and be forgotten. Horrid and mortifying idea,—the genuine parent of profligacy and of crime!

If these Sermons reach a second edition, we would recommend that they be surveyed with the rigour of attentive criticism: much may yet be repressed with advantage; and the abilities, as well as the learning of the author, would be more conspicuous, if the attention was not unseasonably drawn away by the flashes, the meteors, which occasionally dazzle the cooler reader.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXVII. For the Year 1787. Part I. 4to. 7s. 6d. L. Davis.

IT is with regret that we have delayed so long the account of the First Part of this annual collection; but as few important articles occur in it, our crime will be of less consequence, and our excuse more readily obtained: annual volumes, from voluntary contributions, must necessarily be of unequal value.

Article I. An Account of a new Comet. By Miss Caroline Herschel.—Miss Herschel, in her brother's absence, has "swept the sky in the neighbourhood of the sun, and caught a comet by the beard;"—in plainer language, she discovered one of these excentric stars on the first of August, 1786. It was followed for a few succeeding nights, but presented no very remarkable appearance: it resembled in colour and brightness the 27th nebula, in the *Connoissance de Temps*, except that it was round.

Art. II. Remarks on a new Comet. By William Herschel, L.L.D. F.R.S.—The light about the centre of the comet was of a confused kind; and the tail extended a few degrees towards the north: it seemed going down to the sun; and we may perhaps hear of it on its return.

Art. III. Magnetical Experiments and Observations. By Tiberius Cavallo, F.R.S.—These experiments have been noticed, at least the most important ones, in our review of Mr. Cavallo's Treatise.

Art. IV. Description of a new Electrometer. By the rev. Abraham Bennet, M.A.—This Electrometer consists of two pieces

pieces of leaf gold, suspended within a glass cylinder: for the particular construction, we must refer to the volume and the plate; but we shall mention a few experiments which were tried with so nice an instrument.—The cap is the part which covers the cylinder.

‘1st. Powdered chalk was put into a pair of bellows, and blown upon the cap, which electrified it positively when the cap was about the distance of six inches from the nozzle of the bellows; but the same stream of powdered chalk, electrified it negatively at the distance of three feet. In this experiment there is a change of electricity from positive to negative, by the dispersion or wider diffusion of the powder in the air. It is also changed by placing a bunch of fine wire, silk, or feathers, in the nozzle of the bellows, and is wholly negative when blown from a pair of bellows without their iron pipe, so as to come out in a larger stream: this last experiment did not answer in dry weather so well as in wet. The positive electricity of the chalk, thus blown, is communicated because part of the powder sticks to the cap; but the negative is not communicated, the leaf gold collapsing as soon as the cloud of chalk is dispersed.

‘2dly. A piece of chalk drawn over a brush, or powdered chalk put into the brush, and projected upon the cap, electrifies it negatively; but its electricity is not communicated.

‘3dly. Powdered chalk blown with the mouth or bellows from a metal plate placed upon the cap, electrifies it permanently positive. Or if the chalk is blown from the plate, either insulated or not, so that the powder may pass over the cap, if not too far off, it is also positive. Or if a brush is placed upon the cap, and a piece of chalk drawn over it, when the hand is withdrawn, the leaf gold gradually opens with positive electricity as the cloud of chalk disperses,

‘4thly. Powdered chalk falling from one plate to another placed upon the instrument, electrifies it negatively.’

Wheat, flour, and red lead, are strongly negative where chalk is positive:—sand, cakes of metals, iron filings, coal-ashes, rosin and quick-lime, in powder, resembled chalk. Many other experiments are described, but they are so miscellaneous, and so little applicable, in their present state, to any useful purpose, that, as we cannot abridge, we have little inclination to transcribe them.

Art. V. Appendix to the Description of a new Electrometer. By the same.—In this Appendix, Mr. Bennet explains the construction of his electrometer, as connected with M. Volta’s condenser. The only additional fact of much importance is, that if the powder is blown at about the distance of three inches, upon a plate moistened or oiled, the electricity is contrary to what it was when dry. Perhaps similar experiments, in a more improved state of meteorology, may be rendered very useful.

Art.

Art. VI. Some Account of an Earthquake felt in the Northern part of England. By Samuel More, Esq.—The earthquake occurred on the 11th of August of last year, about two in the morning.—It seems to have extended from Penrith along the banks of Alswater and Winander mere to Manchester:—its other directions are not noticed.

Art. VII. Determination of the Heliocentric Longitude of the descending Node of Saturn. By Thomas Bugge, Professor of Astronomy at Copenhagen.—The culmination of Saturn was observed with a six feet achromatic transit instrument; and the meridian altitude with a six feet mural quadrant. From the observations with these instruments, the right ascension and declination, the geocentric longitude and latitude of Saturn are calculated: the calculations are compared with those of Halley and de la Lande, and the several errors are pointed out. The rest of the paper is employed in calculating the heliocentric longitude of Saturn, and that of the node. From these calculations it appears that Saturn's passage through the node happened August 21, 1784; and that the heliocentric longitude of his descending node $= 98. 21^{\circ}. 50' 8''. 5$.

Art. VIII. Description of a Set of Halos and Parhelia, seen in 1771, in North America. By Alexander Baxter, Esq.—Besides the principal halo round the sun, there was a luminous circle, parallel to the horizon, passing through the centre of the halo, in which were five mock suns: opposite to the sun was a luminous cross, and in the zenith a semi circle, with the convex part turned to the sun. These phenomena were observed at Fort Gloucester, on the river of Lake Superior, about six miles above the falls of St. Mary's, and as much from the head of the river where it issues from the lake. It occurred the 22d of January, 1771, about two in the afternoon. The peculiar situation may, in some degree, account for the appearances; but the immediate cause of halos is yet obscure.

Art. IX. Observations of the Transit of Mercury, May 4, 1786, at Dresden. By M. Köhler.

Art. X. Observation of the Transit of Mercury, at Petersburg. By M. Rumovski.

Art. XI. Account of the Strata observed in sinking for water at Boston, in Lincolnshire. By James Limbird.—We need not pursue the auger in all its different discoveries; but may remark, that at 474 feet from the surface, chalk and gravel were found; and at 468 feet, salt water was drawn up, additional proofs of what we formerly advanced, of that part of the island having been long under the sea. The work is discontinued; but we hope it will be resumed, as under this

vaſt load, freſh water will undoubtedly be found, which will riſe to the ſurface.

Art. XII. Observations of Miſs Herſchel's Comet, in Auguſt and September, 1786. By the rev. Francis Wollafton, LL. B. F. R. S.—Mr. Wollafton applied his ſyſtem of wires to this comet, and it ſeems to have answered pretty well. The author has given a ſeries of obſervations on the different ſtars which the comet preceded, or followed.

Art. XIII. Account of a Thunder-ſtorm in Scotland; with ſome meteorological obſervations. By Patrick Brydone, Eſq. F. R. S.

Art. XVII.—Remarks on Mr. Brydone's Account of a Thunder-ſtorm in Scotland. By Charles, Earl Stanhope, F. R. S.—Theſe articles contain a very remarkable fact, with a ſufficiently ingenious and probable explanation. During a thunder-ſtorm, at ſo great a diſtance, that the lightning was followed by the ſound after a period of from 25 to 30 ſeconds; a young man, ſitting on a cart very near the place of obſervation, was ſuddenly ſtruck dead; and the horſes ſhared the ſame fate. The ſound was that of ſeveral muſkets fired together, without the rumbling ſound uſual after thunder; or without any ſenſible flaſh of lightning. Another young man, about 24 yards behind him, with another cart, on a lower part of a bank, eſcaped. We need not enlarge on the particulars, or on lord Stanhope's tedious explanation. The fatal blow ſeemed to be derived from the earth, whence it firſt ſtruck on the iron of the cart-wheels: it was conducted to the young man's body, while his legs, which hung ſuſpended, were not affected; and from the ſhafts of the cart it was communicated to the horſes, for the hair of the bellies and legs ſeemed to have been more burnt than on any other part of their bodies. The principle on which the exploſion depended was the following: if two clouds are ſuſpended over the earth, the one near the earth in one part, and the other between that cloud and the earth at ſome diſtance; if the firſt cloud ſtrikes the earth, it communicates to it a ſuperabundant quantity of electricity, and again receives a portion from the ſecond cloud. But, if the earth is dry, the electricity received from the firſt cloud is not generally communicated; and the ſecond cloud, involving a different part of the earth, that part of it, from the uſual effects of electrical atmofpheres, muſt be in a contrary ſtate of electricity from that of the cloud: and, if the earth be within a ſtriking diſtance, or meets with any proper medium of communication, the equilibrium will be reſtored by what lord Stanhope calls a 'returning ſtroke.' In circumſtances, favourable in every reſpect to this returning ſtroke,
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was this unfortunate young man; it took place, and the event was instantaneous death to himself and his horses.

Art. XIV. On finding the Values of Algebraical Quantities by converging Serieses, and demonstrating and extending Propositions given by Pappus and others. By Edward Waring, M.D. F. R. S.—It is impossible to abridge this Paper, or to give any particular account of it, since it consists of a series of depending calculations.

Art. XV. Experiments on the Production of Dephlogisticated Air from Water with various substances. By Sir Benjamin Thompson, Knt. F. R. S.—There are but two circumstances, on this subject, completely authenticated; the one, that air from water is more pure than common air; the other, that its production is the consequence of light. That light is a substance we well know; and that it is connected with, and perhaps is partly composed of phlogiston, is probable: if we suppose then, that it is compounded of vital air and phlogiston*, we shall approach more nearly to an explanation of the phenomena of nature than in any other way. This, however, is a supposition, only to be appreciated by facts; and has no other value than the supposition of the algebraist, in the solution of equations by approximation:—let us attend rather to sir Benjamin Thompson. He employed raw silk, which collects air very rapidly in water exposed to the light. It was found by our author, that light alone, independent of heat, was the efficient cause of the production of air; and that the quantity produced was in proportion to the intensity of light, whether that light was from the sun, or collected by mirrors from lamps. It was not peculiar to the silk to furnish, or rather to collect air: sheep's wool, eider down, hare's fur, and cotton wool, had similar properties. The ravellings of linen, and human hair, had very little power in this respect: but, from whatever substance the air seemed to be furnished, the water, in consequence of the process, changed to a greenish or a yellowish hue; and the colour appeared to arise not from vegetation, but from animalcules. In every instance, where the experiment was pursued to any extent, there was some sediment observed in the water, which, if it did not arise from the animalcules, would seem to show some decomposition of the water itself.

The cotton-like substance produced by the *populus nigra*, whose threads are much more minute than silk, collected air

* We are well aware, that M. Scheele supposed light to be a component part of vital air; but, independent of the specific heat of vital air, which militates against him, we think our opinion best adapted to explain the several facts.

from water: but it was found, upon examination, that the quantity of air produced was neither in proportion to the solid contents, nor to the surfaces of the materials employed. The air from silk was better than that which was procured by means of plants vegetating; and that the materials acted in a way not wholly mechanical, was evident from spun-glass not having the same effect. It must also be observed, that the power of the silk did not seem to be exhausted in repeated experiments, or the silk to be sensibly altered: even water by itself, when the animalcules were formed, produced pure air, without any other addition. There are some doubts which have arisen respecting the melioration of pure air by vegetation, since dead leaves have the power of separating air from water, and vegetating leaves produce it, even in water saturated with vital air, which it is supposed would not have happened if the pure air was an excrementitious discharge from the plant.

Art. XVI. Account of the Discovery of two Satellites revolving round the Georgian Planet. By William Herschel, Esq. D. F. R. S.—These satellites were discovered the 11th of January, 1787; and the discovery arose from a change made by the author in his telescope, by which he gained more light. He followed them in their course, and he thinks the first makes a synodical revolution in about eight days and three-fourths, the other in about thirteen and one-half. The planetary nature of the Herschel is therefore completely ascertained.

Art. XVIII. Concerning the Latitude and Longitude of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich; with Remarks on a Memorial of the late M. Cassini de Thury. By Nevil Maskeline, Esq. D. F. R. S.—M. Cassini de Thury had asserted, in a memoir presented to the Royal Academy of Sciences, that the latitude of Greenwich was not ascertained within 11". The astronomer royal, with becoming zeal, shows that it has been fixed with considerable precision: he explains the various methods employed for this purpose, both by his predecessor Dr. Bradley, and himself, as well as the original of M. Cassini's mistake. The latitude appears, from a mean of two determinations in different ways, to be $51^{\circ} 28' 40''$.—The latitude of the observatory of Paris is probably $48^{\circ} 50' 14''$. Dr. Maskeline then examines into the causes of M. Cassini's mistake, and refers it to a passage in a memoir of the abbé de la Caille on astronomical refractions, and the latitude of Paris, in the French Memoirs for 1755. The error probably arose from some little defect in the instruments, and the table of refractions employed by the abbé. It is impossible to follow the astronomer royal in all his remarks; but we have seldom seen any astronomical research conducted with equal precision, or any detail more clear.

clear. The difference of longitude between the two places appears to be $9^{\circ} 20''$.

Art. XIX. Account of the Mode proposed to be followed in determining the relative Situation of the Royal Observatories of Greenwich and Paris. By Major-general William Roy, F. R. S. and A. S.—It is impossible to give a proper idea of these methods without the assistance of the plan which accompanies it; but from the talents of those who are engaged in the operation, the accuracy of the instruments which they can command, and the specimen of the attention which we have already given in the mensuration of the base, there is every reason to suppose that the relative situation of the two observatories will be ascertained with the greatest precision.—The remarks on the pendulum, the experiments made with it at Spitzbergen, and their consequences, are extremely curious.

Art. XX. Account of three Volcanos in the Moon. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.—This short paper is very interesting. It is a fact that luminous spots have been discovered on the dark portion of the moon; that these are partial, frequently changing in their appearance, and sometimes disappearing. They must necessarily, therefore, be produced by some active power in the body of the moon; and that power, from its light, must be fire. It is consequently with much reason that they are supposed to be volcanos. The largest must be nearly three miles in diameter.

A Treatise on Tropical Diseases; and on the Climate of the West Indies. By B. Moseley, M. D. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Cadell.

WHILE we lament the misconduct of the last war, and the many lives sacrificed by ignorance and inattention, we receive some consolation in reflecting on the brilliant examples, examples of humanity and care, which it has afforded, and on the more comfortable expectation that the destruction in that unfortunate period has afforded salutary lessons for the future conduct of ministers and commanders. The medical records of that time are full of fatal events; of armies sacrificed to climates and to diseases; of victims, not in the field, but in the hospitals. Dr. Moseley and his predecessors, whose steps we have carefully followed, give sad examples and useful directions: we hope they will not lose their effect.

The work before us contains an Account of the Climate of the West Indies, and the Means of avoiding its dangerous Effects;—an extensive Essay on the Dysentery;—an account of the Yellow Fever;—of the Tetanus;—a short Treatise on Cancers; and another on the Dry Belly Ache.—Of these different diseases the author has seen much, and read more. His observations, however, his reflections, and his numerous quo-

tations, are thrown together with much confusion. His narrative is generally diffuse, and his digressions tedious; yet, in many parts, we perceive the footsteps of a sagacious observer, a just reasoner, and an attentive enquirer. Our author's erudition is very extensive; he generally excites our respect, though we are often displeased at being detained from an useful subject by remarks which, if they were not digressive, we might have styled judicious.

The circumstances which relate to the climate of the West Indies, are generally known, and the means of avoiding diseases are those which have been, with a few exceptions, generally understood. Our author speaks, however, with much disapprobation of the frequent use of acids, and somewhat too positively, in different parts of his work, of their destroying the stomach. We suppose that he means when taken in excess; yet it is difficult to say how far the use of a cooling, laxative, antiseptic nourishment may be carried, without encountering this imputation. His opinion is, however, connected with two others; the one, that the diseases of the West Indies are not in general of a putrid kind; and that the sweat is acid, rather than alcalescent; for the first position, we shall select his own arguments.

‘The idea that every thing in hot climates inclines to putrefaction, by the alkalescent disposition of the animal juices, while life remains, appears to me to be totally void of foundation. If bile be prone to alkalescence, milk, lymph, and chyle are prone to acidity, and all habits are not bilious. It is certain, that putrid fermentation is soon excited after death; but there are no pestilential nor contagious fevers, at least in the islands.

Again:

‘Much has been said by writers concerning putrid fevers, and the tendency of all fevers to putrefaction, in hot climates. But such opinions are not founded on practice, however they may seem to agree with theory. The great endemic there, is the nervous remittent fever, which is unattended with any putrid symptoms, and which has its seat in the nervous system; or, as I have often thought, in the brain itself. I scarcely remember to have seen a fever accompanied with petechial, or purple spots, in the West Indies; and it is very uncommon to find the parts livid, or gangrenous, where blisters have been applied.’

The acid perspiration is supported with less force; it depends on the smell chiefly, and on the superior refreshment which arises from burning aromatic woods, compared with sprinkling the room with vinegar. Not to speak of the positive assertion of Hillary on the opposite side, if our author reflects on the smell of the perspiration in different diseases, he will find that they do not always indicate the state of the body.

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In puerperal fevers, when the milk is gone, we have often perceived a sour smell: in the confluent small pox, the odour is not very different, at least during the first days. We should endeavour to explain this appearance, for modern chemistry might enable us to do it; but the discussion would be too extensive. Indeed, though we passed over his opinion of the nature of the West Indian fevers without a remark, it was rather because we would not oppose actual observation by theoretical arguments, than that the opinion coincided with the testimony of other practitioners, or with reason. Dr. Moseley has not explained it very clearly; we shall probably assist him, by observing, that in his opinion, the quick progress of diseases to a putrid state arises more from the violent inflammation in the first stages than any natural tendency to putrefaction. If this consideration be not added, the doctrine will not be found to be entirely consonant to his own observations. Again: when he says that idiotism is unknown in the West Indies, it must be considered as an hereditary or a primary disease; for many complaints affect the mental faculties in a secondary way. From similar causes, Dr. Moseley may be often misunderstood by a careless reader.

It is well known that Europeans degenerate in these islands; but we must add, that some of their diseases degenerate also. The calculus has been known to disappear, after some residence in the West Indies. This fact may be connected with the acid sweat; but we would advise, before the argument is pushed too far, that it be accurately determined whether the sweat is really acid; if it be, it will make more than one change in the chemical physiology. We shall transcribe one other fact, which is a curious, and, we believe, a true one.

“The reverse of what is supposed to happen to the European, attends the African race. Every generation here, is an improvement on the former. That wild chaos of instinctive notions, which Negroes bring from Africa, seldom can be modulated, unless they come from it very young, to bear any durable, rational impression. When this happens, they look back with horror on their savage state; and do not easily forgive, unless some compliment is added on their improvements, the reproach of having been born in Africa, and of ever having lived in a state that nature intended for them.”

Of the military operations on the Spanish Main we can give no specimen. The army, from which much was expected, and by which much might have been done, mouldered away by disease. Of the inhabitants on the Musquito shore, the Samboes are said to be Africans, and to have escaped from the wreck of a Guinea ship. With the features they inherit, we find, the vices of the Negroes.

The Essay on the Dysentery is a very extensive one; but its great bulk consists of quotations and copious extracts from the ancients, who deserve less attention on this subject, probably, than on any other, since they so frequently confounded the different diseases of the bowels. Our author's method of cure is by sweating; and he follows Sydenham in thinking the dysentery to be the epidemic of the season turned in on the bowels. The sweating is not brought on by cloaths and heat, but by antimonials and laudanum, assisted by a vomit of ipecacuanha: and Dr. Moseley observes, that perspiration is easily induced, as well as kept up, in tropical countries. When perspiration is brought on, the stools lessen in number, and the evacuations sometimes cease: in this way, our author obviates the objection which may occur against his plan, from the danger of checking the perspiration, by rising frequently in consequence of the other calls.

Instead of the vitrum ceratum he uses the glass of antimony, carefully levigated. This medicine is given in bed; and, as its action on the bowels is abated by the perspiration, he observes, that

'A much larger dose may be given that way: and let me repeat, that an active dose of any antimonial should never be given while the patient is up, and walking about. Ten grains of glass of antimony will act less on the bowels, while the patient is in bed, than three grains will while he is up, and the whole effect turned upon the bowels, by being exposed to the air. Besides, sudden death has been frequently brought on by spasm, from antimonials carelessly administered: If the glass of antimony inclines the patient to vomit, I advise the diluting but sparingly, unless what is brought up indicates foulness of the stomach; but copiously otherwise.

'From the effects of the vitrum antimonii ceratum, I have never been able to discover that the antimony derives any benefit whatever from its mixture with the wax. For an active dose of either must be given, or it answers no end; and if melting the antimony with the wax weakens its force, a greater quantity must be given to produce a proper effect.—Therefore, I always use the common glass of antimony, preferring a simple medicine that I can depend upon, to a compound medicine that must be liable to uncertainty in its operations, according to the attention or carelessness employed in its preparation.'

As we mentioned the inaccuracy of our author's language, we may slightly hint, that his quotations are not clearly pointed out: we suspected that we had detected him in more than one considerable error; but we must retract the suspicion, and we should not have mentioned it if, in consequence of our enquiries, we had not met with the plant, which probably produces the tapioca: it is described, with the method of preparing

preparing the farina, by Piso, in his *Natural and Medical History of the Brazils*, under the name of *mandihoca*, p. 114: we have not been able to discover it among the synonyms of *Linnaeus*.

In the Essay on the Dysentery many valuable extracts are inserted from modern authors; and we do not recollect any one of importance that the author has omitted. The morbus macosus of Roederer, though it sometimes degenerates to dysentery, can scarcely be styled that disease; and his treatise on it is not sufficiently discriminated; so that we cannot blame Dr. Moseley for omitting it. The remarks are very often judicious; but, from the ease with which the disease yielded, he will excuse us for suggesting, that it was a peculiar epidemic: we suspect strongly, that his plan would not succeed so well in this climate. The following solution, when the sudorific process could not be practised, has been, in our author's opinion, singularly useful: the dose is from a drachm to half an ounce.

SOLUTIO VITRIOLICA.

℞ Vitrioli albi drachmas tres;
Aluminis rupei drachmam;
Coccinellæ pulveratæ granatris;

‘Aquæ ferventis libram. Misce in mortario marmoreo. Solutio à sæculentia vel residendò expurgetur, vel per chartam bibulam filtretur.’

The endemial causus, in the West Indies, is said to be a fever highly inflammatory. It is generally known in medical writings by the name of the yellow fever; and its fatality is considerable. Dr. Moseley directs bleeding, with all the violence of Botallus, not only ad deliquium, but repeatedly. After that, he gives laxatives, puts the patient into a warm bath, orders diaphoretics, applies blisters, and at last recruits the strength with bark. But, though this is the whole routine the two first remedies are, he tells us, very generally successful. We need not inform our author, who is very intimately acquainted with medical writings, that the success of this plan is no proof of the disease not being putrid, unless the plague, described by Sydenham, and the pestilential fever, treated by Dover, were not putrid, for they yielded to the same profuse bleedings. Dr. Moseley, however, appears to us to deserve confidence; and, whatever may be the nature of the disease, we have reason to believe that his plan has been successful. There is one motive for its use, that it cannot easily be less useful than the methods hitherto practised. The recoveries from the yellow fever were usually very rare.

On the subject of tetanus we perceive a little of the scepticism

ticism of an old practitioner. He thinks that no medicine is of service in this disease, but that it is best prevented by giving bark freely after operations, and an anodyne every night. In this case, his directions apply to the locked jaw, which occurs, he says, in warm climates after amputation, though the nerves have been cautiously avoided in making the ligature. The cures of locked jaws are those, he thinks, of nature, not of art: and he rests much on the opinion of Hippocrates, that, if not fatal before the end of the fourth day, the disease spontaneously subsides. Of the general disorder, he thinks, with justice, that the opisthotonus is the most violent degree of the disease; but he is also of opinion, that the emprosthotonus does not exist. Other practitioners have thought the same; yet we have seen a decided case of it, where not only the flexors of the extremities were affected, but those of the neck and trunk. It had every true character of a tetanic disease, and no particular cause appeared to have excited it. We well know the little force of anonymous authorities; but we have more than personal credit at stake; and, if Dr. Moseley desires it, will put him in a way of procuring the most authentic information.

On the subject of cancers our author gives short, but important information.—His great object is the bay sore, a kind of cancer not uncommon on the Musquito shore; but he observes that it is applicable to any curable cancer. We regret that our author has published his method so plainly, since we have seen bad effects from the indiscriminate use of escharotics. His acrid substance is the corrosive sublimate, which he thinks is superior to arsenic, the remedy of Mrs. Plunket, because it only erodes the morbid parts, with little effect on the sound ones.

Of the dry belly-ache Dr. Moseley's account is also short. He denies that it is produced from new rum, or that the rum is impregnated with lead. After emptying the bowels by the mildest, oily laxatives, he gives his vitriolic solution in a dose, to excite nausea, or a slight retching, and speaks with the utmost confidence of its success. In pulmonary complaints he tells us also, that it is singularly useful.

We must not take our leave of this work, without our acknowledgements to the author, for the information we have received from it. We regret only, that he has employed that time in transcribing from others, which he might have filled usefully by a detail of his own experience; and that a man, acquainted with so many languages, should have attended so little not only to the polish, but to the precision of his own.

A Con-

A Concordance to Shakspeare; suited to all the Editions. To which are added, Three Hundred Notes and Illustrations, entirely new. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robinsons.

TO those who look on Shakspeare as a divinity, and his works as sacred, a Concordance may seem requisite. We own, that we have styled him the 'god of our idolatry;' yet we are not well pleased with the design, or with the execution of this tribute to his shrine. Where the sense of a word is of great importance, it may undoubtedly be determined, by comparing the passages in which it is found; but, in Shakspeare, few words require to be fixed in this manner:—words of this kind are not the object of our editor's attention; and the sentiment is usually of much more importance than the expression. If, therefore, a concordance be collected, it should be of those passages where the same sentiment occurs in different forms: at present the occurrence of the word is sufficient; and of a word which so little decides the force of the sentence, that, as it is not pointed out by different characters, we must look at the title, before we can discover it. This Concordance is now literally a patch-work, where, in each series,

Nec pes nec caput uni,

Reddatur formæ.

We never saw Shakspeare in a form so little pleasing, so torn and mangled. Horace has told us, that if we change the order of the words of a true poet, we may yet find his scattered limbs; so in every form, the rugged energy, the poetic majesty, the expressive sublimity of our first poet will claim our respect.

The Notes deserve a different character: they are said to be the efforts of a young, but zealous critic. In his lucubrations we discover the refinement of Warburton, and the bold conjectures of Theobald, mixed with genius and attention: yet we think his fancy often carries him from the proper track. He is more eager to fix the meaning of the text, by a bold innovation, than to reconcile it to the context, by a patient attention. Let us examine a few notes of different kinds.

On the following passage, he is perhaps too fanciful.

'———move the still-piercing air,

That sings with piercing.]

'Still-piercing air' is very harsh. The old copy reads, "Still-peering air."—*Peering*, I think, may have been printed in mistake for *steering*, and the words which immediately follow ("that sings with piercing") somewhat strengthens my conjecture. "Pierce," says Helena, "the air, that regards not your attack—that *steers*, that mocks, that laughs, in short, at your power, but do not touch Bertram."

Again,

Again,

'The composition, that your valour and fear makes in you, is a virtue of a good wing, and I like the wear well. *All's well that ends well.*

"A virtue of a good wing, and I like the wear well," is nonsense. For "wing" we must read *vigour*, a sort of Spanish wool. The whole should run thus—The composition that your valour and fear makes in you, is a vigour of good virtue, and I like the wear well.—i. e. Your valour and fear is a stuff of good manufacture, and I like the wear well. Without such reading, where is the integrity of the metaphor? as Dr. Warburton would say. Few of Shakspeare's metaphors are properly kept inviolate.

Once more,

'I have rubb'd this young quat almost to the sense,
And he grows angry. *Othello*, A. 5. S. 1.

'All the commentators, I believe, have mistaken the sense of this passage. A "quat," in my opinion, is an intimate, a crony. We now say, when we speak of the intimacy of one man with another,—“O! they are quater-cousins.” I therefore read as follows:

"I have *fubb'd* this young quat," &c.
i. e. I have *fubb'd*, or *put off*, this quater-cousin, or associate of mine, as long as possible, and now he grows angry. "*Quat*" appears to be an abbreviation of "quater," and may have been used for quater-cousin, or friend, in the same way that *cuz* is employed for cousin, a relation by blood or marriage.'

'I will bring thee where Mrs. Anne Page is at a farm house a feasting; and thou shalt woo her: cry'd game, said I well?
Merry Wives of Windsor, A. 2. S. 3.

'Mr. Steevens would retain, "cry'd game," but I cannot think it right. I read, "Thou shalt woo her, and cry *amie*."—*Amie*, Fr. a word of endearment. Thou shalt woo her, says the host, and cry *amie*,—i. e. salute her with the title of lovely mistress, eh, said I well? That this is the true reading, the context will clearly shew.'

Sometimes the author adds explanations highly probable, but which we would admit with caution: in the following, for instance, a blue eye may be correct, as it is a sign of weakness, fatigue, or want of rest.

'A lean cheek; which you have not: a blue eye, and sunken, which you have not. *As you like it*, A. 3. S. 2.

"A blue eye." But why a blue eye? I believe we should read "a *flu* eye."—*Flu*—*fluish*, in the northern counties, is watery, weak, tender. "A *flu* eye" will therefore mean, an eye filled with tears. *Fluer*, French, to flow or run.'

Again,

It is not probable that Sir Toby Belch would think it a disgrace to be called drunkard.—We quote the passage also, to shew our author's vague method of referring: the explanation,

tion, quoted in the note, we have not, after diligent search, been able to find. The name of the play is of no use in a work, where passages from different plays are mixed, without any order. This reference is not the only one of the kind.

‘Send for money, knight; if thou hast her not i’ the end, call me cut.’ *Twelfth Night*, A. 2. S. 3.

“Call me cut,” i. e. call me wine-bibber—call me drunkard. This is highly natural. Men are very apt to rail against the vices that themselves are addicted to. We now say of a man who has been drinking to excess, that he is *cut*. The meaning of cut, in “come cut and long tail,” is, however, totally different. See note on *Merry Wives of Windsor*.

Another Note of a doubtful kind, is the following.

‘—— Mine honest friend,

Will you take eggs for money? *Winter’s Tale*, A. 1. S. 2.

“Will you take eggs for money?” The meaning is, Will you take *eyes* (i. e. words) for money? *Aie*, in old language, is used both for the affirmative *yes*, and for *egg*. See Chaucer. *Aie, Aye*, (*Ey*, Teut.) an egg.

We shall conclude our article with a few notes, which we think, rest on a better foundation: they are chiefly suggested by an attention to the old French, a source of explanation not yet exhausted. Yet, even in this line, our author is occasionally mistaken.

‘I remember, one said, there were no *fallets* in the lines, to make the matter savoury.’ *Hamlet*, A. 2. S. 2.

“No *fallets* in the lines” is nonsense; and no *salt* in the lines is not right. The poet has here, as is very common with him, adopted a French word, viz. *saletés*, i. e. *smut*, or *smutiness*. *Dire des saletés*, is, to talk *lowly*. *Saletés* having been at first printed without the accent, was read *saletes*, and thence arose the mistake.

‘Come thou monarch of the vine,
Plumpy Bacchus with pink eyne.

Ant. and Cleop. Act. 2. S. 7.

“Pink eyne,” in this place, I believe, are neither *small eyes* nor *red eyes*, but *twinkling eyes*; and such as are usually observed in drunken persons. To *pink*, is to wink with the eyes. “He is quite *pinky*,” for “he is quite *fuddled*,” is now made use of in ordinary conversation.

‘—— King Henry’s blood,

The honourable blood of Lancaster,

Must not be shed by such a jaded groom.

H. IV. P. 2. A. 4. S. 1.

“Jady groom” is the right reading (*jadis*, Fr.) heretofore. The sense of the passage is—thou who wert heretofore a groom, and held my stirrup.

‘—— Can sodden water,

A drench for sur-reyn’d jades, their barley broth,

Decoet their cold blood to such valiant heat? *Henry V.* A. 3. S. 5.

“Sur-

"Surreyn'd" is old, worn-out. The French word *surrant* Anglicised, and then corrupted. It should be printed *surrend'd*.

One

To whom you are but as a form in wax,
By him imprinted, and within his power
To leave the figure, or disfigure it.

Midsummer Night's Dream, A. 1. S. 1.

"Lave" is the proper word. *To lave* is a term of art in painting, and signifies *to embellish, to beautify.*

'Nym, and Bardolph, are sworn brothers in filching; and in Calais they stole a fire-shovel: I knew by that piece of service, the men would carry coals.

Henry V. A. 3. S. 2.

"Carry coals,"—there is a quibble here on the English word *coal*, and the French word *colle*, which signifies *sham, bamboozle, or cheat*. "I knew by that they meant to carry coles," i. e. I saw plainly that they were bamboozlers, or tricksters."

Julia; or the Italian Lover. A Tragedy. As it is acted at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-lane. By R. Jephson, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

THE story on which this Tragedy is founded, is remarkable, and well adapted for theatrical representation. The incidents in it are, however, few; and, to fill up the destined number of acts, a duel between Marcellus and Mentevole takes place in the third, which neither perplexes, retards, nor promotes the developement of the plot. In the fourth, an interview between Julia and Mentevole, equally unimportant, but much more improbable, occurs. Can it be supposed that a rejected lover would, in the *day-time*, place ruffians in the garden of his mistress's father, to assist him in carrying her off, in case she *should happen* to walk there?—That a man, immediately after he had been apprized of a charge of murder urged against him, and that too justly founded, instead of meditating flight, or preparing to defend himself, should only shew an anxiety to be married?—That, on the lady's appearance, he should enter into a long conversation with her, without expressing any apprehensions of being discovered by the family, on which circumstance the success of his scheme must have entirely depended? The heroine, indeed, sees at last, her father and Marcellus approaching towards them, but not till her situation has been rendered extremely interesting, by her seizing a dagger, and threatening self-destruction. Their appearance gives her an opportunity of quitting the stage with the usual éclat attending virtue reprimanding abashed villany. The scene, however, if admired, must be admired for itself: it is totally unconnected with the plot; neither this attempt of Mentevole nor his duel with Marcellus produce any effect, or are ever hinted at afterwards.

The

The language is in general good, neither too turgid nor too tame, and well adapted to the stage. A few antiquated expressions, and arrangement of words in Shakspeare's manner, tend to strengthen, sometimes possibly to stiffen the dialogue. We recollect a whimsical, but ingenious critic's observing on the following words, spoken by Juliet,

Oh, sweet my mother !

that they are more affecting from the peculiarity of their location. A similar inversion of words sometimes occurs here ; as, ' Dear my Lord,' ' Good my lord,' and, ' Soft you a while ; for lo you who comes here.'

Such an imitation as the last, appears a parody, and tends rather to burlesque the original than grace the copy. We meet, likewise, with some awkward expletives ; such as, ' That bloody lingering business *there* at Candia.'—' That lady *there*'—' swells up her impatience,' &c.

Such expressions as the following are equally exceptionable:

—— ' the bonds of their long amity,

The lie with many mouths has puff'd asunder.'

A mouth of many lies is a more natural image than ' a lie with many mouths.' And, ' To puff a bond asunder,' is rather an incongruous metaphor.

' His sister, as we learn, has sought a convent,

And *will* no more be found.'

Surely the person who flies to a convent identifies the spot where she is to be found. That circumstance must depend on the *will* of others, not her own.—Some excellent passages more than compensate for these, and a few other slight defects. We were particularly struck with the character of Mentevole : it is conceived and executed with much spirit. The haughtiness, and fiery impatience, which he displays in the following scene, are every where preserv'd.

Mentev. Tell me, Olympia, are not women woo'd

By constancy, and deep-protected oaths ?

By living on their smiles, by nice attentions ?

By yielding up our reason to their humours ?

By adoration of their beauty's power ?

By sighs and tears, by flattery, kneeling, fawning ?

Tell me how many ways a manly mind

Must be debas'd, to win a lady's smile ?

' *Olym.* That which by baseness only can be gain'd,

Were better undesir'd. But say, good brother,

Why do you question with such angry haste,

And what strange fury ruffles all your mien ?

Give me your hand : it burns. You are not well.

Your mind unquiet fevers thus your blood.

' *Ment.* No, no : a woman's coldness. Your fair friend,—
Teach her to smile, and my distemper die.

Olym.

Olym. She has no sense of joy: that beauteous flower
Bows its sweet head over Claudio's bloody grave.

Ment. Must that eternal sound grate on me still?
Hast thou been faithful to me? Hast thou told her,
How thou hast seen these lids, even at her name,
Swell with unbidden tides of melting fondness?
Whole nights how I have fill'd thy patient ear,
And she my only theme? How many times,
When chance has given her beauties to my sight,
Thou hast beheld me, trembling, try to speak,
And gaze away my meaning?

Olym. Nay, my lord,
Endeavours true as mine disdain suspicion:
And let me say, if she shou'd ne'er consent,—

Ment. How's that? take heed! If she shou'd ne'er consent?
Put not my life on chilling supposition;
Make it the doubt, Olympia, of a moment,
And though thou art my sister, and a dear one,
By heaven, I almost think that I shall hate thee:
For here I swear, deeply and calmly swear it,
The hour which sees me desperate of her love,
Shall be my last.

Olym. For shame! be more a man.

Ment. By the great power which gave me sense and being,
I'll wrest from fate my folly's chastisement,
And this right hand shall end me.'

To this impetuous character, that of Julia forms a pleasing contrast. There is something peculiarly solemn and delicate in the following sentiment, which she utters to Marcellus, whose brother, to whom she had been betrothed, was secretly murdered.

Julia. There is an awful witness of this scene,
For ever present here, who hovers round me.
Through the still void I hear a solemn voice;
On his pale lips the unwilling accents hang:
Our vows, he cries, were register'd above;
For thee my breast was pierc'd; see this red wound,
Nor lose the memory in a brother's arms.'

The characters, however, in general, are not drawn with any strong discrimination: they converse with the same uniformity of diction which commonly prevails in modern tragedies. That of Manoa, an honest and respectable Jew, though but faintly sketched, has the greatest claim to novelty. He is, we believe, the first who has been introduced on our stage without being represented as an object of ridicule, or abhorrence:—such plays as *Mariamne*, where the scene is laid in Judea, and the dramatis personæ are of that nation, must of course be excepted.

The

The Life of Scipio Africanus, and of Epaminondas. Translated into English by the Rev. R. Parry. 2 Vols. 10s. in Boards. Richardson.

PUBLIUS Cornelius Scipio, distinguished from others of his family by the surname of Africanus, and Epaminondas, were two of the most illustrious characters in ancient times: the former, trained up to arms almost from his childhood, had, in early youth, the honour of subjecting all Spain to the Roman power; while the latter, born in an humble station, and conversant only with philosophy, yet displayed, at an advanced period of life, such extraordinary valour and military conduct, as rendered his country, from being an obscure republic, the arbitress of Greece, and will secure to his name a glorious distinction amongst those of the most celebrated commanders. Whether or not the lives of these great personages had ever been written by Plutarch, it is impossible now to determine; all we know with certainty is, that they have not been transmitted to posterity in the works of that valuable biographer. With the view of supplying this defect, they were executed by M. de Folard, so far back as the year 1739; and, considering both the information he has collected on the subject, and his own judicious observations, it may justly appear surprising that the work has never before been translated into English. The authorities on which the narrative is founded, admitting of no hesitation with regard to the authenticity of facts, we have only to present our readers with a specimen or two of the history. The following extract concludes the Life of Scipio Africanus:

‘Scipio consoled himself in his disgrace with the comforts of a retired life; but he did not lose the remembrance of it. The resentment he felt for the outrages his services had been repaid with, lasted even to his death, which happened about twelve years after his leaving Rome. His last wishes were a proof of it; he ordered a tomb to be erected for him at Linternum, “That thou, ungrateful country,” as Livy makes him say, when he was dying, “mayest be deprived of the honour of my obsequies.”

‘This resentment roused afresh the inveteracy and rage of envy against him, and his whole house. The people, ever violent in their affections, would have created him consul and perpetual dictator; Scipio remonstrated so strongly against it, that the proposers of the scheme were punished. They would have raised statues to him in the forum and the temples close to those of Jupiter, but he constantly opposed it. They moved that his portrait, painted with all the ornaments of a triumph, and placed in the temple of Jupiter, should be solemnly carried through the whole city. His moderation alone prevented his receiving these honours; thus, as has been since observed

by Mr. St. Evremont, did the corrupter of the manners of his country continue always free from corruption. But to change the manners when such a change is become necessary, is that to corrupt them? And who can say what use Scipio might have made of these changes, had the republic permitted him to carry them to the end he proposed?

‘The zeal and respect of the people, so often merited, and expressed, was at his death, converted into indignation and rage. It was customary at Rome to deliver in public the eulogium of great men after their death. This wise practice multiplied, if I may be allowed the expression, the effect of their virtues, by giving a fresh view of them in a circumstance the most likely to render the impression more lively and affecting. The blind rage of envy ranked among citizens, who had forfeited their privileges, the vanquisher of Hannibal, the preserver of Rome, and the conqueror of Carthage! The meanest patrician was honoured at his death with a funeral oration.—Scipio the Great was refused this compliment by an order of government, which reflected disgrace only on its authors. All who had a just esteem for talents and virtue, indemnified Scipio, by their open expressions of concern for this outrage of his country. The day in which the account of his death reached Rome, was a day of general mourning; it was so justly due to a citizen, who had raised the glory and power of Rome to a height it had never before attained, that the very persons who forbid rendering his name due honour, could not help mingling their tears with those of the public.

‘Pliny relates that he saw at Linternum the tomb of this great man, and that it passed for a truth, that a dragon constantly guarded it. Thus does ancient history disfigure the plain fact by the false marvelous, invented only to amuse the vulgar. The same author adds, that they still shewed, in his time, olives planted by Scipio’s hand, and a myrtle of extraordinary beauty, which he had set; circumstances which prove how much the idea of greatness which great men communicate to every thing, interests the curiosity or rather the vanity of mankind.

‘There was another tomb for Scipio at Rome, raised undoubtedly to him by his family, in happier times. It is well known that great men have experienced more persecution in republics than in other governments; but sooner or later the time of doing justice to their characters arrives. If no people was more capable of feeling this virtuous recompence than the Romans, the memory also of no one was more likely to inspire it than the memory of Scipio.’

The great Fabius, it is well known, was a constant opponent of all Scipio’s measures; and with respect to this conduct, which has been attributed to envy, M. de Folard suggests the possibility that it may have proceeded from prudence. He observes, that all the advantages which were gained against Hannibal

Hannibal in battle, seemed only to excite Fabius's fears that they might cease to continue; and if that happened, he would have thought Rome in danger. Scipio, on the contrary, was persuaded that it was doing nothing to drive Hannibal out of Italy; and that it was absolutely necessary to reduce the republic of Carthage to such a state, that, by subduing her, and making her feel all the evils with which she had menaced the Romans, she never more should have the power of giving them the like alarms. Thus different principles make the greatest men think and act differently, who yet aim only at the same object, the good of their country. This observation of M. de Folard's must, at least, be allowed to be candid; and, indeed, considering the cool temper, and particularly the great age of Fabius, it seems more reasonable to impute his opposition to a conviction of judgment than to personal animosity.

We shall select the next specimen from the last scene in the Life of Epaminondas.

‘Epaminondas, hurried on by that warm zeal for his country which was his ruling passion, was unable to countrol it, when he had once given it the reins. He seemed unwilling to suffer a single individual of the Lacedemonians, whom he had so totally routed, to escape. He followed them with a kind of inveteracy which forced him on; he advanced rashly into the midst of them, without reflecting that the body of his brave Thebans, weakened by fatigue, by wounds, and the loss it must unavoidably have sustained in so warm an action must diminish every instant, and be able to follow him but at a great distance. He found himself at last, almost alone, in the middle of a croud of Lacedemonians, much more alarmed at seeing him amongst them, than he would have been, had he been able to see the great danger to which he was exposed.

‘Reflection at last opened their eyes, blinded in a manner by the stupor into which fear had thrown them. They observed that Epaminondas, hurried away by the heat of the action, and the eager desire of conquest, most inconsiderately and thoughtlessly risked his person: they instantaneously fell upon him on all sides. Never did the most intrepid soldier sustain so unequal an attack with more courageous firmness. Pressed from all parts, he at length recovered his usual presence of mind; he shunned the darts which fell round him, he warded off others with his buckler: several however reached him; he had the resolution to draw them out of his body warm with his blood and cast them back upon the enemy. At last, while he was wholly engaged in defending himself against those who surrounded him, an officer quitted his ranks, attacked him with his lance shortened, and plunged it into his breast, where the iron, which was broken with the force of the blow, remained. Epaminondas, senseless and covered with blood, fell at length upon

an heap of dead, which he had slain before he received this wound.

‘A piece of news of such importance, was soon spread through both armies. In such moments it is that the human heart usually changes the most poignant grief into the most desperate rage. The Thebans flew to the spot where they saw their general fall. Their natural strength, seconded by their fury, put all that resisted to the sword. The Lacedemonians for some time purchased with their blood the hope of carrying off the body of Epaminondas, around which this dreadful slaughter was made. At last the Thebans, equally brave, but much stouter, dispersed them, and with the point of the sword recovered their dying general.

‘At this sight their rage redoubled; they returned to the charge, they fell upon the Lacedemonians with still greater violence, whom the impetuosity of their attack had already put to flight; but these generous soldiers were, if I may be allowed the expression, so many bodies which had lost their head. Epaminondas extended on the ground, deprived them of every hope of gaining a complete victory, which but for this accident they would easily have obtained; moreover the whole glory of the battle was hitherto of their side; it would have been imprudent to risk the loss of it, and to see the body of their general carried off. The commanding officers therefore judged it right to sound a retreat to collect their men, who had every where broke their ranks in pursuit of the fugitives.

‘The Thebans being returned into their camp, which bordered on the field of battle, their first care was to call together the surgeons. After having examined Epaminondas’s wound, they declared it mortal. While the whole army was crying out in despair, they told them that there was not a ray of hope left; that Epaminondas must expire if the iron was not extracted from his breast, and that also he must infallibly die if the operation was performed. Epaminondas heard them without the least emotion.

‘It is not so much the death as the triumph of this great man, which the historians here describe. Condemned by the physicians, and sensible himself that he drew near his end, he ordered his shield-bearer to be called, who advanced all in tears. Epaminondas, anxious only for his own fame, and the glory of his country, asked him if he had saved his buckler. He answered that it was safe, and produced it. Epaminondas, transported with joy that so glorious a spoil had not fallen into the enemy’s hands, clasped it, says Jullin, as the dear companion of his labours and of his glory. He at last enquired which side had gained the victory: they told him the Thebans, and that the Lacedemonians had quitted the field of battle. “I have then lived long enough, says he, since I die with the honour of having never been conquered.” At these words he ordered them to extract the iron out of his breast. This dread-

ful order, to the horror of which Epaminondas alone was insensible, threw all the officers and soldiers into despair.

In the midst of this general affliction, one of Epaminondas's most intimate friends could not help expressing his grief in stronger terms than the rest. "O Epaminondas!" he cried, "you are dying, and when you die, we shall lose you entirely, without a hope remaining of seeing you revive in your offspring; you leave us no child behind you." "You are mistaken," replied Epaminondas coolly, "I shall leave behind me two immortal daughters, the victory of Leuctra and that of Mantinea!" Having said this, he again directed that they should take the iron out of his breast, and expired, overjoyed at learning, as he died, the triumph of his country.

In writing the lives of these illustrious ancients, M. de Folard has availed himself of all the information which could be obtained from Greek and Roman historians. Scipio having been early immersed in military action, and Epaminondas long sequestered in the shade of philosophical retirement, the narrative presents us with few of those interesting and characteristic anecdotes which gratify curiosity in the Lives of Plutarch; but M. de Folard, it must be acknowledged, displays a justness of observation, and not unfrequently likewise that depth of incidental reflection, which peculiarly distinguishes the Greek author. As exhibiting a connected detail of the history of two such illustrious personages, we are glad to find that the work has, at last, made its appearance in an English translation, though we cannot bestow any great encomiums on the manner in which it is executed. The version is frequently disfigured with Gallicisms; and sometimes with obsolete English. We shall only specify a few examples:—'*harvested* by the flames,'—'but restored *malgré* the sufferings,'—'*goodly* harmony.' The translation, however, is perspicuous, and appears to be faithful.

An Introduction to the History of the Dutch Republic, for the last ten Years, reckoning from the year 1777. 8vo. 4s. in Board Kearney.

THE commotions in the United Provinces, which, some time ago, threatened to spread the flame of war over Europe, are now happily extinguished, and even seem almost forgotten. Nor is it perhaps of much importance to political knowledge, or to posterity, that the causes which excited them should be traced with minute investigation. Curiosity, however, is undoubtedly interested in such a disquisition; and on this account, the public is indebted to those who have thrown light upon the subject. The author of the

of the present Introduction takes an extensive view of the late dissensions in Holland: his knowledge of the country, and its constitution, through the different departments, appears to be correct; and he displays an uncommon fund of information respecting persons, characters, and incidents; though, on some occasions, there seems reason to suspect that he is not wholly destitute of prejudice; and, on others, we meet with some insinuations not satisfactorily explained. As one example, he mentions some dissensions in the stadtholder's family, concerning which we are left entirely to conjecture; at the same time that there appears no foundation for the circumstance on which suspicion would most naturally fix as the object alluded to by the author.

Among the characters with which we are presented in this work, is that of the duke de la Vauguyon, the French ambassador; whose political conduct the author censures, for not having endeavoured to destroy the union between Great Britain and the stadtholder, and joining intimately with the Orange party, as well as with their adversaries. How far this refinement in political intrigue might have been practised with success, it is now impossible to determine; but the author ascribes the duke's conduct to a private pique; the account of which, however whimsical, we shall extract, for the satisfaction of our readers.

Some time after this ambassador came to the Hague, there was a caricature print came out of him and Marchand, in which they were represented in the characters and habits of Jesuits, sacrificing the reformed religion, the Seven United Provinces, and M. Berenger, to the whore of Babylon, the genius of France, and the demon of jealousy.

This print was neither ill executed, nor, in the detail of its composition, was it destitute of humour; at least it seemed as to execution and design to be far superior to any thing that could proceed from the hands or the invention of a plodding, dull, Dutch tradesman. But whatever its merits might have been, it gave the highest offence to the duke and his cabal. The medal of Van Beuninghen did not excite livelier sentiments of resentment in Louis XIV. than this print did in them. And though among us, where the frequency of satirical compositions of this kind renders their effects transitory and insignificant, it would have been laughed at for a day, and afterwards forgotten; yet in a country where pasquinades of this kind are not so common, it was very capable of operating powerfully on the minds of the multitude, and was long remembered with malevolence. The duke considered the publication of this print as an injury aggravated by an insult; and his sense of interest

interest was quickened by that of vanity or sentiment: inquiries were industriously set on foot by all the French cabal, to trace the author or the engraver, without in the end producing any clear or positive intelligence with regard to either. However, it was the general opinion, formed on what they called precedent and subsequent facts, that the princess of Orange had it designed, and that the Comte de Welderen got it engraved in London.

‘ This, whether true or false, was implicitly believed by the duke himself, and it inspired him with such sentiments of vengeance and resentment, the hereditary passions of his family, as ever after powerfully influenced his conduct. This spirit, at first feeble and wary, moved within a narrow sphere, and made its efforts with hesitation and timidity: encouraged by success, it boldly extended its operations; in the course of its progression it continued to acquire vigour, and at length it advanced with a rapidity and force which burst through all the limits, within which honour, the dread of shame, or the fear of reproach had circumscribed its activity. Van Berkel, and other leaders of the high republicans at Amsterdam, were not wanting in either arts or sagacity to cultivate these sentiments, and, uniting closely with the French ambassador, they jointly concurred to destroy the legislative influence of the prince of Orange.’

In this Introduction, the author has divided his materials into distinct sections; but without scrupulously adhering to any particular arrangement. Besides the information he discovers, his remarks are often interesting. From the manner in which the volume concludes, there is reason to expect a second; and should this prove the case, we hope the author will not forget, that it must be his own information, more than the nature of the subject, which will claim the public attention.

Memoirs of the late War in Asia; with a Narrative of the Imprisonment and Sufferings of our Officers and Soldiers. By an Officer of Col. Baillie's Detachment. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. in Boards. Murray.

VARIOUS accounts, and some of them perhaps not the most authentic, of the late transactions in India, have already been submitted to the public. If ever the imputation of *mendax in historia* should be applied to British writers, it could in nothing be urged with greater justice than with regard to the affairs of that continent; where the prejudices of opposite parties are invigorated by the most powerful impulses of private interest; and the distance of the scene gives extraordinary

latitude to the arts of misrepresentation. The *Memoirs* now before us appear in a 'very questionable shape.' The author professes to record the merit of the fate of individuals in our fleets and armies; to particularise their services and their hardships, for the promotion of their interest, if they have survived their sufferings; for perpetuating their names, if they have not: and, in both cases, for the satisfaction and consolation of their anxious relations and friends. These, though very subordinate purposes of historical narrative, might be admitted upon principles of humanity; but we do not, in fact, find that the merits of private officers are any otherwise displayed than as they contribute to the illustration of what is apparently the author's principal object. With regard, indeed, to the sufferings of the officers and soldiers in the prison of Seringapatam, he is so tediously explicit, that we are presented with almost one entire volume on the subject; but which unfortunately is so ill calculated to excite compassion, by the extreme frivolity of the narrative, that it must provoke, even in the most sympathizing mind, some degree of ridicule on their distresses.

We would be understood to speak without either partiality or prejudice, when we observe that this work is evidently written with the view of celebrating the merits of Mr. Hastings; and we are the more free to declare this opinion, as we not only have the highest confidence in the justice and honour of that great tribunal by which he is tried, but as we think that the seemingly interested adulation of this author implies a very indifferent compliment on the weight and energy of the late governor-general's defence. Such being the nature of the present work, we presume that we cannot extract any part of it more suitable to gratify the curiosity of our readers than the account of Mr. Hastings before he was governor-general of Bengal, which is as follows:

'Mr. Hastings is the son of a clergyman of the church of England, and was born at Darlesford, in Worcestershire, the seat of his ancestors for many generations, in the year 1732. His family is one of the oldest and the most respectable in that county: but having taken part with Charles I. during the civil wars, many of its possessions were sold, and the produce expended in the service of that unfortunate monarch. Four manorions, near Barford, in Oxfordshire, are now in the possession of the lineal descendant of Mr. Lenthal, the speaker, which were made over to that gentleman in order to preserve Darlesford, which had been in the family of Hastings since the year 1250, as appears by Dr. Nash's *Antiquities of Worcestershire*. The last portion of their patrimonial estates was sold by the grandfather of Mr. Hastings, to sir John Knight; and his father

ther dying when he was young, Mr. Hastings was left under the care of an uncle, Mr. Howard Hastings, who sent him to Westminster school, where he was distinguished as an excellent scholar, and went into College, the head of his election, in the year 1746. He there gave the first proofs of those "uncommon abilities," as Mr. Francis calls them, which have distinguished him through life—nor was he more remarkable as a scholar, than for personal intrepidity. His uncle dying in the year 1749, Mr. Hastings was left under the guardianship of Mr. Criswicke, an East India director, who appointed him a writer to Bengal, much against the inclination of Dr. Nichol, the head master of Westminster, who entertained so high an opinion of little Warren Hastings, as he called him, that he offered himself to educate him at Oxford.—Mr. Hastings arrived in Bengal in the year 1750, when the English possessed neither territory nor power in Hindostan.—He was in the interior parts of Bengal when Calcutta was taken by Surajah Dowlah, in the year 1756, and was allowed his liberty at Mankhedabad, a singular mark of the esteem in which his character was at that time held. At the capture of Calcutta by colonel Clive and admiral Watson, he served as a volunteer in the army, and being the first Englishman in Bengal who spoke the Persian language, he succeeded Mr. Scrafton, in the year 1758, as resident at the court of Mier Jaffer, one of the most considerable officers in Bengal.—Here Mr. Hastings remained until he obtained a seat in the council of Calcutta. He quitted India in the year 1765, with an unblemished reputation, and a fortune so moderate as only to entitle him to lodgings in Essex-street in the Strand.—Disappointed in his hopes of returning to India, he had formed a plan, in concert with the late Dr. Samuel Johnson, of founding a professorship for the study of the Persian language at Oxford; but a change soon after taking place in the East India direction, he was appointed second in the council at Madras, in the year 1769, and ordered to succeed to that government.—In the year 1771, the Directors removed him to a country with which he was better acquainted, and he became governor-general of Bengal in the year 1772.

What confirms our opinion of the design of this publication, is, that though entitled *Memoirs of the late War in Asia*, a very considerable part of it is occupied with the domestic occurrences relative to the prosecution of Mr. Hastings. In the narrative on this subject, we can discover the author to be not a little embarrassed between his zeal for the cause of Mr. Hastings, on one side; and, on the other, a strong latent attachment to that gentleman's principal accusers. The foremost of these is Mr. Burke; the account of whom we shall subjoin, as a counter-part to that of Mr. Hastings.

'This celebrated person is a native of Ireland. He quitted his own country nearly at the commencement of the present reign.

reign. Amongst the various peculiarities which distinguish this reign from all others, there is none more striking than the very extraordinary increase of that body of men who are generally termed political adventurers. Mr. Burke, amongst this order of men, has been eminently successful. He made his first entrance into public life in the character of private secretary to the marquis of Rockingham, in the year 1765. He continued steady in his attachment to the noble marquis, from the year 1765, to the time of his decease, and it has been generally thought, that he governed the party, the heads of which, though men of good understanding, were more remarkable for the affluence of their fortunes, and their private worth, than for talents as orators and statesmen. By a prudent, though not fordid oeconomy, he avoided the inconveniencies and the dangers of embarrassed circumstances, and amidst all the vicissitudes of his public life, preserved an independent and erect mind, with a narrow private fortune.—From the earliest years of Mr. Burke, there was something in his sentiments, pursuits, and manners, that indicated to the discerning eye sublimity of genius and delicacy of taste. As he advanced in years the pre-judices formed concerning him were more and more confirmed: and he grew up in favour with all around him. An interesting sweetness and sensibility of countenance prepared the stranger for thinking justly of the humanity of his disposition, and, from the richness of his conversation on every subject, he was pleased, though not surprised, to find intellectual excellence in conjunction with moral goodness. There is nothing in nature that is solitary, or independent of that universality of things which composes one harmonious whole: nothing so insignificant that it may not be associated by a vast variety of connections, with something most interesting and sublime: and all the arts and sciences are linked together in one chain, affected by mutual influence, and sustained by mutual support. Hence the copious and disciplined fancy of Mr. Burke, whether in private conversation or public discourse, both in speaking and writing, diffused a captivating charm on every subject, and gave relief and animation to topics the most dry and barren.—The sciences have a natural tendency to produce candour and forbearance, by inducing in the minds of their votaries an habit of tracing every action and every effect to its proper cause. And polite literature and the fine arts, by exhibiting human nature in an infinite variety of interesting situations, excite a thousand social and humane emotions, which cannot spring from all the occurrences and vicissitudes of the most varied life. Thus the man of letters becomes a citizen of the world. His enlarged mind acquires an habit of sympathetic indulgence. The antipathies and prejudices which set men at variance with one another, are gradually worn off. Nothing that belongs to human nature; no peculiarity in national character; no common failing or imperfection of the individual member of society, moves either the ridicule
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or the rage of the man who is accustomed to contemplate nature and humanity under manifold forms, and in whose breast disgust and even indignation at the effect, is partly lost in the contemplation of the cause. The character of Mr. Burke, was marked by nothing more than superiority to vulgar prejudices, and unbounded philanthropy to all classes and nations of men. It was this expanded sentiment that, on different occasions, inspired him with courage to resist the popular fury, when it had broken loose with a savage ferocity against unfortunate criminals, and a proscribed religion. It was perfectly natural for such a spirit to enter by a lively sympathy, into the sufferings of the Indian nations under European tyranny, and to indulge an honest indignation against their oppressors. He suffered his imagination to dwell with pleasure on the visionary project, of uniting the freedom of the natives of India, with their dependence on Great Britain, and of bringing to exemplary punishment, an individual who had uniformly acted in the character of the first minister in India, on those very principles by which our possessions in that country had been acquired, by which they had been maintained, and by which alone, beyond all manner of doubt, in times of civil convulsion, they could be recovered or preserved.—The finest genius, the most generous disposition, is not unusually found in conjunction with an irritability of temper, which magnifies its object. Although it may be too much to affirm, that belief is nothing more than vivid perception, attention has undoubtedly a microscopical power, and this power we can command at pleasure.—Hence that wonderful variety of opinions that prevail, on so many subjects, among men of equal understandings: for while reason and truth are uniform and invariable, the passions and interests of individuals are various: and when once the will begins to influence the judgment; fertility of invention, instead of being a lamp of light, becomes a source of error. Mr. Burke, in his eagerness to impeach the governor-general of Bengal, lost sight of constant precedent, and political necessity: and, for what had become the predominant passion of his soul, his imagination, fertile even to excess, easily found a cover in partial views, and plausible theories and conjectures.

However the talents and benignity of the ‘political adventurer’ may seem to be flattered by this delineation, we find, in less than the space of two pages, that, with respect to a transaction, ‘in defiance of law and common sense,’ the same ‘Mr. Burke was the grand mover of this business.’

The other of Mr. Hastings’s accusers, celebrated in this work, is Mr. Sheridan; whose character, as there drawn, we shall next present to our readers.

‘Richard Brindley Sheridan, a descendant of that Sheridan whose name is immortalized in the writings of dean Swift, was, like Edmund Burke, a political adventurer, and a native
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of Ireland, though he was educated in England, and, for some years, under the tuition of the learned and classical Dr. Samuel Parr. He possessed, like his illustrious countryman, excellent qualities both of body and mind, improved by a learned and liberal education: an expressive countenance, a manly yet pleasing deportment, great insinuation and address, versatility and accommodation of manners in the common intercourses of life, but, in matters of importance, inviolable attachment to his professed principles. He was introduced to public life by Mr. Fox; and he has paid the finest compliment that was ever yet made to that wonderful man's penetration and discernment of character. He was distinguished, as well as Mr. Burke, by learning, eloquence, wit, and humour; and, like Mr. Burke, he maintained unshaken fidelity to his friends, with a narrow private fortune. In short, the country, the situation, and the friends of these men were the same; and their talents and virtues nearly equal in degree, but different in kind. Though Mr. Burke knew how to excuse the follies and frailties of his fellow-men, he was, from the sensibility of his temper, indisposed to remark them. Mr. Sheridan had a quick apprehension of whatever was either odious or ludicrous in human life and conduct, but, except on the theatre, he seemed too good-natured to observe it. Mr. Burke inclined somewhat to the sternness of republican virtue: Mr. Sheridan, to the indulgence of a court. They both of them seasoned their orations with the pleasing excursions of fancy: but, while Mr. Burke often rose from earth to heaven, and it was not every one who accompanied him in his flight that could distinguish the summits of mountains from clouds, clear argument and business were always the predominant features in the speeches of Mr. Sheridan. The former preserved his dignity by husbanding fortune: the latter by despising it. Mr. Burke, like Cicero, sacrificed at his Tusculum, both to the muses, and the household gods, Mr. Sheridan, like Caesar, sought to reign in the hearts of men, refused nothing when he had aught to bestow, and, in every situation, with his eye fixed on the objects of a lofty ambition, waited in perfect tranquility for that relief which the common vicissitudes of human affairs, rightly improved by commanding genius, are wont to bring to all difficulties.

From some of the parts above extracted, we suspect that the author has been dipping his pencil in the well-known Preface to Bellendenus. In a work intended to gratify both Mr. Hastings and his accusers, little consistency can be expected; but we cannot behold, without a degree of astonishment, the incoherent and complicated prejudices manifested in that now before us. The author affirms, that 'the first lord of the treasury, jealous of the great mind of Mr. Hastings, embraced with avidity a pretext for humbling the man whom he considered as his rival, and veiled his own hostile fears under the sacred name of regard to justice.'

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This case is certainly none of those 'where the conclusions of the understanding,' as the author observes in another place, 'derive not an impetus from the emotions of the heart.' Indeed, the impetus is so strong, that it has evidently offered violence to the understanding.

The author has eked out the work with an Appendix; containing a description of an Eastern haram, differing little from the common recitals on this subject; a Narrative of the Treatment of the English prisoners taken at Bednore; a Prison-song in Seringapatam, and another in Bangalore: but the person who believes that the Muses ever were courted in the hour of real distress, must entertain a very erroneous idea of the constitution of the human mind. In perusing this work, we were sometimes disgusted with a repetition of particular expressions, and often with a turgency and affectation of style and sentiment, the concomitants of vitiated taste.

Observations on various Passages of Scripture. Vols III. & IV.
8vo. 13s. Johnson.

IN the year 1765, Mr. Harmer first published one volume of *Observations on different Passages of Scripture*, which appeared again ten years after, with very considerable additions: this new edition was divided into two volumes, and was examined in our XLIII^d Vol. p. 43; while the former occurred in the XIXth Vol. p. 105. The volumes now before us are supplementary ones; and their substance has been collected from sources of information to which Mr. Harmer had not formerly access. We greatly regret that Volney's *Travels* were not in his hand: this very able and intelligent author might have rectified many mistakes; and, by his observations, saved many long discussions. Indeed, Mr. Harmer is not sufficiently cautious in his choice of authorities.

It is, we believe, well known that Mr. Harmer endeavours to explain different parts of Scripture by the account which travellers have given of the customs of the East; and we have received no little information from his former work. Whether the most important circumstances had already been explained, or, from some late publications, our knowledge of the subject has been improved, may be still uncertain: we found, however, this supplement less interesting than the edition of 1775. Much labour is employed in ascertaining facts of little comparative importance; and much time is spent in answering some deistical objections, which would have done little injury to true religion, if they had remained in their full force, and which it is almost impossible to elucidate, at this distance from the æra of the events.

Our

Our author has prefixed to these volumes, a Specimen for illustrating the Greek and Roman classics, from the same sources, the travellers to the east. As a specimen only, this is not, perhaps, a fair object of criticism: yet we may remark, that, in the instances chosen, Mr. Harmer has not sufficiently elucidated some parts, and has mistaken others.

When he produces a passage from Dr. Chandler, to show that the goats were permitted to browse on the vines, if he had recollected the following lines (or their original in the *Anthologia*), it might have been equally decisive.

‘Rode Caper vitem, tamen hinc, cum stabis ad aram,

In tua quod fundi cornua possit, erit:

Or when he adduces Shaw’s authority, to show that purses were not tied to the girdles, but were contained in the girdles themselves, this common of Horace might have contributed to the elucidation.

‘Ibit eo, quovis, qui zonam perdidit, inquit.’

Perhaps, in almost every instance, the Roman classics are the best elucidators of their countrymen’s works.

The part in which we think our author has committed the greatest mistake, is in his remarks on the murrine cups. We shall make some observations on this subject, because it is curious and little known, as well as that Mr. Harmer attacks Pliny, by an uncandid remark; which may, with less injustice, be retorted on himself:

‘The passage in Propertius, which led Scaliger to believe porcelain was meant, is as follows:

“Seu quæ palmiferæ mittunt venalia Thebæ,
Murrheaque in Parthis pocula cocta focis.”

Lib. iv. El. 5. v. 25, 26.

‘Four things are evidently supposed by Propertius in the last line—that these murrine vessels were earthen ware, or the production of pottery; that they were extremely precious; that this valuable matter was generally, if not always, so far as he knew, formed into cups; and that he believed them to have been made in Parthia.

‘One thing that may have inclined many of the learned to suppose these murrine cups were not porcelain, may have been, it’s being much more commonly called china, or china ware: being sensible that the knowledge that the Romans had of the remote countries of the East did not reach to China, or near that country; and supposing that, till very lately, the art of making porcelain was no where known but in the Chinese empire.’

We give the author full credit for his quotation from Chardin, and believe with him, that porcelain was really made in an early age in Persia, and, we may add, many other places in the East. We contend only, that Pliny does not mean porcelain by murrine cups; and that the lines in Propertius will bear

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a very different interpretation. If our author thinks, that the passage in Pliny 'does no honour to his care in making enquiries concerning those matters about which he wrote,' we must think that the observations of Mr. Harmer do no honour to *his* care in reading the author whom he has criticised. These stones are found, says Pliny, in different parts of the earth: they are splendid without strength, and neat rather than splendid. They are admired for their colours, and for the shades of colours, verging from the purple to the milky white: to be pale and to be transparent is an equal fault. They are celebrated also for the smell which they afford: and are seldom so large as the common drinking-glasses. The assertion of their being found in the earth is supported by their being sometimes transparent, the gradual shades of colours, and their odour. Each is inconsistent with porcelain, and the knowledge of the Persians in that manufacture. We must now reconcile their fossil nature to the words of Propertius.

For this purpose, we shall refer again to Pliny, who, in his 14th book, speaks of a kind of wine which is called murrinam: it was perfumed with myrrh *, and sometimes the calamus aromaticus; if the wine was not originally sweet, it seems to have been sweetened with honey or raisins. This wine is mentioned, with great encomiums, in the Pseudolus of Plautus. Varro is of the same opinion: and Mercurialis scarcely differs from it, when he considers the murrina, or the murrhea, rather as sweet perfumed drink than really wine. We shall not adduce the disputed passage in the Persa of Plautus, because it was not understood even in the time of Cicero, and of course, cannot be elucidated at present. It is, however, pretty obvious that a perfumed liquor was employed under this title; and, if it was really not wine, was used instead of it: the origin of this liquor was undoubtedly an attempt to give a similar odour which the myrrhine cups imparted to common wine; and this odour from the myrrhine cups, was chiefly conspicuous when the wine was hot, as we learn from Martial.

'Si calidum potas, ardenti murra Falerno

Convenit, sic melior sit sapor ille mero.'

In the former passage we should be rather inclined to consider the murrea pocula as draughts of perfumed wine; for pocula, in the poets, is a term which more frequently signifies the liquor than the cup. Add to all this, the passage in Propertius, where he calls the murreus an onyx.

'Et crocino nares murreus ungat onyx.'

* We may just remark, that the 'contemptus odor Smyrnæ' in Lucretius, and the 'myrrham olet' in the Asinaria of Plautus, shew that this perfume was not greatly relished.

Whatever interpretation we give to this line, it is very inconsistent with porcelain; and the different passages unite only in supposing the stone in question to be a kind of agate, with a mixture of the lapis suillus, a stone that gives out some odour when warm.—This odour, it is true, is not very agreeable, nor was that of the murrina, in the opinion of Plautus, more so.

Our readers will excuse this discussion, which we have pursued chiefly to show, that

‘It is not Pliny noëd; but he that dreams.’

If, however, the author will contend, that the value of the murrina prevented these cups from being so common as is supposed, and that their colours were imitated in porcelain, we shall not oppose him: he may adduce in his favour the line of Martial:

‘Surrentina bibis? nec murrina pida nec aurum,

‘Sume’.

They were, indeed, very valuable: those authors who reckon gold and silver vessels among furniture, deny this term to the murrine vessels on account of their rarity: yet when we consider the extreme luxury of the primores populi; when we see the common people imitating the odour rather than the colours of the cup, even this supposition will appear improbable. The epithet of Martial may allude to varied colours of any kind.

The principal subjects of the third volume are, the weather of Judæa; the mode of living in tents in that country; its houses and cities; the diet of its inhabitants; their manner of travelling; and the eastern methods of doing people honour. In the fourth volume, Mr. Harmer endeavours to elucidate the substance on which their books were written, their preservation, and the different kinds of books; together with the natural, civil, and military state of Judæa. Some circumstances relating to Egypt, its adjoining wilderness, and the Red-sea, with miscellaneous matters, are then subjoined.

As we have already given our opinion of these volumes in general, we shall only add a specimen or two of the author’s observations. We have formerly had occasion to attempt an elucidation of the camel entering the eye of a needle, so that we shall select Mr. Harmer’s account of it: we, however, prefer the former explanation.

‘What makes the comparison used by our Lord so painful to the mind, when he said, “It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God,” seems to be it’s appearing quite unnatural, as we have no conception of its being at all in use to make a camel pass through any narrow passage. Very widely
extended

extended deserts is the idea we associate with that of a camel; such an animal's being put to force its way through a narrow passage we have no notion of: it therefore appears unnatural, and gives us uneasiness. But this is wholly owing to our unacquaintedness with local circumstances.

'I have elsewhere given an account of its being common for the Arabs to ride into houses, and commit acts of great violence, if measures are not taken to prevent them. The eastern doors, therefore, are often made very low, in order to guard against them, not above three feet in height.

'This keeps out the Arabs, who are almost centaurs, and seldom tempted to dismount in their excursions, but, we should suppose, must be very inconvenient for the inhabitants, who make so much use of camels, and must often want to introduce them into their court-yards; but, though they are so much taller than the Arab horses, this is done, however, by training up their camels, not only to kneel down when they are loaded and unloaded, but to make their way on their knees through such small door-ways.

'This must sometimes, without doubt, be attended with great difficulty, and makes the comparison of our Lord sufficiently natural: "It would be as easy to force a camel through a door-way as small as the eye of a needle, as for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God."

'Strong painting this, according to the eastern custom! it is allowed; but nothing unnatural, since camels are often forced through a small aperture, though certainly much larger than the eye of the largest needle that ever was made: the Arabs of the times of our Lord, and indeed long before, being of the same plundering disposition with those of the present generation, and consequently must have been guarded against in much the same manner.

'I have not only met with an account in some book of travels, of camels making their way on their knees through the low eastern door-ways; but I have found in the papers of a very ingenious clergyman, containing observations of a similar kind to these, that he had been assured by a "gentleman that lived many years in Morocco, that the entrances into the houses there are low for a similar reason, and that loaded camels pass them on their knees."

We shall add the following passage, because its length is well adapted to our limits.

'There is so much resemblance between an expression of surprise, made use of by the Turks, upon an exhibition of the military kind among them by the baron de Tott, and some words of Balaam recorded in the book of Numbers, that I thought it might be worth while to take notice of it.

'When the baron de Tott was endeavouring to make them better gunners, for want of which they suffered such great losses in the war with the Russians, which terminated in 1774, he was

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forced

forced by them, very contrary to his wish, to fire a cannon at a certain mark. Upon redoubled solicitations, he was prevailed on to point the piece, and was not less surprised than those around him, to see the bullet hit the piquet, in the centre of the butt. The cry *machalla* resounded on all sides.

At the bottom of the page is this note: *Machalla* (What God has done!) An expression of the greatest admiration.

This reminds one of an expression of Balaam, Numb, xxiii. 22, 23. "God brought them out of *Ægypt*; he hath as it were the strength of an unicorn. Surely there is no enchantment against Jacob, neither is there any divination against Israel: according to this time it shall be said of Jacob, and of Israel, What hath God wrought!"

These words may be understood to be expressive of devotion as well as surprise; but a word of this import appears to be used now in the East merely to signify surprise, and nothing more, probably, was meant by Balaam.

We must not leave our author without observing, that he has, with great care, collected various facts; and that, in general, he has employed his materials with skill. If the observations of travellers are useful in elucidating the classics, they may be most advantageously employed in the Greek classics: but much has been done in this way; though it might perhaps be of some utility to collect the scattered treasures, and bring the different illustrations into one view.

The author of the History of Ali Bey was, we find from Mr. Harmer, Signior Lusignan, who resides at present in this kingdom. The authenticity of this history has been attacked by M. Volney, in the first volume of his Travels, p. 116. As the internal evidence induced us to consider it as a genuine work, and as there is not the smallest suspicion of any designed misrepresentation, we wish this gentleman would put it in our power to say something for him and for ourselves.

Idées sur la Météorologie. Par I. A. De Luc, Lecteur de la Reine, tome premier. Part I. & II. 8vo. 141. Elmly.

M De Luc's volumes, on the Modifications of the Atmosphere, fixed his credit, as a natural philosopher, on the solid basis of well-conducted experiments and judicious reasonings. Since that period he has not been idle; his work on the earth and its minerals, and the volume which now lies before us, bear ample testimony of his diligence and ability. The subject of meteorology is not, however, new to our readers; we thought that we could not direct their attention to it under a better guide than M. Saussure, and we could not have introduced M. de Luc more advantageously than under his auspices.

We must confess, however, that we think M. de Luc's first steps exceptionable. His definitions go beyond the bounds with-
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in which they should be confined, for they include theory also. He calls elastic fluids expansible ones; but he goes on to explain their expansibility, and allows them an inherent activity, not well suited to the *vis inertie* of matter, or to phenomena. Light he considers as one of these expansible fluids, in our opinion, without foundation. Every phenomenon of light seems to show that each ray is projected in straight lines, in which it proceeds, ~~which is~~ reflected by a body not transparent, refracted by a change of medium, or a little deflected from its way, in passing near the surface of solid bodies. If light be an expansible fluid, it can only be so when, in a concrete state, it makes a component part of a body; but in that state we cannot examine it. That in a separate state it is not an expansible fluid has been sufficiently shown by sir Isaac Newton at the end of his *Optics*, where he speaks of its effects not being produced by undulations, which they would be if the light was an elastic, or if M. de Luc pleases, an expansible fluid.

M. de Luc's first consideration is evaporation, in which he repeats his former opinion, that it is the effect of the union of fire with water. This is certainly true, but the expansible fluid thence arising is probably dissolved in the air. In the subsequent part of the chapter on evaporation, he considers the various circumstances which influence evaporation and the state of vapours in different situations.

The next subject of inquiry is hydrology, or the chemical effect of these different vapours. The union of fire with water, in the production of vapours, destroys the peculiar effects of each, and it is only on the dissolution of this union that the moistening power of water appears; this is what M. Saussure calls the hygrometrical affinity. M. de Luc explains particularly the different causes which contribute to the decomposition. He then examines the nature of an hygrometer, and explains the properties which it ought to possess. The substance to be dilated and contracted, which he now employs, is whalebone. The extreme point of dryness is, in his opinion, best ascertained by plunging the instrument in water; in moistened receivers he thinks there is always a difference, according to the temperature, and he shows the source of the error which M. Saussure fell into in his experiment. M. de Luc is probably in the right, and for this obvious reason, that M. Saussure found his instrument on high mountains and in fogs to point somewhat beyond the mark of extreme humidity*. Hot steam is a very improper medium for this purpose, since Mr. Watt has observed, that the wood-work employed in those machines, in which steam is used, cracks as if from extreme heat. In fact, in an atmosphere of hot steam there is a strong attraction for water, and it may turn the instrument somewhat towards dryness; but this is the case with *very hot* steam only; it cannot materially affect the experiments with the hygrometer. Extreme

* Mr. Saussure has, however, very lately replied to this and some other of M. de Luc's observations.

dryness he ascertains with lime, fresh calcined ; indeed the point at this extreme cannot be fixed with greater exactness than by M. Saussure. Our author's hygrometer is graduated in the same manner, and into the same number of parts as M. Saussure's. The whalebone he thinks expands regularly and constantly in an equal degree in the same state of moisture ; the thinner it is, the more sensible. Our author drew it out to a foot in length, and a line one-twelfth of an inch in width, so thin, that it weighed only half a grain ; it might be drawn still thinner, but is, in this state, sufficiently sensible. M. de Luc next examines different substances, as proper for making hygrometers : those which expand regularly are, in his opinion, wood, reeds, ivory, other bones, feathers, and whalebone ; they must be cut transversely, and not in the direction of the fibres ; hair contracts it regularly, and numerous comparative experiments are subjoined to prove this position. He then returns to the theory of evaporation, in order to explain the increased dryness on exhausting a receiver. He thinks M. Saussure's reasoning insufficient ; but, in the progress of the argument, has hazarded many remarks, which, if true, are only so in particular circumstances. We think that this appearance is not very satisfactorily explained on his own principles, and we own that we feel a little repugnance to admitting his explanation of fire as a dissolvent of water. The first part concludes with some remarks on the comparative progress of hygrometers, in which he owns that M. Saussure's instruments are preferable.

The second part is very copious and extensive ; it relates to vapours, considered as a class of expansible fluids. The author begins with definitions, as usual, and shows that vapours generally consist of two ingredients, the yielding and the heavy fluid. The yielding or changeable fluid is light, or heat ; the heavy one is water, or any other substance capable of assuming an aerial form. He then shows the differences between vapours and airs, and refers the spontaneous or sudden changes of the former to the less intimate union of the ingredients.

Fire first claims our author's attention ; he calls it an expansible fluid, whose yielding ingredient is light, and whose more solid one is a substance not yet clearly understood. He explains many of the phenomena of fire, from this principle ; but we own that we are not yet convinced of the justness of his system, while we see bodies which possess the matter of fire as an ingredient decomposed without the appearance of light ; yet there is much ingenuity in the system which is built on our author's theory of vapours. When the particles of fire are accumulated as much as possible, and reach their maximum, then he supposes the decomposition begins, and light, as one of the ingredients, is let loose. The influence of light is, on this account, very extensive, and it forms part of a system which M. de Luc has hinted at in another work, that the effects of heating bodies arise from the light, which, meeting with the matter of heat, forms new fire, or adds a force

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to the fire which had already been decomposed. The great power of the solar rays, when collected either by a reflection or refraction into a focus, seems to arise from the quantity of light, the earth too receiving so much light, which is increased, or at least in some degree prevented from dissipation, by reflection, occasions the great heats in the lower strata of the atmosphere. On the same principles the phænomena of phosphoric bodies are explained, and some curious facts of this kind, as well as those which relate to heating bodies, not commonly known, are elucidated.

The next section is on the phænomena of heat, and chiefly of those which result from the different capacities of bodies. Heat our author considers as the effect of uncompounded fire in different substances, and its degrees to be those of the real expansive force of the fire, not of the quantity of actual fire accumulated, because different bodies are heated in different degrees, though exposed to the same heat, in equal times. The motions of the particles of expansive fluids, M. de Luc attributes, after M. Sage, to an æther similar to that supposed to exist by Newton. But we have formerly, in our Foreign Literary Intelligence, given a short account of that author's *Lucrece Newtonien*. The numerous circumstances and explanations since added to it, are shortly hinted at by our author, and employed by him to explain the different capacities of bodies for receiving heat. The whole is, however, too hypothetical, and too doubtful, to induce us to enlarge our article with a particular account of it.

The phænomena of heat which accompany combustion are also explained in a manner which we think doubtful. In gentle heats the pure air is supposed to be reduced only to fixed air, by the addition of inflammable air; in stronger heats the two airs are, he thinks, destroyed, and water is formed. Much time is employed in explaining the appearances of Argand's lamps on this principle, with very little success. The whole depends more plainly on the flame being hollow: as a greater surface of flame is exposed in that case to the air, than in a common lamp or a candle, the oil is more completely burnt. The transparent part of the flame is visible in a common candle at the bottom of the wick: we see it at this moment, and it arises only from the purer parts of the oil and tallow being first burned. The water which was collected from the patent lamp arises from that which was contained in the oil. Argand's lamp is undoubtedly an invention of much merit, and we wish that the inventor could have secured the profits which the patent would have produced in the usual time. Nothing but an extraordinary zeal in Mr. Argand's favour could have led M. de Luc for a moment to look so deep for the advantages of the patent lamp. We suspect too that M. de Luc is a follower of M. Lavoisier in more respects than the composition of water. He speaks with much caution about phlogiston, as a distinct principle*. He proceeds to the

* When a late journalist speaks with regret of the loss of M. Morveau, to the system of phlogiston, we suspect that he means his change of opinion rather than his death. We should be sorry for either event.

phenomena of heat, so far as they regard liquefaction, and considers liquidity to arise from the union of fire with bodies, which lessens the intimate union and attraction of the particles of which they consist. He opposes, at some length, the hypothesis, that a change in the capacity of bodies for retaining heat is the general cause of the phenomena of the augmentation and diminution of heat, which occur independent of any direct communication or deprivation of this principle. The language of latent heat, when applied to that heat which produces fluidity, he objects to, since heat cannot be latent where its expansive power is conspicuous. If fluidity is the consequence of fire added to any substance, it may be very properly asked, from whence arises the fluidity of ice, when sea-salt is joined with it? This question our author answers particularly, and seems to consider the necessary proportion of fire to be contained in the salt; and that, by this means, a diminution of heat appears to take place: but there are some phenomena of this kind which are not yet well ascertained in all their circumstances, because where many bodies are concerned, whose affinities to fire are not well understood, this element may be furnished by their decomposition, without affecting the thermometer.

The last section of this chapter is on those phenomena of heat which proceed from the decomposition of the grosser atmospheric fluids, which, as possessing fluidity in a greater degree than water, must, according to M. de Luc's system, contain a greater proportion of fire. In this section he explains himself more particularly, and endeavours to show that greater or less degrees of heat proceed from the decomposition and production of these fluids, rather than any difference in the capacities of bodies for retaining heat. This position is ascertained, in M. de Luc's opinion, by an ingenious experiment of Mr. Watt, from which he learns the quantity of heat required to form vapours, by the heat which they deposit in consequence of their decomposition. Our author then observes, that more heat is contained in pure and inflammable airs, since the water formed by the electrical spark passing through them, is at first in a state of vapour, besides the fire which is decomposed by the light, and is conspicuous during the experiment. The difference in specific gravity arises from the fire being clogged with different substances; and the chemical differences in airs arise, our author thinks, from the different affinities which their component parts have to the fire. The section is concluded with some remarks which are designed to obviate objections, and some reasons why fire is not more often conspicuous in our different decompositions. To our author's system we shall add no observations, though we must own that his experiments are not decisive, in our opinion, to show that no variation can follow from the different capacities of bodies for heat, independent of their attraction for fire as a component part; nor is it in any respect clear that fire is the very universal dissolvent which M. de Luc supposes.—The next chapter, on the electrical fluid, how-

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ever, contributes to elucidate the subject; but this we must reserve for another article: and though our articles may be somewhat disproportionate, the disadvantage from this cause will be much less than that which would arise from stopping in the middle of a subject.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 67.)

WE have often had occasion to regret that our work increased under our hands; and, in very few instances, have we formed a plan for a continued account, without its being broken and interrupted by the accession of new information. M. Reynier and M. Des Fontaines have added to our information on the generation of plants, and on the irritability of the sexual organs; but their memoirs we must mention at some future time, for, if we continue on one subject till it is exhausted, we fear that we shall never be able to proceed to any other. Materials will accumulate faster than we can write.

As we proceed, however, from insects, in our historical detail, to more perfect animals, it may not be improper to mention an observation of M. Reynier: he has lately told us, that the *aranea fasciata* of M. Poirer is found at Lausanne. But the count Razoumowski, who has examined the spider of Switzerland, and compared it with the descriptions of Fabricius, and the abbé Poirer, thinks that they should be referred to different families, as the eyes are arranged in different orders. The Lausanne spider, therefore, he considers as a new one, and describes it in the following manner: '*aranea pulchra media, maxillofa, corpore ovato oblongo, thorace villosa pilis albis, abdomine pedibusque nigris, fasciis flavis pulcherimus ornatis.*'

The next subject of natural history, which has lately excited the attention of philosophers, is the structure and economy of fish. M. Bruffonet's memoir on the respiration of fish is, in many respects, a valuable one. He describes the organs of respiration in the two great classes, the cartilaginous and the spinous kind: in the first, the gills are supported by a cartilaginous arch; in the others, by little incurvated spines. He examines the relation of the heart to the lungs, its corresponding size in each class, with a variety of particulars, which our limits will not permit us to enumerate.—We need scarcely mention, that the heart of a fish has one auricle and ventricle only; that the great artery is immediately lost on the gills, whose branches are again collected and dispersed over the whole body; but the arteries which arise from the gills have no pulsation. The gills differ in their structure; in those fish which remain long in the same water the gills are supported on short bony arcs; the cavity is large, and they are provided with means to retain the water some time. Others, which inhabit seas, and swim with rapidity, have an

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additional organ, like another lobe of the lungs in the human body. It is distinct from the gills, and situated in their cavity, towards the base of the opercula, and behind the elevation which the orbits form. The canal, by which the air is transmitted to the lungs, differs also in different kinds of fish:—in the lamprey, for instance, its form is very singular and sufficiently known. In fish too, the air contained in the water is received and returned by different apertures: it is confined by the opercle which is firmly fixed to the body of the fish, and forms one side of its thorax. When, therefore, the mouth is opened to take in water, by corresponding motions the opercle is opened to let out the water formerly contained in the cavity; and when the mouth is shut, the opercle is also closed. This operation may be easily seen in the gold fish kept in a glass vase.

The effect produced on the water, by its transition through the lungs, is unknown: we have reason to think, not only as in men, that the phlogistic principle is separated from the blood, but it may be suspected, that air is actually absorbed, and again secreted in the air-bladder. This part of chemistry is probably on the eve of being elucidated, since we have lately attained much of the previous necessary information. Fish cannot sustain a very considerable augmentation of heat, in the surrounding element, without injury. Various stories are, however, related by M. Bruffonet, of the great heats of mineral springs which have supported fish. Some of these we have had occasion to mention; and though more are now accumulated, we must still confess that we remain incredulous. Our author's own experiments seem to show, that fish cannot easily support a heat beyond 25° of Reaumur, or at most, more than 28° (from about 88° to 95° of Fahrenheit) *. There is not, however, any great difference between this heat and the temperature which men can support, if we consider that water communicates heat much more quickly and perfectly than air. Man probably could not sustain the heat of 100 degrees in water, for many hours together; and this does not depend on the relaxing quality of water as such, for vapour is more powerful in this respect, yet greater heats are supported in an atmosphere of hot vapour, with impunity.

Independent of heat, fish are injured by continuing long in the same water: the cause of this we have just hinted at, and we repeat it, in order to observe, that the only effort to discover the change in the water, which our author has made, is to add syrup of violets to it, which becomes greenish, after some time, and shows that a little alkalescence is imparted to the water. In lime-water, the fish discharge a sanious matter, and seem after it to recover a little; but they soon die. It is probable, therefore,

* There is always an uncertainty in reducing the degrees of Reaumur to those of Fahrenheit. Dr. Martine first pointed it out, and M. de Luc has repeated the observation. The uncertainty arises from that of the strength of the spirit used. The thermometers now mostly used are mercurial ones, and we do not therefore employ the correction.

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that lime-water is unfit to combine with the matter which it is necessary the fish should discharge from its lungs. Water impregnated with fixed air was soon fatal to its inhabitant, and the mouth and opercles were wide open: the aerial acid seemed not to be of itself injurious or disagreeable, but only to have saturated the water with one of the ingredients which the fish wanted to discharge; for, when the animal was killed by lemon juice, or the acid of arsenic, the mouth and the opercle of the gills were firmly shut.

M. Bruffonet, in another memoir, has given some observations on the scales of those fish which have been supposed to be without a covering of this kind.—He begins with remarking the general differences of the scales, according as the fish are designed for the deeper waters; or to encounter the shock of corals, madrepores, and rocks, in places nearer the shore. He goes on to explain their arrangement and disposition, according to their different manners:—in some, for instance, they are almost covered with the skin, and serve only to give this covering a firmness and a polish, while in others, they are bucklers of defence from the attacks of any enemy. Our author, however, soon proceeds to describe particularly those fish which appear to have no scales.

The first species mentioned, is the *cepola tænia* of Linnæus. M. Gouan tells us, that it has no scales; but M. Bruffonet discovered them under a fine delicate membrane. They are arranged in oblique lines, crossing each other like chequers; and when they drop off, they leave a mark almost square. The appearance of these scales in a microscope is also described. The animal swims with great agility. A similar form in the arrangement of the scales, was discovered in two fish which belong to the genus, styled by Gronovius, *maillacembalus*: one of these was brought by sir Joseph Banks from the South Seas. The remora was long supposed to be without scales; but their existence has been already demonstrated.

The scales of the sand-eel must be of a peculiar construction, because its manner of life is uncommon. They are so small, that they have escaped the observation of many ichthyologists. They are arranged like those of the *cepola tænia*; but the oblique lines are distinct from each other. Every part of the head and body of the common eel is covered with a skin of a close texture, and a white colour, with innumerable blackish points, which, through a microscope, represent spots. The skin is covered with a very fine blackish epidermis; and, between these two coverings, are found little oblong or round follicles, formed by the union of both skins, which pour out a fluid through innumerable apertures. In each of these follicles a scale is found: the convexity is on the outside, and the concave surface is connected to the body of the fish by many different vessels. This discovery, which is not, indeed, perfectly new, may prove unfortunate to this species; for the Jews do not eat of it, because they are forbidden to eat fish without scales. It is too late for them

them to be injured by Numa's law, which Pliny tells us directed no such fish to be employed in sacrifice. The organs of generation of the eel also, have not been properly described, except by Valisnieri.

Many kinds of murænas, which belong to the same genus, and are found in the Indian seas, have scales like the eel:—the *lupus marinus**, expressly described by Willughby, and Gronovius, as without scales, has larger ones than the eel, concealed in the same way. Some species of the genus of blennius, the viviparus, for instance, has similar scales, though smaller. A species of labrus, the donzella of the Italians, and the labrus julis of Linnæus, has scales of the same kind; but they have been already described by our author, in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1781. In all these fish, the scales are concealed under the skin; they are distant from each other; and the animals are deprived of the ventral fin, or at least these parts are so small as to be scarcely perceptible, and of little service in supporting it. The body is lengthened in these species, that by its undulating motion the fish may be sustained. They seldom go far from the shore; and are capable of living in vases. The aperture of the gills is small, and the skin, which covers the whole head, becomes transparent over the eyes.

There are two other species which have the scales almost concealed. The one is a scomber, described by Brown, in his Natural History of Jamaica:—its body is thin, of a silver hue, and finely polished; its skin resembles leather; its body is marked by lines raised above the skin, directed from the head to the tail, which touch at the sides. These lines are formed by strait, elongated pointed scales, fixed on the skin, and covered by a scarf-skin of a silver hue. They are about one-third of an inch long, attached to the skin by a vessel, which is united to its smallest extremity, and nearest the head. These scales cannot easily be separated, and they give the skin its firm texture. The other species is described by Margrave, under the title of guebarn. It forms a new genus, nearly allied to the scomber. There is a species of it in sir Joseph Banks's collection: its scales are near three-fourths of an inch long, flattened, and almost wholly covered by the scarf-skin. Margrave describes it as without scales: both species swim with uncommon velocity. These elongated scales are somewhat analogous to those which cover the body of the sea-dog.

Different species of the tetraodon have fine scales like pins, raised above the body, which are necessary to animals whose bodies are often swelled, and again reduced, at pleasure, to their former size. Some have hard united scales, others soft and flexible ones. Their growth, and the manner of their increase, is to be the subject of future memoirs.

* This is not the cetaceous animal which we call the sea-wolf, but a smaller fish, similar to the blennius: we have not been able, after some pains, to ascertain its genus with precision, unless it be the *anarrhichas lupus* Linnæi.

If we consider the more perfect animals, our attention must be soon attracted by a very learned dissertation on the animal which Homer and Aristotle have called $\Theta\alpha\lambda\lambda\alpha$. The author is M. Milin de Grandmaison; and, after a display of very extensive erudition, he agrees with Buffon, in thinking it the jackal. Mess. Pallas and Goldenstedt consider the jackal as the wild-dog, and the origin of the common dog: more lately, Mr. John Hunter, in an essay, which will be soon published, endeavours to prove, that the jackal, the wolf, and the dog, are varieties of the same species. Indeed, though M. Buffon's experiment was unsuccessful, the similarity of manners have always associated the two last animals; and, from their union, fruitful individuals have been produced. In fact, while the ancient $\theta\alpha\lambda\lambda\alpha$ is supposed to be the jackal, the animal described by Oppian and others, who are suspected to have been in an error, from the very slight account of the earlier authors, is more probably the spotted hyæna. Mr. Pennant thinks that the $\theta\alpha\lambda\lambda\alpha$ of the Greeks is the animal styled by Appian the yellow-wolf.

Another Essay, in the department of zoology, which we must mention, is on the *jerboa*, by M. Sonnini de Manoncourt. We shall not follow this author in his outrageous and uncandid attack on Hasselquist and Linnæus, by whom it has been styled *mus jaculus*, nor contend with him when he denies that it is of the rat kind. It has undoubtedly some resemblance to the rabbit: but while the definition of the *mus Linnæi* remains as it is in the system of nature; while it is allowable to group similar individuals under one generic title, our author's remarks are of no great consequence. M. Sonnini is more reprehensible, when he makes this animal, who leaps only with great activity, a connecting link between quadrupeds and birds. His object is to prove that the *jerboa* is the *alagraga* of Tartary, described by Gmelin, in the new Petersburg Transactions. We have not this work at hand, but in the first volume of the *Decouvertes, faites par divers savants Voyageurs*, compiled from Gmelin's papers, we find an accurate description, and a good figure of the animal, under the Linnæan title of *mus jaculus*. M. Sonnini's description is, however, somewhat fuller; but if Linnæus was so reprehensible, it is a little remarkable that Gmelin, who was an *autopsea* as well as our author, should not have pointed it out.

If it were advisable to separate the genera, there are undoubtedly many animals with which the *mus jaculus* might be properly arranged. Yet, to disturb the present order, would not be very convenient: if, for instance, it was referred to the *lepus*, which it more correctly resembles, the peculiarity of the hinder feet would be lost: if to the genus *cavia*, which Pallas, after the example of Klein, wishes to form, the association would be still more unnatural; and, if it be arranged with animals which spring from the force and the elasticity of their hinder legs, it would approach too near the cat and tiger. If genera are, therefore, at all usefully it appears better to leave the *mus jaculus* in its present place.

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The animal is not easily confined, as it gnaws the wood of its cage; it loves warmth, and is very tame, but its quiet is insipid insensibility, without interest and without attachment.

In this detail of natural history, we may now descend to the structure, and constitution of the globe, in different situations: but, on this subject we cannot afford much novelty, from the inquiries of our neighbours. Somewhat has, however, occurred on the Natural History of the Islands of Goree and St. Domingo, which may deserve our notice.—The information relating to the former island, is from M. de Preslar to M. Faujas de St. Fond. This island, he observes, consists of a craggy rock, with a little tongue of good land: the rock, we apprehend, is on the side next to the Atlantic; for the sea washes it with much fury, and has discovered different columns of basaltæ, chiefly pentagonal, raised vertically on each other, except towards the lower part of the pic, where the columns seem to have been broken, and to be inclined at different angles. The basaltæ are black, of a fine texture, and so hard, as to strike fire with flint. In short, there is no doubt of its being produced by a volcano. The mountain is covered by a volcanic earth, which proves to be a good puozzolane, and capable of cementing, even with bad lime, into a very hard terrass. The neighbouring islands of Magdelaine, at a league and a half distance, are also volcanic; and the sea having made numerous indentations, show that basaltic columns occur at a great depth, and of course do not depend on the lava being cooled by the water. Many trees, in these islands, are 60 (French) feet in circumference. Their electrical machine, of which the plate was 24 inches in diameter, gave pretty good sparks; so that it may be excited in the torrid zone. The thermometer is scarcely, at any time, under 12° of Reaumur (59 of Fahrenheit); on the 15th of January, it was at 16° (68°), sometimes it has been at 24° (86°); and in the sun, even at 40° (122°). There is seldom any rain but in the rainy season; and then, in the space of three or four months, from thirty-six to forty inches of rain fall, which is scarcely more than falls in the whole year in those parts of England where rain is most common.

The natural history of St. Domingo, by M. le Genton, is much more particular, and it is very interesting, since, from an examination of the currents to and from the Gulf of Mexico, it is sufficiently evident that the whole gulf was once dry land, while most of the Leeward Islands appear to have been raised by volcanos, and exhibit proofs of the destructive force of the currents, and of the productive power of internal agents, which have been looked on as equally pernicious. The French part of the island is the object of this author's attention; it is, on the northern side, opposed indeed to the Atlantic, but in the eddy of the current which passes through the Bahama Channel, and draws the water away with it: from this cause the shallows and low islands between it and the American shores seem to be produced. The mountains in the neighbourhood of Cape François

rise suddenly to sharp points, and are calcareous, supported by rocks of grit and granite, pretty certain signs of a former connection with the continent. The granites form an extended chain, which reaches to the Spanish side of the island, and differ only in the proportion of their constituent parts, except that they seem to contain a little calcareous earth in their substance. This fact is somewhat extraordinary, but it is not ascertained with much precision. The calcareous strata are parallel, and contain porphyry, flints, and different marine exuvie. The mountains are rich in minerals and metals. Towards the extremity of the black mountain, in an aluminous stratum, is found some fossil wood in the state of coal; on one side of the island is a pretty considerable mass of the loadstone. Though no volcano appears in this island, it is not improbable, from these facts, that the mountains have been raised by some active power in the bowels of the earth. We cannot quit the subject of mountains without mentioning that M. de Luc has replied to some parts of M. Saussure's relation of his journey to Mount Blanc, in which the observations of the former are combated. The replies are not always satisfactory, though in some instances they are so. In our review of M. de Luc's work we have mentioned some points on which these two philosophers differ; in fact we preferred giving an abridged account of the facts of M. Saussure's journey, because we were aware that some controversy would probably arise from it.

*Caroli a Linné Amœnitates Academicæ, Vol. VIII. & IX. Editio
J. Christian Daniel Schreberus, 8vo. Erlangæ, 1785.*

WE must acquit ourselves of a former promise by shortly mentioning the object of the editor in these two additional volumes, and giving a concise account of their contents. The collection, published under the title of *Amœnitates Academicæ*, have attracted the attention of the naturalist and the physician so much, that in no library of importance they are wanting; and though many editions have been published, copies are now scarce and extravagantly dear. There is more than one Dutch and German edition, besides that of Stockholm; and Dr. Pultney, an able and adequate judge of these subjects, has even thought it of importance to give an abstract of each essay.

The first volume was not collected by Linnæus, but by Camper, and dedicated to Mr. Peter Collinson. It was published in 1749 at Leyden, and Camper undoubtedly intended to continue the collection, as, in the title-page 'volumen primum' is added; but the dedication, which is very particular, only mentions the essays of that volume: besides, of the second volume, the second edition is printed in the title, with a note, that the first edition appeared at Stockholm in 1751. The Stockholm edition of the first volume appeared very soon after the Leyden one, and is dated in the same year. If any dispute arose on this subject; it was soon

soon compromised, as the volumes were afterwards published at Leyden, or at least the latter Leyden copies bear the same date with the Stockholm ones. We have explained this part of the subject, because Dr. Paltney left it uncertain.

These Dissertations are the theses published by the students when they take their degrees; and, in foreign universities, are usually the works of some of the professors, or at least the professors contribute the materials. To complete the set; however, some Dissertations were deficient; but they were those in which Linnæus had only assisted the candidate. The early death of his son prevented him from rendering the *Amœnitates* perfect, as he had intended; and Schreber has now collected what remained. The Dissertations are 36 in number, and divided into two volumes:—the first contains those to which Linnæus contributed a large share, and they form the eighth volume; while the others are those in which he had little or no concern, though they were published at Upsal during the period in which he presided.

The Dissertations in the eighth volume are distinguished by the following titles:—*Coloniæ Plantarum*; *Medicus sui ipsius*; *Morbi Nautarum Index*; *Flora Akerocensis*; *Erica*; *Dulcamara*; *Pandora et Flora Rybyensis*; *Fundamenta Testaceologiæ*; *Respiratio Diætica*; *Fraga Vesica*; *Observationes in Materiam Medicam*; *Planta Cimicifuga*; *Esca Avium Domesticarum*; *Marum*; *Viola Ipecacuanha*; *Plantæ Surinamenses*; *Ledum Palustre*; *Opium*; *Bigæ Insectorum*; *Planta Aphyscia, et Hypericum*.

In this collection we find much to commend, and somewhat to blame. As many of the Dissertations were written long ago, new improvements have occurred which ought to have been pointed out, lest, under the authority of Linnæus, mistakes be widely disseminated. In the Dissertation on the plants of Surinam, the names are compared with the genera of the younger Linnæus, in his Supplement; and those plants, whose parts of fructification were not sufficiently perfect to allow of their being admitted into the Supplement, are properly noticed. Yet the ipecacuanha is still supposed to be a species of viola, though it is correctly described in the same work, and referred to another genus. The plant described by Vandelius, which led Linnæus into his mistake, is pretty clearly, from the figure of its root, a very different species. He had styled it *Pomballia*; and we fear the marquis de Pombal has, by this means, lost the opportunity of having his memory preserved among the botanists. Among the statesmen he was never entitled to much distinction. We could have wished also, for the reputation of Linnæus, that some of these Dissertations had been omitted. It is not for his credit to revive the theory of the *exanthemata viva*, nor to propagate the story of his being cured of a fit of the gout by eating strawberries. Most physicians know, that the paroxysm of a disorder is first perceived to yield by some degree of appetite returning,
and

and the food required is as various as are the fancies of patients;

We cannot give a long account of these volumes; yet a short explanation of the subjects may not be improper, as the titles are sometimes quaint and unintelligible. The *Coloniæ Plantarum* relate to the emigration of many plants from their native soil to other countries, where they at last appear among the indigenous vegetables: the origin of many of these is distinctly traced, as well as the means of their conveyance. It is, however, surprising, that the country where wheat was indigenous has not yet been discovered. Sicily has the fairest claim.

The second is a pathological disquisition on the six non-naturals, and the effects of inattention to the due degree in which they are necessary. The subject of the third is evident; it affords nothing new, except that the author attributes intermittents at sea to stinking water, and cures the tænia by a solution of lithantrax in spirit of wine. Åkerö is an island situated in a lake in Sudermania; its flora is not very remarkable.

The Dissertation on the *Erica*, contains Linnæus's arrangement of the species; little is added to its uses, and these are not important. The diseases on which the *dulcamara* is said to be useful, are numerous; while more modern practitioners find it inefficacious. It is certainly not so powerful a diuretic as has been supposed.

The seventh Dissertation contains a list of the flowers and the insects which they support, that occurred in a farm of Bäck's, called Ryby. *Pandora* is a collective term applied to insects, as *Flora* is to plants, and *Fauna* to animals. The *Fundamenta Testaceologie* is a very accurate and useful work. The advantage of free air, and the dangers which arise from close places and contaminated air, are well understood. Our author's Dissertation is chiefly valuable for the facts relating to the salubrity of different countries. The Essay on the strawberry we have already noticed; it is not only to cure gout, but to dissolve the calculus.

The observations on the *Materia Medica* contain an account of the effects of some remedies little known in this country. They point out also, with some probability, the genera, and species of others, whose origin is not very certain. The effects are rather those of tradition and report, than of reason and experience. The *Cimicifuga* (*Syst. Nat.* 1282) is a very foetid plant of the class *multifloræ*, where it stands near the *Delphinium*, *Aquilegia*, *Helleborus*, and *Astræa*. Except for drawing away the insects, from which its name is taken, we do not know that it has been used. Omelin indeed mentions, that in Siberia the natives employ it as an evacuant in dropsy; its effects are violently emetic and drastic. The food of domesticated birds is particularly pointed out in a series of experiments, resembling those which were made on the food of cattle, in a former volume of the *Amœnitates*, and which are translated and augmented by Mr. Stillingfleet. The Essay on the *Marum* (*Teucrium Marum* Linn.)

Lin.) is a pretty complete account of the botanical and medical history of the plant; it is a warm odorous bitter, but nothing is added concerning it to the relations of other authors. The Dissertation on the Ipecacuanha we have already mentioned.

The enumeration of the Surinam plants is somewhat anticipated by the Supplement of the younger Linnæus; but it is very complete, and rendered more valuable by a constant reference to that work. Of the *Gustavia Augusta*, a very beautiful flower of a noble tree, a good plate is annexed; and we may now observe, that the plates of these two additional volumes, which are pretty numerous, are much better executed than those of the former volumes.

The *Ledum Palustre* is a warm foetid plant; its æconomical uses are numerous; its medical ones are chiefly for external diseases: and it is in this Essay that Linnæus seems eager to recommend it internally, in those complaints which are supposed to proceed from insects, particularly in dysentery. We meet with the same hypothesis in the Essay on Opium, but no new information is added relative to its effects or its use. *Bigæ Insectorum* means only a pair of insects: two new ones are described which were found in the collection of Dr. Fothergill; the first is termed the *Dioplis Ichneumonia*, the other *Paupus Microcephalus*; the one is dipterous, the other coleopterous. The *Aphyteia* is a parasite plant, found at the Cape of Good Hope, by Thunberg; it is without leaves, and described, as the editor *should* have told us, in the *Supplementum Plantarum* p. p. 48 and 301. There is only one species, the *A. Hydнора*. The *Hypericum*, with its different species, is described; but the best part of it is that in which we are informed it will cure the phthisis: a handful is to be boiled in two quarts of Spanish wine till half is consumed, and a dose is to be taken morning and afternoon.

Of the Dissertations in the second volume we shall only transcribe the titles, because Linnæus contributed little, if any thing, to them, and because they are not of sufficient importance on their own account to induce us to enlarge on them. *Hæmorrhagiæ uteri sub statu Graviditatis*; *Methodus investigandi vires Medicamentorum chemica*; *Confectaria Electrico-medica*; *Pulsus Intermittens*; *Cortex Peruvianus*; *Ambrosiaca*; *Hæmoptysis*; *Venæ resorbentes*; *Febrium Intermittentium curatio varia*; *Hæmorrhagiæ ex Plethora*; *Suturæ vulnerum*; *Medicamenta purgantia*; *Perspiratio insensibilis*; *Canones Medici*; & *Scorbutus*.

Yet, before we entirely leave this volume, we must except the Dissertation on the various remedies of intermittents from the general censure. It is an extensive and laborious compilation; and, in the greater number of the Essays in the last volume, if we do not find the extent of original information, and the curious remarks which distinguished those whose materials were furnished by Linnæus, yet these defects are compensated by a degree of medical erudition, which is honourable to the young candidate,

candidate, and may be of service to the reader. If it be observed that in this volume we find Linnæus had given up the theory of intermittent fevers, published in the first volume of the *Amœnitates*, we must reply, that the same information may be found in the fifth and sixth, in the *Dissertations on the Febris Upsalienfis*, and the *Quassia*. His new opinion is not indeed better founded; and the absorption of an acid from the air will prove a system equally untenable with the accumulation of argillaceous earth through the medium of water.

A very useful Chronological Index of all the *Dissertations* published during the period when Linnæus presided at Upsal, and contained in these nine volumes, is subjoined.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

D I V I N I T Y.

Two Sermons. By J. Lettice, B. D. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

MR. Lettice has engaged with two powerful antagonists, the idolater of the Graces, and the author of the *Task*; but his native force of mind would have enabled him to contend with success, if the strength of the ground had not given him peculiar advantages.

The first sermon is on the kind of manners most suitable to the clerical character, and an enquiry how far ministers of the Gospel may use this world without abusing it. In this examination he makes a forcible and pertinent distinction between the knowledge of man and the knowledge of the ways of men; between an acquaintance with the human mind, and the conduct of the world, in most instances the worst part of the world. He contrasts, with great skill, the good-humoured complaisance dictated by benevolence, and guided by morality, with the artificial and corrupt manners, the tinsel of politeness, recommended by lord Chesterfield.

In the second sermon, he defends the conduct of education in our universities against the gloomy and too unqualified satire of Mr. Cooper. Yet, different minds looking at the same object will select parts of it suited to their various dispositions: each may be correct, because each describes what he saw; and each may misrepresent, because he only describes in part. Mr. Lettice is, however, an able advocate; and we are happy to reflect that such a pleasing view of the subject has the sanction of an eye-witness.

A Sermon. By Edward Parry. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes.

This Sermon, founded on the parable of the good Samaritan, is published for the benefit of the Chester infirmary. It is an elegant and judicious discourse; but we were sorry to perceive our author stepping out of his way, with some zealous

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commentators; to see him look on the good Samaritan as our Saviour, and explain his labour of benevolence and humanity, by the redemption of mankind. This interpretation, however, does not detain the preacher long from his principal object.

A Sermon preached on the 22d of August, 1787, at the Ordination of the Rev. John Love, Minister of the Gospel at Crispin Street, Spitalfields, by the Rev. Thomas Rutledge. To which is added the Charge, by the Rev. William Smith, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Elliot.

The exercises, at an ordination, are often tasks undertaken unwillingly, and executed hastily: at least we know no other reason for the imperfect state in which we have often found them. Mr. Rutledge and Mr. Smith seem to have been drawn into public against their inclination; but their works will bring no disgrace on their characters. If we cannot praise their compositions, as highly polished, and peculiarly elegant, we can, with truth say, that they are clear, religious, and practical.

P O E T R Y.

Mont Blanc: an irregular Lyric Poem. By the Rev. T. S. Whalley. 4to. 3s. Baldwin.

This Pindaric composition is not destitute of poetic fire; but the light is neither steady nor clear. It is sometimes veiled in smoke, sometimes suddenly blazes like a meteor, and renders us more sensible of the obscurity which surrounds it. Many images in it are well chosen; but we meet with few passages of any length that are unexceptionable. The following is no unfavourable extract. The third line alludes to the summit of Mont Blanc; which, as we have observed in plain prose already, is broken into three distinct heads; and the immense quantity of snow which covers it is supported by rocks of granite, which, when the moon shines clear, form the beautiful representation depicted towards the conclusion.

‘ When night assumes her awful reign,
And solemn shades obscure the plain,
How graceful then thy domes arise,
Imperial mountain! to the skies,
And their eternal vigils keep
Over the silent realms of sleep!
All hush’d about thy throne sublime,
Save the soft-treading foot of Time,
Beneath whose endless pressure, fall
The noblest cities’ tow’ry pride,
The hills, the mountains, rocks, and all
That art or nature e’er supplied;
All, all, but thee; for still thy state
Defies the tyrant’s envious hate,
And still thy regal pomp appears
Unblemish’d by the weight of years

Since change and fickle chance are seen
 Heaping new honours on thy *snows*,
 And countless ages sit serene,
 Amidst the splendor of thy *brows*.
 She breaks! How sweet her trembling light
 Silvers the sable stole of night?
 Oh! Luna, let thy fairest face
 The mountain's gloomy grandeur grace!
 Ride onwards, while from either side
 Thy bright'ning path the clouds divide,
 And pausing full upon his *brow*,
 Suffuse thy lustre o'er his *snow*!
 Gild the dark fleeces curling hung,
 About his breast, his domes among,
 And beam o'er all his rocks below!
 His rocks sublime, whose varied gold
 Has borne on high, for years untold,
 The massy silver of his pond'rous throne,
 And stood unmov'd, and still shall stand,
 Through many a wreck of many a land,
 Marking a thousand scenes to mortal eyes unknown.*

The ideas suggested in the preceding passage are strikingly sublime, but their effect is somewhat diminished by amplification. The author's judgment is, indeed, inferior to his genius. He pursues his thoughts too far, and is too profuse of ornament. The cadence of the verses is, in general, harmonious; and the rhymes, with very few exceptions, correct. Those marked in Italics are used by our best writers, but they are introduced too frequently: 'view' and 'shew' are more exceptionable. Mr. Whalley, surely, need not be informed, that the latter is pronounced 'show,' and we cannot see why it should not always be spelt in that manner.

Reflections on the English common Version of the Scriptures, and on the Necessity of its being revised by Authority. 4to. 1s. White.

The intent of this little performance, which displays evident marks of genius and learning, is sufficiently specified by the title. We entirely concur with the author in his sentiments; and wish he had treated the subject in a more copious manner.

Derwent. An Ode. 6d. Longman.

Some passages in this poem, in which the author recalls past scenes on the banks of the Derwent, where he spent his younger days, and describes the manners and amusements of the old inhabitants, are picturesque and entertaining. In others he expresses himself in a very peculiar style.

'When thy Hyads impetuously pour'd
 A deluge from ev'ry hill,
 The dams by thy torrents devour'd
 The miller aghast in his mill:

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Thy rage did but temper the air;
 Far distant the mildew of health,
 Where guilt vainly decorates care
 Disdaining the gewgaws of wealth.
 Fine houses, fine coaches, fine wives,
 Genealogies bought by the yard!
 Why forfeit the peace of your lives,
 Ye wretches, for such a reward!

One would be almost apt to suspect that the author derived his inspiration from a different liquor than that which flows from the fountain of Helicon.

Poems and Translations. By the Rev. W. Beloe. 8vo. 5s. 2ⁿ Boards. Johnson.

Of this gentleman's translation of Coluthus, which is here reprinted, we gave some account in our sixty second Vol. p. 150. The other poems consist chiefly of elegies, songs, sonnets, and translations from Greek and Latin authors. Among the latter, we have the version of a little Latin poem, written in the manner of Catullus. Its neatness of expression, and novelty of thought towards the conclusion, will please the classical reader. The thought alluded to, however, is inadequately rendered in the translation.

'In the same tomb we'll sink to rest,
 Beyond all human being's blest.'

These lines are entirely destitute of the force and spirit which marks the original.

'Sic nos *confociabimur* sepulti,
 Et *vivis* erimus beatiore.'

We have no objection to the other lines; they will serve as a short specimen of the performance, which seldom reaches to excellence, or sinks beneath mediocrity.

'Occidit mea chara Pancharilla,
 Occidit mea lux meumque fidus.
 Et nunc per vacuas domos silentum,
 Comes pallidulis vagatur umbris—
 Sed charam sequar: arboreſque ut alta,
 Sub tellure ſuos agunt amores,
 Et radicibus implicantur imis,
 Sic nos *confociabimur* ſepulti,
 Et *vivis* erimus beatiore—

IN ENGLISH.

My Pancharilla breathes no more,
 My light, my ſtar of life, is loſt;
 And now upon the Stygian ſhore,
 With many a pale and airy gholt
 She melancholy ſleets along,
 Companion of the ſilent throng.
 But I will haſten to my love,
 And as the trees, whoſe roots profound,
 Their ſympathetic fibres move,
 In cloſeſt union to be bound,

In the same tomb we'll sink to rest,
Beyond all human beings blest.'

The Controversiad; an Epistle to a learned Friend. 8vo. 1s. 6d.
Stalker.

While we possess opinions of our own, we are not conscious of ever attempting to set them up as the standard of rectitude, or depreciating the works of authors in proportion as they differ from us: we give to each their due of praise, and mention, with our reasons, in what they appear to be mistaken. In more than one respect, we differ from the author before us, yet there is so much shrewdness in his manner and his remarks,—there is such a degree of candour, with perhaps one or at most two exceptions in his satire, that we have read his account of the controversy with much pleasure. Indeed, he owns that he is biassed on one side; and perhaps every one who has read much that has been published on the disputes, will feel a bias; so that he is most impartial who is best aware of the influence of his prejudices. While authors are pleasant and good-humoured, we do not disapprove of controversy.

N O V E L S.

Fatal Follies; or the History of the Countess of Stanmore. 4 Vols.
12mo. 10s. sewed. Robinsons.

The follies of Lady Stanmore were, indeed, fatal; and we can scarcely regret her misfortunes, when we reflect on their source, an attachment to fashion and splendour, with little regard to the more serious and domestic duties. The other characters of this novel are drawn with an equally faithful pencil; but the colours are more pleasing. In short, without any great novelty of sentiment or character, these volumes are interesting and entertaining. The author is well acquainted with the human heart: he is acquainted too with the several places where his scenes are laid, and with the manners of their inhabitants. Our young ladies may learn, from this novel, something besides an ah! and an oh!—these delightful decorations of a female correspondence.

Retribution. By the Author of the Gamesters. 3 Vols. 12mo.
7s. 6d. Robinsons.

This author's genius is superior to his art, and his knowledge of the human mind more conspicuous than his invention. His story is managed with very little address; and the frequent changes, the reference to the adventures of the other personages of the novel, weaken the feelings, and destroy the interest. Besides, when we look at Grubbe, we cannot help recollecting Brantton;—when we hear the speeches of Bray we refer to Briggs;—nor can Lady Anne Prescott appear to advantage by the side of the equally dignified, and the more amiable Mrs. Desvile; Patty and Cecilia, Mrs. Prescott and Harrel, are also counter-parts. Such were our feelings on reading this novel; yet, on the whole, it possesses considerable merit. The various

scenes in which Prescott appears, are worked up with singular pathos: we feel for the amiable, the tender Patty; and admire as well as pity the generous, the infatuated colonel Prescott.

Agitation; or Memoirs of George Woodford and Lady Emma Melville. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Barker.

This lady, 'content to dwell in decencies for ever,' deserves no 'ill-natured sarcasms.'—Like her former works, this novel, if it raise no admiration, will escape contempt; and, to conclude in her own manner,—may never any novellist hold up worse examples, or inculcate less salutary lessons, than we find in the Memoirs of George Woodford and Lady Emma Melville!

The Effects of the Passions, or Memoirs of Florincourt. From the French. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Vernor.

There is some novelty, and somewhat interesting, in the adventures of Florincourt, and the fatal end of Julia. The story of Varueil also, though improbable, is varied by numerous and uncommon events, and related in a manner which does credit to the sensibility and the spirit of the author. There is, however, no considerable merit in the whole; and the work can only appear in a very advantageous light, when placed near the miserable trash which we have received under the title of Novels.

The West-Indian; or the Memoirs of Frederick Charlton. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Axtell.

There is too great similarity in this story to the Adventures of Roderick Random, and his Narcissa; yet there is some dexterity in the manner of dishing up the repast before us; and the first morsel is not wholly unpalatable. The author began with mince-pyes, and we invert the feast, by concluding with a fricassée. As he has thought fit to bribe us by a promise of his pyes, we shall conclude our character of the work in the manner which he has prescribed, and 'wish that the author's success may be adequate to his merits.' We hope we shall not forfeit our right to the invitation, when we add, as impartiality directs, that these merits are not very striking or considerable;—that the conclusion is lame and impotent,—and these little volumes require, at last, the addition of a trifling farce, to supply the vacuity of a meagre story.

The Adventures of Jonathan Corncob, Loyal American Refugee, Written by himself. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

Harkee, Mr. Jonathan Corncob! leave your indecorums, and preserve your genuine humour, unpolluted by improper language, or indecent descriptions. If you do so, we shall receive you with pleasure, as a relation at least, if not a descendant, of the facetious Yorick: otherwise we shall consign your future volumes to the oblivion which they will merit.

Phæbe; or Distressed Innocence. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Stalker.

The reader, who can pursue the adventures of Phæbe in this strange

strange and intricate contexture of events, must be capable of much patient attention; and, for those who can employ the necessary time in the enquiry, we anxiously wish a better employment. After much care, and a scrupulous examination, we gave up the cause as hopeless: of course, we cannot decide on the probability of the narrative. Every thing is designed, as Bayes says, to elevate and surprize.

P O L I T I C A L.

Animadversions on the Political Part, of the Preface to Bellendenus.
8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

We have already given our opinion on the political nature of this celebrated Preface, and regretted that so much pains should have been bestowed in vain, on a temporary and disputed subject. The animadvertor, also, displays abilities worthy of a better cause; for the meteors of the day are already sunk in obscurity: in short, both the Preface and the Animadversions, we may style, in the language of our present author, a 'melancholy perversion of splendid talents.'—In this work there is much severe and poignant reprehensions of the heroes of the Preface, and no bluntness sarcasms on its author. We have seldom seen arrows pointed with a better aim; and we are sorry that they must waste their force in the air. The political and classical antagonists of our present author are beyond their reach.

As the title imports, the chief attack is directed against the politics of the Preface:—the short allusions to the Latin weapons, which were wielded with true classic force, are very successful. We shall transcribe a short passage, as a specimen of our author's abilities.

'The editor's arguments against the commercial treaty are selected, with his usual felicity, from the Greek poets. It has been frequently said that there never existed a religious error, however absurd and impious, that numerous adopters have not attempted to establish, and in their own opinions successfully, on the divine sanction of Scripture. It supposes, however, some consistency even in the wildest zealots, to have recourse for authority, where alone sufficient authority could be found. It remained for the learned Prefacer to extract his *tertium quid* from a mixture, the most heterogeneous that ever entered the imagination;—to prove, by quotations from ancient poetry, the specific evils of modern policy; to shew our treaty with France highly injurious from the testimony of Aristophanes; the insufficiency of the Irish propositions by the evidence of Homer; or the evil tendency of a rupture with Portugal on the weighty attestation of the Orphic verses.—These are resources peculiar to learning. Plain, unlettered men must be satisfied with national history, and the evidence of the times.'

Letters on the Slave Trade. By Thomas Cooper, Esq. Small 8vo.
Supplement to Mr. Cooper's Letters on the Slave Trade. Small 8vo.

These little tracts are circulated gratis; and though we commend

mend the humanity of the design, we cannot approve of accumulating every shocking fact that is calculated to impress the reader with a belief that treatment of this kind is common. Mrs. Brownrig, and some others of the same infamous description, have cruelly used their apprentices, and, in the same way, it might be proved that every apprentice is treated with unheard-of barbarity. We believe, in a moral view, it would not be allowed to misrepresent facts, whatever benefit may be derived from the misrepresentation. Mr. Cooper, however, collects only from different authors; and, if he misleads the reader, it is by enumerating occasional cruelties in such a manner as to induce him to think they are frequent and common. The description of the means of procuring slaves is undoubtedly correct.

The Supplement consists of detached facts, compiled from different authors, relating to the numbers of slaves in the West India islands, and some parts of the continent, where African slaves are imported: 500,000 either killed in war, or exported as captives, are, our author thinks, annually lost to Africa, yet, from the state of population, and various causes which influence it, Africa might bear that annual loss four times told, without a diminution of the existing stock. The total number which have been imported from Africa, is calculated at fifty millions, at least; and, by the deaths previous to the importation, the loss in war, &c. Africa has lost five times as many in this destructive trade.

Thoughts upon the African Slave Trade. By John Newton, 8vo, 1s. Buckland.

Mr. Newton, though at present a minister of the Gospel, was once engaged in the slave-trade as mate, and as captain of a Guinea ship. He gives a very candid, and apparently dispassionate account of the cruelties necessarily attending this infamous species of traffic, without aiming at exaggerations to fill up the measure of horror. We shall select one fact respecting the loss of seamen on the coast, and another to correct the misrepresentations of some authors who have treated of the manners of the Africans.

‘How far the several causes I have enumerated, may respectively operate, I cannot say: the fact, however, is sure, that a great number of our seamen perish in the slave trade. Few ships, comparatively, are either blown up, or totally cut off, but some are. Of the rest, I have known some that have lost half their people, and some a larger proportion. I am far from saying, that it is always, or even often, thus; but, I believe, I shall state the matter sufficiently low, if I suppose that, at least, one fifth part of those who go from England to the coast of Africa, in ships which trade for slaves, never return from thence. I dare not depend too much upon my memory, as to the number of ships and men employed in the slave trade more than thirty years ago; nor do I know what has been the state

• of

of the trade since; therefore I shall not attempt to make calculations. But, as I cannot but form some opinion on the subject, I judge it probable, that the collective sum of seamen, who go from all our ports to Africa within the course of a year, (taking Guinea in the extensive sense, from Goree or Gambia, and including the coast of Angola,) cannot be less than eight thousand; and if, upon an average of ships and seasons, a fifth part of these die, the annual loss is fifteen hundred. I believe those who have taken pains to make more exact enquiries, will deem my supposition to be very moderate.'—

'I have often been gravely told, as a proof that the Africans, however hardly treated, deserve but little compassion, that they are a people so destitute of natural affection, that it is common among them for parents to sell their children, and children their parents. And, I think, a charge of this kind is brought against them by the respectable author of *Spectacle de la Nature*. But he must have been misinformed. I never heard of one instance of either while I used the coast.'

Much information may be derived from these Thoughts, and we would strongly recommend them to the public attention. They will convince every one, that the farther importation of Africans should be stopped, from every consideration; and so far only, as we have already observed, it will be probably found expedient for the legislature to proceed at present.

A Letter to Philip Francis, Esq. from the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, Esq. With Remarks. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This Letter is written in consequence of one which appeared lately in the *Morning Herald*, addressed to Mr. Francis, and subscribed with the names of the members of the committee for managing the impeachment of Mr. Hastings. In that Letter the committee expressed the greatest respect for Mr. Francis, from the opinion they entertained of his public conduct during his residence in the East Indies, and declared a desire of resorting to his assistance in the affair of the impeachment. The author of the present Letter reprobates, with indignation, such a public avowal of their design, after Mr. Francis had been prohibited by the house of commons from any share in conducting the impeachment; and he draws such a picture of that gentleman's conduct in the East Indies, as seems totally irreconcilable with the character ascribed to him by the committee. The author's remarks are sullied with a degree of petulance, but intermixed with strong expostulation.

Minutes of Warren Hastings, and Philip Francis, Esqrs. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

These Minutes contain the substance of the transactions in council at Bengal, relative to the differences between the gentlemen mentioned in the title. Whatever be the motive for their publication, they doubtless justify the conduct of the house of commons, in not permitting Mr. Francis to be a member

member of the committee for managing the impeachment of Mr. Hastings; and indeed, upon the principle of candour, Mr. Francis might rather be satisfied than displeased at the exclusion.

The Answer of Warren Hastings, Esq. to the Articles exhibited by the Commons in Maintenance of their Impeachment against him, 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Stockdale.

This pamphlet is said to contain Mr. Hastings's answer to the different articles of impeachment against him, delivered at the bar of the house of peers, on Wednesday, Nov. 28, 1787. Mr. Hastings replies to each article separately; and concludes with a general exculpation of himself from the charges which have been brought against him.

A Second Letter from Mr. Pigott to the Right Hon. William Pitt. 4to. 4s. 6d. Ridgway.

Mr. Pigott's former letter was noticed in our Review for April, 1787. He now reproaches the minister for his inattention to that epistle; but proceeds to deliver his sentiments in the same strain as before, on other political subjects; and we have not the least doubt with the same success. His former letter was dated from Hieres, in Provence; but the present from Pent, near Geneva.

Defence of the Statute passed in the forty-third Year of Elizabeth, concerning the Employment and Relief of the Poor; with Proposals for enforcing it. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The author of this pamphlet urges many sensible observations, recommending a farther trial of the statute above mentioned, as well as of other subsequent statutes respecting the employment and relief of the poor, with more coercive means of enforcing a due observance of them. It has been repeatedly affirmed by many who have written on the subject, and the fact is unquestionable, that the evils so loudly complained of relative to the poor, might be, in a great measure, if not entirely, remedied, by a proper execution of the laws now existing for that purpose.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Thoughts on the Importance of the Manners of the Great to general Society. Small 8vo. 2s. Cadell.

This very respectable author professes himself 'neither an old man, a clergyman, or a Methodist,' and wishes to rise above the imputation of 'moroseness, self-interest, or enthusiasm.' He points out those errors, for they are scarcely vices, which result in the most serious minds from inattention, and taint the conduct even of the best informed, with a stain little suitable to that purity which should peculiarly distinguish the followers of Christ. The indecorum in the conduct of the great, with respect to the observance of Sunday; the applause which brilliant, rather than religious, or just sentiments, receive in public; with some similar errors, are the subject of his animadversion. On these subjects,

subjects, his style is serious and severe; sometimes pointed and indignant; but, in every instance, as neat as his sentiments are just. On the whole, we have read his exhortation with great pleasure, and earnestly recommend it to those for whom it is intended.—We shall conclude our article with a short specimen.

‘When the general texture of an irregular life is spangled over with some constitutional pleasing qualities; when gaiety, good humour, and a thoughtless profusion of expence throw a lustre round the faultiest characters; it is no wonder that common observers are blinded into admiration: a profuse generosity dazzles them more than all the duties of the Decalogue. But though it may be a very useful quality towards securing the election of a borough, it will contribute but little towards making sure the calling and election to the kingdom of heaven. It is somewhat strange that extravagance should be the great criterion of goodness with those very people who are themselves the victims to this idol; for the prodigal pays no debts if he can help it: and it is notorious, that in one of the wittiest and most popular comedies which this country has ever produced, those very passages which exalt liberality at the expence of justice, were nightly applauded with enthusiastic rapture by those deluded tradesmen, whom, perhaps, that very sentiment helped to keep out of their money.’

A Letter to the Caput of the University of Cambridge on the Rejection of the Grace for Abolishing Subscription. By a Member of the Senate. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

A grace for the removal of subscription to the usual form at the time of taking the degree of bachelor of arts, was presented to the caput in December last, by the rev. Dr. Edwards, and rejected. In this Letter the author expostulates with the caput, in strong terms, on this silent rejection, without their having given a reason for their conduct. His expostulation is warm and manly; but

‘Non nostrum est tantas componere lites.’

We must imitate the silence of the caput, which, in these innovating times, we think, at least, prudent.

The Parental Monitor. By Mrs. Bonhote. 2 Vols, 12mo. 12s. Lane.

These elegant little volumes, the productions of anxious maternal tenderness, are properly taken from the secluded circle, for which they were originally designed, and given to the world. We have looked over them with some care, without finding any thing to reprehend either in the language or the observations. The former is neat and perspicuous, without a laboured refinement; the latter are pointed, useful, and strictly moral. The Monitor consists of select essays, which are rather rules of conduct, artfully connected under the form of general observations; of poetry of various kinds; of fables and adventures. Some of these are the works of other authors; and Mrs. Bonhote's list is a very

very carefully selected one. The subjects are so miscellaneous, that we cannot even transcribe the table of contents; and perhaps a short specimen of the neatness of our author's language, and the sound good-sense of her precepts, will be of more consequence. We shall select her advice to young ladies on the important subject of marriage, because we have not been able to find any other passage of equal utility, that can be with so little injury separated from the rest of the essay.

Did young people seriously consider the important change which marriage must necessarily produce in their situation, how much more cautious would it make them in forming their choice of a companion for life? Alas! what avail the graces of the finest figure, the most captivating address, the assemblage of all that is ensnaring, if the heart is depraved, or the conduct imprudent! The gayest associate of the convivial hour may be the dullest, the most unfit companion for the domestic circle; and he, who is never satisfied but in a crowd, or when engaged in a continued round of pleasure, is very unlikely to make a tender and prudent husband. Should sickness or distress draw near, depend upon it he will fly from their approach. If beauty alone excited his passion, it will cease to exist when you are deprived of those attractions on which it was founded. If fortune was his inducement, that will likewise soon lose its value in his fordid mind; and the very person who brought him the wealth for which he sighed, will be considered as the grand obstacle to its enjoyment. Too often is this unpleasant picture to be seen in many discontented families, which a little serious reflection might have prevented being so unfortunately realized. Never be prevailed upon to yield your hearts to any one, however he may shine in the gay circles of the world, if you are convinced that he has no relish for the enjoyments of retired life. The man who likes every house better than his own, will scarcely take the trouble of making home agreeable to others, whilst it is disgusting to himself. It will be the only place in which he will give way to his discontent and ill humour. Such people are for ever strangers to the dear delights of the social state, and all the real comforts of a well regulated family. He that is indiscriminately at home is never at home, and he feels himself a stranger or a visitor amidst his closest connexions.

Elements of Universal History, for Youth. By J. A. L. Montrieux. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Marsh.

This is the Iliad in a nutshell; and the work is too concise to admit of its being, in any great degree, useful. We do not object to the execution, since the narratives which occur are perspicuous, and the few facts which are mentioned, sufficiently correct. The plan is, however, too vast; and no abilities could have filled up so extensive an outline in such a small bulk, as to have given satisfactory information on any particular part.

The

The ancient geography can only be understood, under the guidance of an instructor, assisted by good maps.

The Children's Friend. Translated by the rev. Mark Anthony Meilan, from the French of M. Berquin. 24 Vols. 16mo. 12s. sewed. Bew.

L'Ami des Enfans of M. Berquin, merits every commendation that is due to a work happily calculated for the instruction and entertainment of young minds. It instills the precepts of morality in the most agreeable manner; and while it informs the understanding, it improves the heart in the cultivation of those tender affections which are favourable to virtue. The author of the present translation evinces his own judgment, in endeavouring to extend the usefulness of so valuable a work; but we wish Mr. Meilan had reflected more deliberately, that, as a foreigner, the success of his attempt, in rendering it into English, was an extremely precarious event. His acquaintance with the idioms and manners of this country appears to be as yet too imperfect for such an undertaking. The work is therefore disfigured with numerous improprieties; though some parts of it are executed with a degree of accuracy surpassing what could be expected from any author that laboured under such a disadvantage.

Favourite Tales. Translated from the French. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

These Tales are in the style of Voltaire; and *Imirce*, we remember, at the time of publication, was attributed to the late King of Prussia. We wish they had remained in their original state, for indecorum and infidelity can never be pleasing. The Tale, in imitation of Sterne, is only a new combination of Sterne's images and situations.

Fairy Tales, selected from the best Authors. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

The only merit of a collection must arise from the judgment with which it is chosen; but what judgment can appear in a compilation, where, to be pleased at all, must be the exercise of fancy alone? We remember, in these Tales, some of the companions of our nursery, when pleasure was cheaply bought by novelty. We then were pleased with them, and our readers must accept of a decision at an age which alone can decide on these subjects.

The Ground-work of the Grammar of the French Language. By Jean Jacques D'Etrouville. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

M. d'Etrouville begins with the verbs, as confessedly the most difficult, and in reality, the most important part of the French language. Though this is a solecism in grammar, we see but one considerable objection to it, which is the necessity of employing pronouns before the learner knows what they are. Our author is more reprehensible in increasing the number of his conjugations to twelve; which embarrasses, and add new difficulties.

ties to the trouble of learning. In other respects, he seems to be sufficiently accurate; for minute errors, either in the preface, or the conduct of the work, we would not fastidiously point out. In short, whatever may be the other merits of his Grammar, it is not calculated to expedite the progress of the learner.

The Complete System of the French Language. By Nicholas Salmon. 8vo. 5s. 6d. in Boards. Kearsley.

The 'Footstep' * was so steep, that we despaired of reaching the top of the ladder: the Complete System has, however, proved so instructing, that we do not repent the labour employed in attaining it. Much accurate information on the nature and the genius of the French language, from the best authors, may be obtained from it, though nothing can be farther distant from a grammar, or more unfit, from its extent and form, for the purposes of tuition, except probably in the hands of the author.

It is a general fault in almost every author of a grammar, that he aims at too much. Even Chambaud's work, the best elementary French grammar that we have yet seen, is too diffuse. In the rudiments, general rules only should be taught; the exceptions may be best learned, and most securely fixed on the mind, by reading, when a stock of words, the most difficult part of every language, is at the same time procured. This error is not, however, peculiar to the French masters. In the Latin schools, some years are spent in learning general rules and exceptions; but more are required to apply them, and point out the connection between Lilly or Ruddiman, and Cicero or Cæsar.

The Pronunciation and Orthography of the French Language rendered perfectly Easy. By John Murdoch. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Forster.

It is with the judgment of French masters as with their watches,

————— 'None'

Go just alike, yet each believes his own.'

We see, however, no very peculiar merit in this work, or any reason to suppose that the best rules will supersede the necessity of a master.

A vocabulary of words which resemble each other in sound, a collection of exercises, and some pieces of prose and verse, are subjoined, with remarks on French versification.

Midsummer Holydays. Written for the Improvement and Entertainment of young Folk. 12mo. 1s. half-bound. Marshall.

Propriety of behaviour, and a delicacy of manners, may be properly learned from this little story: on the whole, we greatly approve of it. The language is also, in general, neat and correct; yet the following paragraph is highly reprehensible for its inelegance.

* See our account of the Footstep in our last Vol. p. 359.

‘ But the pleasure of having done *one's* duty, answered *one's* own expectations, and those of *one's* friends, and being able to give *oneself* a proof of *one's* industry by something *one* has worked, or written, or learned, makes a person brisk and lively, and ready for any innocent diversion ; though I think, as *one* grows older, *one* takes less pleasure in those diversions that do not turn to something useful.

The author does not often offend in this way ; but we may observe, that the sentences are too long for the younger readers.

The Contrast. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Cadell.

This narrative exhibits the opposite consequences of good and evil habits, in the lowest ranks of rural life. It is avowedly written for the benefit of servants, and the best proficients in Sunday schools. It is evidently well calculated for the purpose, and, as such, deserves our recommendation.

A short Account of the late Dr. John Parsons, Professor of Anatomy at Oxford ; Dr. Richard Huck Saunders, of London ; Dr. Charles Collignon, Professor of Anatomy at Cambridge ; and Sir Alexander Dick, of Belfordfield. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This biographical account is extracted from the tenth volume of the Edinburgh Medical Commentaries, and bears the appearance of authenticity.

Political Miscellanies. Part I. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway.

Among these miscellanies we meet with several antiministerial election squibs, thrown out among the populace during the last contest for Westminster ; with other occasional productions of the same kind, which appeared within these few years. The pieces most distinguished for humour, however, are the ‘ Probationary Ode extraordinary, by the rev. W. Mason, M. A.’ and ‘ the Statesman, an eclogue.’

Memoirs of Mr. Henry Masers de la Tude. Written by himself. Translated from the French. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

This gentleman, for a youthful frolic and a jest against the marchioness de Pompadour, was committed to the Bastille, and afterwards to the castle of Vincennes. He made his escape from both ; but being retaken, was again committed prisoner, and suffered, in the whole, a confinement of thirty-five years. The extraordinary manner in which he and his companion effected their escape from the Bastille in particular, affords such an example of ingenious contrivance, unremitting perseverance, and heroic resolution, as probably never was surpassed by any preceding adventurer.—Happy Englishmen ! read this narrative, and hug to your glowing bosoms your Great Charter, with its offspring, the Habeas Corpus act. Amidst all your political contests, regard, with a watchful jealousy, the slightest infringement on those glorious bulwarks of freedom.

Memoirs

Memoirs of Henry Mafers de Latude. Written by himself. 12mo.
3s. Robson and Clarke.

The chief circumstance in which this translation differs from the preceding, is, that it is printed in a larger letter.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are informed by the translator of the Preface to *Bellen-denus*, that the translation was begun and completed without the knowledge or the communication of the author. We readily publish this declaration, in compliance with his request, especially as our opinion seems to have been pretty generally followed. We need not apologise to the translator for a mistake so favourable to his abilities.

In our review of Mr. Pearson's Sermon, we did not allude to any absolute mistakes, but to some points which had been controverted, and which we wished to have had a better opportunity of discussing, than the review of a sermon would allow. The whole performance was so much to his credit, that we should have thought him an author worthy of our particular regard, and consequently should have pointed out any opinion which we had thought ill-founded, or any position which had appeared reprehensible.

The Animadversion on the Accentuation of *Æneas*, in the *Scripture Lexicon*, arises from our own mistake. The person meant was not the *Αἰνίας* of Homer; but the *Αἰνίας* mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles.

We would, with pleasure, oblige our correspondent *Rusticola* with some information relating to the new *Nomenclatura Chemica*, in our foreign department, though we have no reason to suppose that the terms will be generally adopted in this country. But his request is now superseded by a translation of the French work; and it must, of course, be examined as an English publication. We purpose also, in our account of it, to consider the objections and the answers which have been published on the continent. Our correspondent is misinformed, when he asserts that the names of the three alkalies, in the new *Pharmacopeia*, are to be the same as in the new *Nomenclature*. We have some reason to suppose that they will be *KALI*, *NATRON*, and *AMMONIÆ*. It has not, we find, escaped this intelligent chemist, that by the royal authority not only the *Formulae*, but the language of that *Pharmacopeia*, is ordered to be rigorously observed.



THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For MARCH, 1788.

Archæologia: or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. VIII. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Sheets. White.

THIS volume of antiquarian discussions is, in various respects, valuable and important; many curious facts of antiquity are collected, and many appearances satisfactorily explained.—In a doubtful path, we may have chosen different routes; so that, though we may sometimes differ from the authors before us, yet we would not insist, with great pertinacity, on opinions which must necessarily have an insecure foundation. The conjectures of the antiquary are always liable to error.

Article I. A Sketch of the Asylum or Sanctuary, from its Origin to the final Abolition of it in the Reign of James I. By the rev. Samuel Pegge.—This is a very able history of the right of sanctuary which different places possessed. Mr. Pegge traces it from the time of the Israelites' arrival in the land of promise, and attributes its first institution to Moses. The immunity was undoubtedly not patriarchal, for this obvious reason, that it is connected with a fixed establishment; and the establishment which, in the age of the patriarchs, was most secure, still remained liable to many causes of disturbance, and the inhabitants to various changes of situation. We are, for a similar reason, led to suspect that it was in some degree connected with the Druidical institutions, though in a very different form, and connived at, rather than authorised. That part, however, of the dissertation, which relates to the earlier eras of its establishment in Britain, deserves to be selected.

Druidism is thought by many to be derived, though not without perversions and corruptions, from the patriarchal religion; but then of this, the rite of sanctuary was no part. Groves and trees were anciently very venerable and sacred things, not only as places of worship, but also as themselves objects of adoration among idolatrous nations. Mr. Evelyn
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also has shown, that such trees actually obtained an immunity, and grew to be asyla amongst them; but that this was any practice of the Druids does not at present appear; indeed, we hear nothing of sanctuary of any kind in Wales, till long after the introduction of Christianity into that country. Jeffrey of Monmouth, tells us, that Dunwallo Molmutius, who reigned near five hundred years before Christ, at a time when Druidism was the prevailing religion, "established those which the Britains call the Molmutine laws, famous among the English to this day. In these, among other things, he enacted, that the temples of the gods, as also cities, should have the privilege of giving sanctuary and protection to any fugitive or criminal that should fly to them from his enemy. He likewise enacted, that the ways leading to those temples and cities, as also the husbandman's plows, should be allowed the same privilege." When Jeffrey, I say, writes thus, one cannot possibly give him credit. I am one amongst those who think Jeffrey not to have been the author of the British History, but only the translator, and perhaps the interpolator of it; but as to this famous passage, though many later authors, I observe, have received it without scruple, it appears to me to be perfectly inadmissible. The Britains, in my apprehension, ploughed little, and had no cities at that æra. But did not Brute, it may be alledged, come from Troy, where Juno had an asylum? I reply, that the arrival of Brute in this island is itself very disputable, as resting solely on the suspicious credit of the British history; and as to Juno's asylum at Troy, that, as has been before conjectured, may possibly be a prolepsis. But do not authors tell us that Ælfred the Great assumed these Molmutian laws into his code? And is not this what Jeffrey means, by saying, the laws of Molmutius were famous among the English to this day? I answer, sir John Spelman has shewn, that this is not fact*: and it is a strong presumption against it, that Molmutius appears to have followed the Grecian plan, according to the fiction of the British History; whereas king Ælfred, as we shall presently see, framed his constitution respecting this matter upon the system of Moses†. To dismiss this business of Molmutius, who, in all probability, neither wrote nor dictated any laws at all; Jeffrey pretends, that in his days, and by this measure, the "murders and cruelties committed by robbers were prevented, and every body passed safe without any violence offered him:" a false and most irrational inference; since sanctuaries, upon this prince's model, are not calculated to prevent, but to promote and encourage every outrageous and villainous act, as has been shown above. Indeed, one can

* Ælfred does not so much as mention the Molmutian laws. V. Sir Henry Spelman in Gloss. p. 362; and Mr. William Clarke, in his excellent Preface to the Welch Laws.

† The Molmutine laws were Pagan, not Christian, as Ælfred's are, Sheringham, p. 125.

scarcely

hardly imagine any thing more likely to generate vice and immorality, except the pernicious doctrines of priestly absolution, the doing evil if good do but come of it, and the compensation of evil by what were called good works, such as the founding of monasteries, hospitals, &c.

Mr. Pegge afterwards pursues the history of sanctuaries in this island, with great accuracy, points out the principal churches which enjoyed this privilege, and concludes with the final suppression of asylums in the first year of James I.

Art. II. Reasons for doubting whether the Genii of particular Persons, or Lares, properly so called, be really Panthea. By Fr. Ph. Gourdin, an honorary Fellow of the Society.—The great object of P. Gourdin is to show that the Dii Majores were seldom, if ever, those deities which were styled Lares, or Penates. We so far agree with him, and have always been of opinion, that the household gods were representatives, probably fanciful ones, of the ancestors of those who preserved and held them in veneration. Yet it must be acknowledged, that the images of the greater gods were occasionally preserved in the Lararium; and it is by no means clear, from various passages of the classics, that they were not sometimes included among the lares, especially when any remarkable instance of favour had been supposed to be received from these superior divinities. Whether the panthea were lares should have depended on the meaning of the term, which is not decided. We think it evident, from different passages, that this title was applied to divinities which were worshipped in many different countries, whether their names or their symbols were the same, or different. Sometimes, if any dependence is to be placed on the rank which the panthea holds, when addressed with other divinities, it may be supposed to mean some inferior object of devotion.

Art. III. Observations by the rev. Mr. Pegge on the Stanton-Moor Urns, and Druidical Temple.—The Stanton-Moor urns, are chiefly remarkable, since one of them contained a smaller urn. We see no reason to suppose that their disposition is not fortuitous.

Art. IV. An Account of some Stone Coffins, and Skeletons, found on making some Alterations and Repairs in Cambridge Castle. By the rev. Robert Masters, B. D. F. S. A.—

Art. V. A Second Letter from Mr. Masters, on the Stone Coffins found in repairing Cambridge Castle.—These letters only inform us of the discovery of coffins, whose contents crumbled into dust on being exposed to the air. Mr. Masters informs us, that the coffins described in the second letter,

seem to have been deposited before the building was erected. The present gaol is the gateway of the ancient castle, and it is of a later origin than the castle: we strongly suspect, therefore, that the bodies described in the first letter were deposited there previous to the building of the gateway, and that the ground on which it stands was the cemetery of the castle.

Art. VI. *Miscellaneous Observations on Parish Registers.* By John Bowle, F.S.A.—Parish registers were first introduced into England in 1538, by Thomas lord Cromwell, and were evidently borrowed from Spain and Italy. There are many useful remarks which may direct the antiquaries in this article, particularly in the period of the Protectorate, where the registers were often kept in adjoining parishes.

Art. VII. *Letter on a Roman Tile found at Reculver in Kent,* from John Pownall, Esq.—The author thinks the tile Roman; and that, if the suspected inscription is really one, it alludes to the second legion stationed in this part of England. It is more probably not an inscription; and its relation to the second legion, in a country where various legions had been occasionally stationed, is not very well supported.

Art. VIII. *Dr. Glas's Letter on the Affinity of certain Words in the Language of the Sandwich and Friendly Isles in the Pacific Ocean, with the Hebrew.*—The words are taboo and matee:—the resemblance of the former, in appearance and meaning, is very remarkable.

Art. IX. *Mr. Willis's Essay on the Ikeneld-Street.*—

Art. X. *An Essay towards the Discovery of the great Ikeneld-Street of the Romans.*—

Art. XI. *Mr. Willis on the Roman Portway.*—These articles contain a particular account of the Ikeneld-Street, which arises from the river Ichin, and runs parallel with that river through Winchester, &c. as well as of the Portway, a Roman road, which was carried from the North-East to the North-West of the kingdom—from Caistor, near Norwich, to Exeter. In these descriptions, our author differs, in many respects, from other antiquaries; but his account is highly probable, and we think it merits very particular consideration. Part of the Portway is called by Dr. Stukely Ikeneld-Street.

Art. XII. *Mr. Willis's Account of the Battles between Edmund Ironside and Canute.*—The great battle between Canute and Edmund (anno 1016) Mr. Willis supposes was fought in Sarkan-fields, near Wayhill, between Winchester and Old Sarum: his camp, in the interval of the two battles, is thought to be at Figbury Ring.

Art. XIII. *Observations on Ancient Spurs.* By Fr. Grose, Esq.

Eq. F. A. S.—This account is not a very extensive one, but it contains some remarkable information.

Art. XIV. Account of the Discoveries in digging a Sewer in Lombard-street and Birchin-lane, 1786.—

Art. XV. Account of the Discoveries before mentioned, referred to in the preceding Paper.—These two articles contain a particular description of the antiquities found in Lombard-street and Birchin-Lane. They are illustrated with numerous engravings, without whose assistance we could convey no accurate idea of the subjects. We shall transcribe, however, a short account of the excavation in Lombard-street, from a letter of sir John Henniker.

‘A large trench has been excavated in Lombard-street, for the first time since the memory of man, which is sunk about sixteen feet deep. The soil is almost uniformly divided into four strata; the uppermost, thirteen feet six inches thick, of fictitious earth; the second, two feet thick, of brick, apparently the ruins of buildings; the third, three inches thick, of wood ashes, apparently the remains of a town built of wood, and destroyed by fire; the fourth, of Roman pavement, common and tessellated. On this pavement the coin in question (a gold coin of Galba) was discovered, together with several other coins, and many articles of pottery. Below the pavement the workmen find virgin-earth. From the particular situation of Lombard-street, elevated above the level of the marshes, and happily placed to enjoy the advantages of the river, and from the appearances here spoken of, it is presumed that it constituted part of the site of the ancient Augusta.’

Art. XVI. Observations on a Picture by Zucarro, from Lord Falkland’s Collection, supposed to represent the Game of Primero. By the hon. Daines Barrington.—The picture is a curious one: primero is, however, a game that Mr. Barrington has explained but imperfectly.

Art. XVII. Observations on the Antiquity of Card-playing in England. By the hon. Daines Barrington.—

Art. XVIII. Observations on Card-playing. By the rev. Mr. Bowle,—

Art. XVIII*. Some Observations on the Invention of Cards, and their Introduction into England. By Mr. Gough.—These different authors differ a little in their accounts of the antiquity and invention of cards. We must speak in general, for we cannot reconcile discordant opinions. Cards were of Spanish origin, but, we suspect, of Arabian or Saracen invention; though we can trace them with tolerable certainty no farther than Spain. About the middle, or more near to the end of the fourteenth century, they were known in that country; and the invention was carried to France, and to Italy;

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from France, it seems to have been imported to England, from the English garrison at Calais. We have no satisfactory evidence of cards being common in England till about the middle of the fifteenth century, though they seem to have been introduced about the end of the fourteenth. In the original packs the ten is wanting: the *coate* cards (for that is the term rather than *court*), represented ten, as they do at present. The queen was originally a knight, and the change seems to have been made in the gallant court of Paris. In the Spanish cards there were undoubtedly aces, though in some of the earlier cards of uncertain origin, they seem to have been omitted, as, in the specimens which have reached us, are lost.—The *stamp* is on the deuce. Perhaps there may have been some game where the ace was not employed: if a French pack of *picquet* cards was to reach to future times, an antiquary might imagine that the smaller cards were not at this period employed. On an old wrapper there are the Spanish words *cartas sinas*, though the rest of the inscription is in French, and the vender is an Englishman. This fact plainly shows from whence they were first procured; for we still retain on our sealing-wax the Dutch inscription, *Fyn Segellack*, &c. because it was formerly on the wax imported from Holland.

Art. XIX. Observations on our ancient Churches, By the rev. Mr. Ledwich, F. A. S.—These observations deserve much attention: Mr. Ledwich, to the accuracy of an antiquary joins the erudition of a scholar. The British and the Roman style of churches is, in this article, well discriminated; and what we style the Saxon, our author thinks, is the Roman arch, while the Gothic, which we have been used to attribute to the Saracens, is a corrupted form of the ruder ages, and not older than the tenth century. It is not the form of the arch, but the ornaments and mouldings also, that distinguish the kind of architecture which, though styled Roman, was probably brought from the East, as the earlier and more zealous Christians would reject the temples of idols, and every form connected with paganism. In the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, the architects, in our author's opinion, were not so scrupulous: they borrowed their ornaments from the Roman temples, and seemed to prefer those which were erected in the time of Adrian, and which the Egyptian superstitions had deformed with the monstrous representations of the most contemptible idolatry. This is the style of the capitals in the French church at Canterbury. These were first introduced into France and Spain in the second century, by Basilides, who debased Christianity with many eastern superstitions.

Art.

Art. XX. A circumstantial detail of the Battle of Lincoln. A. D. 1217. By the rev. Samuel Pegge.—It is impossible to abridge this particular detail of the battle of Lincoln, fought in the year 1217. on the accession of Henry III. It is compiled from the earliest and best informed historians.

Art. XXI. Some Account of the Brimham-Rocks in Yorkshire. By Haymān Rooke, Esq.—There is no subject on which an eager antiquary may more certainly mislead the reader, than in those natural productions where art is, in some degree, conspicuous, or where peculiar forms may give the appearance of design to what is really accidental. Major Rooke describes many rocking stones, and one which he calls an oracular stone; but, though we allow that these were sometimes consecrated places, and the rocks themselves emblems of a divinity, yet a very accurate enquiry is necessary before we can pronounce every peculiar form of stone to be the effects of Druidical art, or consider every moving rock as subservient to divination or religion. The situation of these rocks is often of considerable importance in the decision. One of the largest rocks, moved with the least force, that we have seen, evidently owes its motion to accident. It is a vast mass, separated from a mountain, where the sides, once contiguous, are evidently discernible: we know two rocks which owe their motion to the effects of the tides; and it is remarkable, that these rocks rest on knobs like some which major Rooke has figured, and whose mobility is attributed to art. Natural history must, therefore, come to the aid of the antiquary; and the nature of the rocks, their situation, and the natural history of the adjoining country, will be required, before it will be easy to decide on the origin of their motion. In general, the Druids seem to have taken advantage of natural circumstances, and the very little art which we perceive in any of their monuments, forbid us to look very deeply for the causes of their choice, or for their execution. The greater number of these stones, as far as we can judge from the appearance of the plates, are indebted for their motion to their peculiar nature, and to accidental circumstances. The oracular stone is, however, very curious, and the effect is, in some degree, artificial. We shall extract our author's account of it.

No. 7. represents an east view of a very singular kind of monument, which I believe has never been taken notice of by any antiquary. I think I may call it an oracular stone, though it goes by the name of the Great Cannon. It rests upon a bed of rock, where a road plainly appears to have been made leading to the hole, which at the entrance is three feet wide, six feet deep, and about three feet six inches high. Within this aperture, on the right hand is a round hole, two feet diameter,

perforated quite through the rock, sixteen feet, and running from south to north. In the above mentioned aperture, a man might lay concealed, and predict future events to those that came to consult the oracle, and is heard distinctly on the north side of the rock, where the hole is not visible. This might make the credulous Britons think the predictions proceeded solely from the rock deity. The voice on the outside is as distinctly conveyed to the person in the aperture, as was several times tried. The circumference of this rock is ninety-six feet.

There is reason to suppose, that people in the dark ages of Druidism, imagined that the rock idols had a power of articulation. "There is a remarkable story in Giraldus Cambrensis, which shows, that the common people in his days, attributed the power both of speaking and protecting to these sacred rocks. There was a large flat stone, ten feet long, six wide, and one foot thick, which, in his time, served as a bridge over the river Alun, at St. David's in Pembroke-shire. It was called in British *leek lavar*, that is, the speaking stone, and the vulgar tradition was, that when a dead body was, on a time, carrying over, this stone spoke, and with the struggle of the voice cracked in the middle, and the chink, from which the voice issued, was then to be seen. In this simple story, the remains of that part of the Druid superstition, of which we are treating, are clearly to be perceived."

The curiosity of this quotation must apologise for its length. The many articles of this volume that remain, will be examined in a future Number.

Elements of Natural History, and of Chemistry. By M. de Fourcroy. Translated into English. With occasional Notes, and an Historical Preface, by the Translator. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. in Boards. Robinsons.

WE have been for some time unusually anxious to promote the study and the progress of chemistry in this kingdom, by pointing out errors in many publications, particularly those which relate to medical chemistry, and directing the attention of authors to those systems where they may obtain better information. After having taken the lead in science, England is left behind in chemical enquiries; and, though we boast of many distinguished chemists, yet chemistry is not generally studied: works of real utility are deformed by the grossest errors; and these, whose general knowledge is respectable, lose the credit which they might have obtained by a slight attention to this subject. We have reviewed M. Fourcroy's works, in the order of their publication, from the first English edition of the *Leçons Elementaires*, in our fifty-ninth volume. The *Supplementary Observations* we considered in the sixtieth, and the original of this new edition was shortly noticed in the last volume of our Journal. A work that we

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recommended, for we wished that it might be translated anew, we cannot but approve of; and, from the ability which the translator has displayed, we think it could not have fallen into better hands. His ideas are clear and precise; his intelligence extensive, and his language neat.

The part which we have translated, differs from the passage in the translation before us, and from the original. In fact, it was taken from the preliminary dissertation in another form, and differs rather in appearance than in reality. Of the errors, which we noticed in that article, one only is amended; and, indeed, that part of the work must have been printed off before the appearance of our Number. The error which is altered is that of the language rather than of the chemical opinions.

The translator has executed his task very well; and indeed the language of Fourcroy falls easily into good English. We differ from him occasionally only in little words, and in a few circumstances, where the error arises from a slight inadvertency. In reviewing the few remarks that we made in comparing different parts of these volumes with the original, we find them too trifling to mention. 'Precis' is more properly an *abstract*, than an *account*. Perhaps the modern gasses may be truly said not to have 'all the properties of air;' but Fourcroy observes, that they have not in general its properties. In short, it would be unpleasing to the reader, disadvantageous to the translator, and highly disagreeable to ourselves, to enlarge in this microscopical kind of criticism, in a work where the faults have no real importance. Chatoyant is that kind of white which the eye of a cat assumes in the dark: the translator observes, truly, that there is no English word for it; the idea is that of a semi-transparent whiteness.

In other views, this work will not, at present, form an object of very extensive discussion. We gave a pretty full account of the first edition; of the memoirs of chemistry, whose substance is interwoven in the present volumes; and a general plan of the changes in the present edition, with an outline of the preliminary dissertation. Our chief object is, therefore, at present, the translator, the historical preface, and the notes. In his preface we have a very neat, as well as a concise and correct view of the origin of the doctrine of a phlogistic principle, and of the fatal wound which it received from M. Lavoisier,—a wound which, however, gave occasion to a new discovery that, once established, will have the most extensive influence; we mean, the composition of water. We shall transcribe the first accidental experiment that led to the fact of the composition of this common element.

Previous to the month of October, 1776, the celebrated Macquer, assisted by M. Segaud de la Fond, made an experiment,

ment, by burning inflammable air in a bottle, without explosion, and holding a white china saucer over the flame. His intention seems to have been that of ascertaining whether any fuliginous smoke was produced, and he observes, that the saucer remained perfectly clean and white, but was moistened with perceptible drops of a clear fluid, resembling water, and which, in fact, appeared to him, and his assistant, to be nothing but pure water. He does not say whether any test was applied to ascertain this purity, neither does he make any remark on the fact.

The notes are either short corrections, facts relating to English artists, and works which the author has not precisely understood, or sometimes slight elucidations. They are, in general, very proper; but, from their not being intelligible without the text, and from their conciseness, they will not admit of selection. The theory of heat, as commonly understood in England, is, however, given at some extent, and the view is strictly accurate, as well as clear and philosophical. To the note, p. 189. vol. I. we may reply, that Boerhaave, by boiling water, and then exhausting its remaining air in the receiver of an air-pump, procured ice that sunk in water. We may also just mention, at present, though we shall have occasion to enlarge farther on it, that F. L. Eshermann has melted rock crystal in a flame urged by a fine stream of dephlogisticated air. What may we not expect from a well-formed speculum, with the assistance of the same fluid?

In the department of natural history our author follows M. Daubenton's system, which, for accuracy and extent, is superior to any yet known: we have already had occasion to give some account of it. To this part, the translator's notes are useful and pertinent.—Though we cannot engage in a particular description of the new passages, we will select a specimen of the translation, and, for obvious reasons, we will select what is observed on the subject of the calculous acid: its properties are more distinctly pointed out than in any other chemical author.

* As to the lithiastic acid, its properties, as far as they are at present known, 1. A concrete and crystalline form: 2. Difficult solubility in water; and in much larger quantity in hot than in cold water: 3. It changes the nature of the nitrous acid, part of whose oxygenous principle it absorbs, and then forms a reddish deliquescent mass, colouring many bodies: 4. It unites with earths and metallic calces, forming peculiar salts, which M. de Morveau calls lithiastes of lime, of pot-ash, of soda, of copper, &c. 5. It prefers alkalis to earths: 6. It yields these bases to the most feeble acids, even to that of chalk, which is the cause of the insolubility of the calculus in cretaceous

uous alkalis. This last character is peculiar to the present acid; however, there remains, as M. de Morveau well observes, much to be done, respecting the lithiac acid; to which I may add, that it remains to be ascertained that it be not the modification of some other acid, as may be suspected from the known resemblance between the saccharine and oxaline acids, as well as between the pretended perlate or ouretic, and the phosphoric acid.

M. de Morveau thinks, that the arthritic concretions, which physicians have supposed to be of the same nature as the calculus of the bladder, are very different from that substance; but he grounds his opinion only on certain experiments of Scheneckier, Pinelli, and Whytt, which are far from possessing the accuracy at present required in experimental philosophy; and the observations of Boerhaave, Frederick Hoffman, Springfield, Allson, Leger, &c, on the good effects of alkaline waters, soap, and lime-waters on the arthritic and calculous affections, appear to me more proper to ascertain the existence of an analogy between these two kinds of concretions, than the former are capable of disproving it. It must, however, be allowed, as M. de Morveau observes, that experiment alone is sufficient to decide the question, which affords an additional proof of the great importance of chemical researches in the art of medicine; and the advantages it promises to that useful science.*

On the whole, this must be pronounced to be a valuable system of the most improved chemistry, in an advantageous form; and we cannot conclude without thanking the translator* for the pains which he has taken to make it accessible to the English reader: we hope it will often save us from the most unpleasant task of reproof.

Historical Sketches of Civil Liberty; from the Reign of Henry the Fifth to the Accession of the House of Stuart; with an Account of the Antiquity, Use, and Duty of Juries. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THE *Historical Sketches of Civil Liberty* are rather instances of its occasional subversion: the historian, with no very cautious hand, delineates the conduct of some of the most despotic tyrants which this nation has ever seen, together with the infamy of their basest instruments. At the same time he brings a few modern transactions so near to the older ones, that if he had not given a different explanation of the conduct of the authors, we should have almost suspected that he wished the reader to compare and apply them. The different facts are sometimes coloured with a glowing pencil; but we have no reason to think that they are misrepresented; the

* We have some reason to think the translator is Mr. Nicholson, author of an *Introduction to Natural Philosophy*.

reflections are bold and pointed, but not in every instance too severe. Some recollection, however, would soon suggest, that in essential circumstances, our liberties are at present in no danger. The steady opposition to every attempt which may contribute to infringe them—the disgrace which attends those who presume to circumscribe the limits of the constitution, as it has been conducted for the last thirty years, are sufficient proofs that the present race are worthy of the inestimable blessings of a Magna Charta. While this remains un infringed, the popular clamours respecting the duration of parliaments, the modes of election, and similar trifles, are, in our opinion, of little importance. If it be supposed that these trifles will lead to serious things, yet, when we reflect on some transactions, it will appear probable, that the moment in which a corrupt parliament shall attack the sacred palladium will undoubtedly be the last of its existence, unless public spirit be first subdued: we fear, however, that it may be lost while confounded with factious clamour.—The historical part of this work relates to the reigns of the Tudors, those princes who have ruled despotically in a constitution free from despotism;—who have held the reins with the strongest hands, and have had the good fortune of being praised sometimes for faults little inferior to those which brought the unfortunate Charles to the scaffold. We shall select the concluding part of our author's character of Elizabeth. It is well discriminated, but too gentle.

‘———— considering the reign of queen Elizabeth in a great and political view, we have no reason to regret many subsequent alterations in the English constitution. For, though in general she was a wise and excellent princess, and loved her people—though in her time trade flourished and riches increased, the laws were duly administered, the nation was respected abroad and the people happy at home—yet the increase of the power of the star-chamber, and the erection of the high-commission court in matters ecclesiastical, were the work of her reign. She also kept her parliaments at a very awful distance; and in many particulars she, at times, would carry the prerogative as high as her most arbitrary predecessors. It is true, she very seldom exerted this prerogative so as to oppress individuals; but still she had it to exert: and therefore the felicity of her reign depended more on her want of opportunity and inclination, than want of power to play the tyrant. This is a high encomium on her merit, but at the same time it is sufficient to show; that these were not the golden days of genuine liberty; for surely the true liberty of the subject consists not so much in the gracious behaviour, as in the limited power of the sovereign.’

The other parts of the work relate to different questions, connected with civil liberty, to the conduct of military governors,

nots, whom our author dreads with all the horror which a good Englishman would feel, when his dearest liberties are attacked, though in this instance without a cause to excite his fears;—to military members of parliament; the feudal system; the conduct of judges, &c. His apprehensions are ever alive: we hope that they will not be realized.

As the course of our observations has led us to pursue a retrograde course, we must, at last, make some remarks on the Introduction. It relates to the constitution of Scotland, the modes of electing members of parliament in that kingdom, and its forms of criminal and civil jurisprudence.—The constitution of Scotland is still, in some degree, feudal:—the influence of chieftains, and the power of the crown, is still felt in elections; and its legal institutions partake rather of the civil law, and the customs of despotic countries, than of the liberal spirit of the laws of England, or a regard to the safety and independence of the individual. Our author is warm in explaining the dangers and inconveniencies of this system, as well as eager to reform it. He forgets that the human mind, accustomed to one bent, can with difficulty assume another, though a better direction: he does not consider that individuals, the bulk of the commonalty, must feel that they deserve power, before they can exercise it; that they must be able to provide for themselves before they can shake off the feudal shackles. When Henry the VIIth crushed the power of the barons, it was by raising the commons to distinction, who were enabled to assume independence, in consequence of the increasing agriculture and commerce of that pacific reign. Scotland is now advancing fast towards the liberties of England, because their manufactures, their agriculture, and, above all, their fisheries are thriving.

On the whole, we must praise the author's intentions rather than his execution. He is eager in the cause of liberty, without that political sagacity which would enable him to point out the best way of attaining it. Yet this, in an Englishman, is an amiable error, if it be kept free from the clamours of party zeal.—While there are no marks of profound judgment in the work, there are few of elegance or force in the language. It is neatly correct, and often faultlessly dull.

A Collection of Engravings, tending to illustrate the Generation and Parturition of Animals, by Thomas Denman, M. D. Folio. 10s. 6d. Johnson.

THE design of this fasciculus is to give a specimen of a great work, which may contribute to illustrate the most important animal functions, and which may be gradually increased by successive publications. Engraving, as Dr. Denman observes,

abstracts, multiplies drawings, as printing multiplies copies; but the picture speaks to the eye, and its language is as general as the faculty of vision. This great design is not, however, to be executed by one person: Dr. Denman requests the assistance of naturalists of different countries; and, while the engravings are finished with the accuracy which distinguishes the present volume, while the expence is so moderate, and so greatly inferior to the excellence of the work, we have little doubt but philosophers will become eager contributors to it. Our author tells us, that his own collection is not large, but the drawings are taken from nature; and they are consequently valuable: whatever may be the limits of his own life, the work will be carried on by Mr. Clark, of Queen-street, Golden Square, if he should survive.

The plates which compose this number, are nine; and they relate to parturition and pregnancy: they are neither confined to the human species, nor to the healthy state. The explanations are concise, and they are printed in Latin and French; but, as there are no references, lest the beauty of the plates might have suffered, they are calculated for proficients rather than students. We own, that we wish the plans of Haller and Albinus had been followed; and that out-lines, with the proper references, had accompanied the plates. We shall, however, give a short account of the contents of this fasciculus, with some remarks on the execution.

The first plate is miscellaneous: there is a nut, in which the funis which connects the sharp end of the kernel to the broader end, which is again connected by the external membranes to the shell, and to the tree, through the medium of the husk, and of the foot-stalk, is represented as an example of the fructification of vegetables. We hope, however, that in some future Number, this subject will be still farther illustrated. Another representation in the first plate is the chrysalis of the phalæna Atlas: from its size, the beautiful network of vessels expanded over its surface is peculiarly conspicuous. The third object is the eggs of the cuttle-fish, which are collected into clusters, like grapes.

The second plate contains the ovaria of a frog, just before the deposition of its contents. The left ovarium is turned aside, as by their bulk they would otherwise hide the uterus, and the origin of the ovaria.

The third plate shows the ovarium of a hen, with an egg perfected in the infundibulum. It is a correct rather than an elegant representation; but it is designed as an illustration of Harvey's description, and is well adapted for that purpose.

The fourth is a beautiful representation of the uterus of a cow, with one of the cotyledons, and a portion of the membranes.

haines. Its object is to illustrate Harvey's description of the changes in consequence of conception in the class of the pecora.

The fifth is an exquisitely delicate representation of three human abortions, in a very early state: one of these contains twins; and, as the author justly observes, is the first of the kind which has been delineated. The septum between the twins is very conspicuous, though it is afterwards more clearly presented in a separate state.

The next is a morbid human ovum: the fœtus must, from its size, have died in a very early period of its existence. The funis is varicous, as we suspect, though Dr. Deenan considers it as full of dropical tumors; and the placenta itself is covered with tubercles or hydatids.

We have never seen a drawing executed with so much delicacy and skill as the seventh plate. The artist was a German, and his name was Hall: we preserve it with great pleasure. The subject is a human ovum in the third month of pregnancy.

The eighth represents the uterus of a woman, who died in the act of parturition. The circumstances and the execution present nothing very unusual.

The last plate represents the partition of the uterus, when there have been twins. We are not, however, informed of what the partition consists, we suppose of the decidua. Though we have spoken of the plates as numbered, since in this language they are more conveniently described, yet each plate with its explanation is distinct, that they may be afterwards arranged in the form most convenient, when the volume is completed.

We have taken an early notice of this Number, because we think its merit is very conspicuous, and because we would assist the designs of the very intelligent author, by contributing to make his plan more public. We heartily wish him success,

Chemical Observations on Sugar. By Edward Rigby. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

WE have read these Observations with great pleasure: indeed, in Mr. Rigby's essays we usually find instruction and entertainment. Our author examines the source of sugar in the vegetable, and traces it in its subsequent forms, till it becomes vinous spirit and vinegar, when again he offers some remarks on the means of recomposing it. With Morveau, he thinks sugar a kind of sulphur, whose acid is concealed by phlogiston, and on that principle he explains its production, in different circumstances: this is the opinion which we have usually entertained; and though Mr. Kirwan led us to opinions somewhat

somewhat different, yet, as we had occasion lately to observe, the difference was not considerable. If, however, Mr. Rigby had read that author's essay, his own would probably have been more complete, and he might have attributed the source of the acid, which he finds a difficulty in explaining, to the decomposition of water, whose vital air, with the assistance of light, would form the oxygenous principle of the saccharine acid. Mucilages also, which contain the saccharine acid in disguise, are soluble in water, and may by this medium be conveyed to the plant. If we do not attribute the superior sweetness of the tropical fruits to the more luxuriant vegetation, and consequently the greater perfection of the process of fructification, it will be found, that Mr. Kirwan's theory will, in other respects, facilitate the investigation.

If we do not examine this treatise very particularly, it must be attributed to its containing facts and principles which have been often the subjects of our consideration in this Journal, rather than to disrespect for the author, or to any difference in opinion from him. On the subject of the revivification of sugar, we shall transcribe a passage which appears to us a very striking one. We have referred to Neumann, and find the quotation very correct.

Acetated lead, which is usually called sugar of lead, and obviously so from its sweet taste, may, I think, be considered as a true sugar produced by the phlogistification of the vegetable acid. This substance is the chrystallized solution of white lead in vinegar. The ceruse being an imperfect calx of lead, must contain some phlogiston, though, evidently, not enough to make it assume the metallic character. The salt thus produced seems then to be composed of the calx of lead, of phlogiston, and of the acid of sugar contained in the vinegar. By the union of the two latter, sugar is produced upon the general principles already advanced; and though, in this instance, it is so much impregnated with lead that it would be unfit for any of the purposes for which sugar is used, yet its sweet taste and another property which it possesses, sufficiently evince its truly saccharine state; for it is well known to chemists, though it has hitherto been very difficult to explain, that by distillation an inflammable spirit may be obtained from sugar of lead, and though, from the adventitious circumstance of a metallic combination, it may differ, in some of its principles, from ardent spirit obtained from pure sugar, by the double operations of fermentation and distillation, yet agreeing with it in the chief characteristic of that fluid, inflammability, there can be little doubt of its being in itself similar, as well as derived from a similar source, more especially

tially as it is well known that inflammable spirit cannot be obtained from a solution of lead in the vitriolic acid, or any other than the vegetable.

'The revivification of perfectly metallic lead from the sugar of lead by heat alone, which is a well established chemical fact, is another proof that the compound contains phlogiston; and consequently still more strongly favours the preceding conjecture, that the sugar is produced by its union with the vegetable acid of the vinegar.'

The consequences that may be drawn from this fact, are numerous and important: it is not one of the least, that wine may probably be sweetened by phlogistic processes, without the danger of metallic impregnations. The fumes of sulphur we have seen often employed; but, from the manner in which it is used, the great advantage seems to have been that of checking fermentation. We own, however, that the oil of vitriol, the chief agent in that operation, has not been equally successful; and it is probable that the phlogistic fumes may have some effect. The other instances in which sugar seems to be revived, though curious, are not of equal importance.

Poems by William Whitehead, Esq. late Poet Laureat, and Register and Secretary to the most Honourable Order of the Bath. Vol. III. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of his Life and Writings. By W. Mason, M. A. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Robson and Clarke.

TO the two volumes collected by the author, Mr. Mason adds some miscellaneous pieces, published since the former collection, and some others which Mr. Whitehead thought proper at that time to omit. We need not examine poems long known, or appreciate a character which critics have already decided on. To Mr. Whitehead they have allotted polished neatness rather than sublimity; a refined delicacy rather than invention. In poetic fire, he was not deficient; and, if he had not corrected with much coolness, he might have been admired for the occasional splendor, as well as the more steady illumination. His Odes, these tedious repetitions of courtly compliment, were often spirited and poetical; and, if his successor shines with a brighter fire, or more varied imagery, he does not excel Mr. Whitehead in precision, or the gloss, which is the effect of the *limæ labor et mora*. The want of variety in the pauses of Mr. Whitehead's lines, Mr. Mason attributes, properly, to his assuming Mr. Pope as his model, to his putting on the trammels of imitation.

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in the structure of his verse. The bolder energy, and the more varied structure of the verses of our elder poets were, for a time, forgotten in the admiration of more polished versification, of more luxuriant description, and a more elegant selection of imagery.

It is the Life of Mr. Whitehead that we must more particularly examine: it is related by Mr. Mason with great elegance and propriety, and illustrated by poetic attempts of the different æras. Yet, in these passages, which we should have read with pleasure, as the dawnings of Mr. Whitehead's fancy, or the test of his acquisitions, the biographer has chosen to change some trifling epithets, and has destroyed the pleasure of marking the progressive improvements. It might be supposed, a slight reflection would have told him that these sketches had no importance but as the effusions of the growing mind, and that a weak or misapplied epithet of the author's own was more valuable than the best which the maturer experience of Mr. Mason could have afforded; that if the verses were of consequence, it was as much for their faults as their excellencies. We remember having once requested a poet of some eminence, to collect his juvenile effusions, and to place them in proper order:—after some months, he came with much importance, and pleasure in his countenance: I am sure, said he, that you will be pleased, for I have taken much pains in collecting the different poems, and have also corrected them very carefully.—But to return:

Mr. Whitehead was the son of a baker of Cambridge, and the artificer of his own fortune. He was removed from a school at Cambridge very early, to Winchester: he was distinguished in that seminary for poetical effusions; but, by the force of interest, was placed so low on the roll, that it was scarcely possible for him to succeed to New College. His epistle to sir Bryan Boughton,

though written, probably, after his being disappointed of a removal to New College, expresses no degree of chagrin, but breathes that spirit of contentment in his situation, which he retained through life, and which impresses such a pleasing character upon several of his poetical pieces, where he speaks of himself. His prize-verses, already mentioned, have but little merit, if we deduct from them that of mere easy versification, which he seems to have acquired by sedulously imitating Mr. Pope's manner. Neither his fancy nor judgment appear to have risen, in any degree, equal to what, in common progress, might be expected from a mind, which, a very few years after, exhibited both these qualities so strikingly. His efforts at wit also were now equally feeble; and, on the whole, I am led to wonder that his school-master should speak of any of his productions with

with rapture ; for among the many pieces written at that period, which I have perused, I find only one that seems to indicate the future poet.

‘ This, however, I think, would not have been the case, had he taken the versification of Spenser, Fairfax, Milton, and poets similar to them, for his model, rather than the close and condensed couplets of Pope ; for, in that way of writing, his fancy would have developed itself earlier, and, perhaps, have obtained greater strength and powers of exertion. But, though he had read Spenser in his childhood with avidity, and was fully capable of catching his manner, yet the fashion of the time led him to exercise himself in that mode of versification which was then (almost exclusively of all others) esteemed the best : for those writers which may be called of the Italian school, were in no request, as Mr. T. Warton has well observed in the very judicious preface to his late edition of the *Juvenile Poems of Milton*.’

Mr. Mason, with equal justness and good sense, adds some observations on that early maturity of genius, which gives the fond parent so much delight, but which seldom produces any abundant harvest. It is a fact, that strong minds are not evolved early, that the sprightly forward boy is scarcely ever conspicuous for force of judgment, or accuracy of investigation. Swift, Dryden, and Newton, gave no early indications of excellence ; their youth was stigmatised by the opprobrium of dullness. We shall transcribe some lines from one of Mr. Whitehead's first productions : we wish the epithets had not been changed.

‘ Twas night, and sleep with gently-waving wand,
Sat softly brooding o'er that monarch's brow,
Whose waking nod could Judah's realms command;
Or deal destruction to the frightened foe,
Great David's son—But at this tranquil hour,
No dreams of state disturb'd his peaceful bed,
To nobler heights his thoughts unfetter'd soar,
And brighter visions hover round his head.
Let meaner kings by mortals guard their state :
Around his sacred couch aerial legates wait.’

In these lines, however, there is a precision and neatness, which make us think that they have undergone more than one correction.

On the death of his father he returned to Cambridge, and was admitted a sizar at Clare-Hall. At this place he formed those literary connections, which were the first steps to his fame and fortune. From this retreat he was drawn to become the tutor of lord Jersey, and Mr. (afterwards general) Steevens :—He went to Italy and France as the tutor of lord Jersey and lord Harcourt. He returned with them to England, was made poet

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laureat,

laureat, and resided with his noble pupils, though chiefly with Lord Jersey. In the calmness of his retirement, his different poems were produced. 'Not urged by hunger or request of friends,' he wrote slowly, but correctly: he polished his lines with care, and seldom hazarded those sublimer flights which judgment did not approve, or reason could not justify. Strada would have drawn him as collecting flowers about the middle of Parnassus, preserving their hues with anxious care, and arranging them, with unwearied assiduity, to the best advantage. Mr. Mason gives a catalogue of his works, with some remarks and incidents of the poet's life, connected with the publication. The catalogue we need not transcribe, as we have already reviewed the two volumes in our XXXVIIth Vol. p. 199. To Mr. Mason's remarks we must pay some attention.

There is one trait of the biographer, which, as it occurred early, and again appeared at the end, was particularly conspicuous, an antipathy—it is scarcely too strong a term—to Dr. Johnson, a dislike, which a variety of opinion on philological subjects, or the character of a poet, would scarcely justify. We shall transcribe the first passage, which relates to Pope's Epistle from Eloisa to Abelard.

— it is not the story itself, nor the sympathy it excites in us, as Dr. Johnson would have us think, that constitutes the principal merit of that incomparable poem. It is the happy use he has made of the monastic gloom of the Paraclete, and of what I will call papistical machinery, which gives it its capital charm; so that I am almost inclined to wonder (*if I could wonder at any of that writer's criticisms*) that he did not take notice of this beauty, as his own *superstitious turn* certainly must have given him more than a sufficient relish for it.

The fit rises to so great a height at the end, that the author soars to metaphor: but though we may allow of 'intellectual indigestion,' we want an interpreter for 'unconcocted taste.' In reality, we are sorry to see an elegant essay, and a judicious criticism, deformed by splenetic effusions. That Dr. Johnson wanted taste to discriminate the niter beauties of composition; that he wanted the feeling to which poetic fire is chiefly directed; that, above all, he seems to have been occasionally diverted from the path of criticism by political dislike, or sometimes, as we suspect, in the Life of Gray, by personal antipathy, may be allowed. But, after every thing disadvantageous is detracted, his critical merit will be considerable; and, while we should expect Mr. Mason to be displeased with some parts of his conduct, we are sorry for his intemperate warmth, and his indiscriminate condemnation. The political gloom, which dimmed the fire of Milton, in the critic's eye,

cannot

cannot surely have obscured the merits of Johnson in the mind of our biographer.

Mr. Whitehead himself was more placable, and his mild unoffending nature is one of the most amiable features of his mind. He expunged some lines in his *Essay on Friendship*; when he had reason to fear they would be considered as reflecting on the fickle attachment of some of his earlier friends: to the numerous 'licks at the laureat,' he made only a good-humoured reply, in the 'Pathetic Apology for all Laureats, past present, and to come;' and even this was circulated only among his friends*. The attacks of Churchill were more severe, more pointed, more fatal. Yet even to him the returns are sketches, in general candid, and sometimes good-humoured. We shall transcribe four lines:

'So from his common-place, when Churchill strings
Into some motly form his *damn'd* good things;
The purple patches every where prevail,
But the poor work has neither head nor tail.'

There are two other passages on different papers,—perhaps, in the heat of resentment, intended to form a poem, and, in the moment of good-natured reflection, consigned to oblivion.

Our biographer's criticism on the Roman Father of Mr. Whitehead, is equally correct and beautiful. Though we have transcribed much, we must beg for a little farther indulgence.

'There are different poetical exertions peculiarly appropriated to every different species of poetical composition; but to the drama surely belong all the following: a fluent and well-cadenced versification, with a variety of pause, as sedulously studied as in that species of blank verse which is employed in the best descriptive poetry; for though, by the frequent admission of eleven-syllabled lines, the tragic style obtains a superior degree of freedom, yet diversified pauses are as essential to this as to the other; and though, as being calculated for recitation, it may take greater liberties in point of accentuation, yet a general rhythm, and the laws on which it is founded, should never be infringed, except for the sake of peculiar energy. Again, the tragic style admits, nay, I think, demands the use of strong images, metaphors, and figures; it cannot, indeed, be truly impassioned without them; and while it discards unmeaning epithets, should be liberal of those that add force and vigour to the sentiment, Shakspeare, I am sure, gives full authority to this, as well as to the former assertion. We can hardly turn to a single passage among that infinite number, which, in his works,

* We were surprised at an error in this poem, at least we suspect it to be an error, 'attend like Satellites on Bayes.'

we pronounce superlatively fine, that is not even crowded with them : and yet, while the application of two together, to one and the same substantive, is among the most distinguishing marks of this great master's phraseology, it has, of late, become a fashion to decry the use of epithets entirely. Similes, indeed, unless expressed with extreme conciseness, have been justly reprobated ; but, of similes thus expressed, no more copious fund is to be met with than in the works of this poet. When "*pure description holds the place of sense,*" and, what is worse, of passion, it is, indeed, of all other things, the most abhorrent to the genius of dramatic language ; and when sentiment too is not conveyed in a condensed energy of phrase, it tends greatly to disgust, not only the spectator, but the reader. Yet, on these accounts, to exterminate either the one or the other, is what no true critic would attempt.

On the whole, we have viewed, with great pleasure, this pleasing portrait of an amiable man, sketched with much judgment and fidelity, by an intelligent friend. Mr. Mason may despise our praise ; yet, as we have told him his faults with freedom, we can add with great readiness, that the good sense, and good taste, with the judicious reflections in this biographical essay, render it not only valuable in itself, but a well adapted appendage to the three volumes of Mr. Whitehead's works ; and, as the one may truly be styled a classic poet, the other may add to his poetical honours, the well-earned title of a classical biographer.

The poems in this posthumous volume, already published in a separate state, are, Variety, a Tale, for Married People :—the Goat's Beard, a fable :—Venus attiring the Graces. Those not before published, besides the different sketches quoted in the Life, are Verses on the late Improvements at Nuneham, the seat of the earl of Harcourt, printed in a private and more accurate impression of the Oxford Guide :—Verses addressed to Lady Nuneham, on the Death of her Sister. Those published in other forms are, the Battle of Argoed Llwyfain, a poem of Taliessin, inserted in Jones's Historical Account of the Welch Bards ;—different Birth-day Odes, written since the collection of the two volumes in 1774 : and Observations on the Shield of Æneas, first published in Doddsley's Museum, and afterwards annexed to Dr. Warton's, and Mr. Pitt's translation of Virgil. We need not add, that these additional poems do not, in any degree, detract from the merit of their author. The present editor has followed Mr. Whitehead's example ; and, instead of inserting all the odes, has selected only those which, with the assistance of some friends, whose taste in lyrical composition he 'could depend on', were most approved.

Prædical

Practical Observations on Venereal Complaints, By F. Swediaur, M. D. The third Edition, corrected and enlarged. To which are added, an Account of a new Venereal Disease which has lately appeared in Canada; and a Pharmacopœia Syphilitica. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Elliot.

WHEN we have praised a work in general, we do not mean to insinuate, that it contains no faults; and, while we think an author very commendable, it seldom happens but that, if we examined him closely, we should find, that he often differed from us in opinion. To this cause it is owing, that we have received many books with favour, which have, in some respects, differed from each other; that we have thought well of Dr. Swediaur's first edition, though we have praised also Mr. Hunter's Treatise: nay, we still can approve of the present work, though it attacks Mr. Hunter severely, and commends the criticisms of Mr. Jesse Foot. In this there is in reality no contradiction: neither is unexceptionable; and we could demonstrate to Dr. Swediaur, that, if we were to follow him step by step, we could find, in his present work, many defects. His criticism on Mr. Hunter is, in many respects, extremely fastidious, and, in some instances, it relates to the most disputed points of practice, in which two of the profession could scarcely be found to agree, without some exceptions.

As the present Observations contain an attack on Mr. Hunter, we could not well avoid making these remarks, to ward off the suspicion of inadvertency or contradiction on our side. We must examine this work more minutely than we usually do a third edition, not only because it is much enlarged, but because the additions are curious and valuable. In our account of the former edition (Vol. LVII. p. 17.) we gave some hints of the expectations which we formed of Dr. Hensler's work, by which the disputed point, relating to the antiquity of the venereal disease, was to be ascertained. It is now, we find, published: but, for 'the complete evidence from historical facts,' we are referred to this German work, published at Altona. If we had known nothing of the subject of this volume, but from the indiscriminate praises of Dr. Swediaur, we should have supposed that the whole dispute was settled. We were, however, surprised to find, from other authorities, that the great foundation of Dr. Hensler was the facts from Luifinus and Altruc. Let us, however, assist Dr. Swediaur, and observe, that the principal novelties in the German work are, an account of the Treatises of Conrad Schellig, and John Widmān (Salicetus). These are supposed by Altruc to be lost:—

yet Schellig cannot, by any ingenuity, be traced back farther than 1495, and the earliest Widman (for there were two of that name) we can find, is in 1501. The former is said to have used mercury and warm bathing for the complaint, but unfortunately does not mention the usual mode of propagating it. The latter, *it is said*, observed the disease from 1457. We own that, without much more decisive evidence than we possess, we regard both the one and the other as of little consequence. Dr. Swediaur can only convince us by a translation of the work, which, if it be so valuable as he represents, and as we really believe it to be, deserves to be better known. Its value is not, however, in the historical parts, though the treatises of Salicetus and Schellig, with some others, are subjoined in the additamenta. Since, from various enquiries, we have long since suggested our suspicion, that the disease is really not of American origin*, we cannot be suspected to have been influenced in our account of Dr. Hensler's work, by any prejudice. We have wished for one well authenticated fact of the disease, previous to 1493; but we must confess that we have not yet found one.

In other respects, this third edition is rendered much more valuable: many new facts are stated with accuracy, new modes of cure are mentioned, with the foundation or authority for different new remedies. We shall transcribe a short passage of this kind.

• My friend Dr. Winterl, professor of botany at Buda in Hungary, discovered lately, that the inhabitants in the confines of Turkey cured themselves of the lues in all its stages by a decoction of the astragalus exscapus.—The inspissated juice of the papaver somniferum, known under the name of opium, by successive increased doses from one to twelve or sixteen grains in a day, first proposed for a trial by Dr. Nooth, has proved very successful in the great military hospital at New York. But how far all these medicines do or may succeed without mercury, I am not able to decide. So much it seems to be certain, that the lues is in general much easier cured in warm climates, when properly treated, than in cold ones. A decoction of the bark of prunus padus has been lately found very efficacious, especially when joined with the use of mercury, in many violent and inveterate venereal complaints, by Dr. Biornlund, physician in Sweden; and an account of them has been inserted in the Swedish Philosophical Transactions for 1784.

A new chapter is on a kind of venereal disease, which has lately appeared in Canada. It is somewhat like the fibbens of

* Perhaps it is not commonly known, that the original of Quack (quackfalyer) came from a similar German word quackfalter—the name of quicksilver, from the indiscriminate use of this metal in syphilis by itinerant practitioners.

the Scotch, a disorder certainly not owing to a combination of itch and the venereal disease. We shall transcribe the description, which very much resembles the account which the physicians of the sixteenth century gave of the syphilis.

‘ It first manifests itself generally by little ulcers on the lips, tongue, and inside of the mouth ; rarely in the genitals. These little ulcers are of a very corrosive nature, and were observed in many children to have nearly destroyed the tongue. They first appear in the form of little pustules, filled with a whitish purulent matter ; the poison of which is so infective, that it communicates by eating with the same spoon, drinking out of the same mug, by smoking tobacco with the same pipe ; nay, it is even observed, that it is communicated by linen, cloth, &c.

‘ This poison being absorbed from the ulcers, or as it often happens, originally absorbed without any external symptoms whatever, breaks out afterwards either in large ulcers, or manifests itself by violent nocturnal pains of the bones. The ulcers breaking out in the skin or mouth, diminish the pain of the bones. These symptoms are often accompanied with buboes under the arm-pit, in the throat or groin ; which sometimes inflame and suppurate, at other times remain hard and indolent. Some patients feel pains in different parts of the body, which increase during the night-time, or when they take some violent exercise. This is the second stage of the disorder.

‘ In the third stage, tetters, itching crusts, or ulcers, appear coming and going in different parts of the body. The bones of the nose, palatum, cranium, clavícula, tibia, arm, and hand, grow carious, or tophi appear in several of these bones. At last, pains of the breast, cough, loss of appetite, sight, hearing, smell, and falling off of the hair, close the scene before death. — Sometimes all these symptoms appear at the very beginning of the disease.’

It lurks in the constitution many years, without giving any signs of its presence ; and sometimes even continues after the symptoms have appeared without any manifest exacerbations. — It is cured, like syphilis, by diaphoretics and alterants, particularly by mercury.

The Pharmacopeia Syphilitica contains a materia medica ; a table of the preparations of mercury ; and a description of compounds. The author, with a facility, perhaps pardonable, admits every medicine which has been mentioned, and many compounds which are only proper under the direction of a sagacious practitioner. The pharmacopeia is, however, very properly, in Latin ; and by using the Linnæan names of vegetables, as well as the chemical terms of Bergman, the prescriptions would not be understood by many even of the faculty. Morveau has adopted a new language, and we discriminate

criminate his late one by the name of Bergman, who first recommended it publicly, for the sake of a proper distinction, though at the expence of strict propriety. Many different formulæ of the Lisbon diet-drink are inserted, clogged with numerous articles, though seemingly not more efficacious than that published in the Medical Observations.

On the whole, this work does the author great credit. The collection is valuable, because the sources from which the different parts are taken, are with difficulty procured, and the opinions are the result of much experience and attention. We would repeat more seriously, that a translation of Dr. Hensler's work would be received with great pleasure.

Practical Observations on the Natural History and Cure of the Venereal Disease. Vol. I. and II. By John Howard, Surgeon. 8vo. 12s. Baldwin.

MR. Howard we are not unacquainted with: his Tract on the 'Medical Properties of Mercury,' we reviewed in our LIVth Vol. p. 482. and it is the design of these volumes to enforce, with more extensive and particular arguments, the doctrines contained in that little work. Our author engages, in his present attempt, with the advantages of some erudition and extensive practice. He examines many parts of his subject, which are sometimes cursorily passed over; and his arrangement, though new, is sufficiently clear and perspicuous. We were pleased to see that a pupil and an admirer of Mr. Pott was not the antagonist of Mr. Hunter: the disputes which the doctrines of that author have excited, were running fast into a contention on the merits of the several leaders. Mr. Howard can praise the author of the Treatise on the Venereal Disease, though he occasionally differs from him; and we can praise Mr. Howard, though we do not adopt all his opinions. In a work so popular as our's, decorum has prevented us from enlarging on subjects of this kind, and we have been led into inconveniencies in consequence of it. We must, therefore, be a little more diffuse than we have formerly been, though the same reason will prevent us from so close an examination of these Observations as their real merit would allow. The language of the author is diffuse, and this will make our article disproportionably short.

Mr. Howard's plan is a little singular: he considers first the general infection, as he thinks the gonorrhœa to be a different disease, or at least a modification and a new form of the original disease. He, in the subsequent pages, seems to doubt whether the matter of a gonorrhœa by inoculation, would produce syphilis. The great original source of the general infection

fection is a chancre, for even the bubo, he suspects, is partly produced by the healing of the chancre suddenly; and that, without the interposition of medicine, the virus would be communicated to the general system, in a gradual and unperceived manner. It is pretty certain, that the earliest authors do not mention the bubo, and that the gonorrhœa was not described till thirty years after the appearance of the original disease. The cause of this variation we cannot explain; but, after a minute attention to every argument, and every experiment that have been suggested, we confess that we agree in the common opinion, that these are different forms of the same disease; that, in one instance, the complaint is local, in the other general. But it is enough, at present, to state the foundation of Mr. Howard's arrangement.

After preliminary observations on the periods of the appearance of the different symptoms, and the conduct of some of the early practitioners, our author describes particularly the different kinds of chancres. It seems to have been the ancient opinion, and we have known it supported by some moderns, that if the chancre is destroyed, the disease is crushed in its bud. Mr. Howard believes only that the poison would be conveyed into the system, without an inflammation of the intervening glands; and the opinion we have alluded to is not only most dangerous and destructive, but given up by the best practitioners. The chancre, in its different forms, chancrous excoriation, the venereal bubo, and the phymosis, are only primary symptoms. The termination of the chancre is in eruption, disposition to sore throat, and nodes. The bubo, which is mentioned in this section, is the swelling which comes on without the appearance of chancre; but we own, that we have some doubts whether bubo ever appears without the preceding symptom: it is well known, that, in many instances, it is almost impossible to ascertain unexceptionably, that a pustule has not existed,

The secondary symptoms are, in our author's opinion, influenced by the operation of the remedy. Their order, or their succession, is by no means regular. The symptoms described under this title, are neglected chancres or bubos, verrucæ, ulcerations of the mouth, skin, and tongue, ophthalmia, farcocèle, rhagades, later eruptions and nodes, diseases of the joints, ozæna, and hectic.

Nodes he seems to consider as affections of the periosteum, similar to the eruptions of the skin, and, in some measure, to be influenced by mercury; they are slight elevations of the periosteum, which suppurate, and separate that membrane from the bone. After having observed that there are

two species, the softer puffy, and the circumscribed tophaceous node, he goes on,

‘Most frequently the disease is confined to the periosteum ; and upon the introduction of a proper quantity of mercury, in a proper manner, the tenderness, pain, and puffiness of the one species ; the pain, hardness, elevation, and circumscribed appearance of the other, go off entirely. But in the last species it sometimes happens, that though the fairest and most judicious use of the remedy may have been adopted, and though the pain and other concomitant venereal symptoms may have ceased, yet the elevation still continues and seems to have acquired the solidity of bone. This I call an exostosis ; it was, no doubt, originally a venereal affection of the nodous kind, perhaps of the periosteum only ; but which, by the long continuance of the disease, or by the concurrent operation of circumstances to me unknown, is become at length an affection of the bone itself. And the distinction which I would make between node and exostosis is this, that the one is a venereal affection of the periosteum covering the bone ; the other an excrescence, or expansion of the bony plates themselves ; proceeding, however, either from a previous nodous affection of the periosteum, or from the long continuance of the disease. When a collection of venereal matter has continued long on the surface of any bone, it gradually insinuates itself into its very substance. Thus from the surface it may extend to the diploe ; thence to the inner table of the cranium ; and from the outer to the inner, cancellous parts of such a bone as the tibia, &c. and in this way render the bones of each part completely carious. A venereal node, wherever situated, may be always known by the nature of the pain preceding or attending its formation ; like some other venereal pains, it is sometimes felt by day as well as by night : but the violence of the paroxysm (if I may be allowed that expression) lasts principally during the fore or middle parts of the night. However it is at other times more completely nocturnal ; the patient either feeling no pain by day, or such a slight degree of it as is disregarded.’

The anomalous symptoms are those which are not decisively venereal ; and several cases are related, where the disease put on various appearances. The only method of determining seems, in Mr. Howard's opinion to be, employing the specific in its whole force. Indeed, this is not quite decisive ; for, after a full mercurial course, many ulcers will not heal that really were venereal, and will then yield to bark, sassa, or topical remedies, which they had resisted before. So that, at least, the original source of the disease will not be detected by this means.

On the history of gonorrhœa or of bubo, we need make no remarks. As it is omitted, however, in our article of Dr. Swediaur's work, we may observe, that the story of the disease styled

styled the brenning and the apegalle, as well as the epitaph of the person who is said to have died of the *peffis inguinaria*, previous to 1493, cannot, from the other parts of the history, relate to this disease. It is of more consequence to observe; with our author, the consent between the internal surface of the urethra, and the external part of the glands and prepuce. A striking instance of the translation of the inflammation of the urethra to the prepuce producing a chordee; and again, from the external to the internal, is related very carefully, and we believe faithfully.

‘The different inflammations, arising from metastasis in this disease, have been supposed to originate in a translation of matter. But, as has been already hinted, I must rather attribute them to an acquired mobility of the nervous power of the parts affected. But whether that mobility be morbid, that is, venereal, or not; or whether it be generated by inflammation, is difficult to say. The metastases in gonorrhœa very much resemble the translations of inflammation which occur in some habits from erysipelas, gout, and rheumatism—diseases in which the existence of a specific matter has, with great reason, been doubted.

‘The translation in a gonorrhœa sometimes takes place much later in the disease than in the instance given above. It is no uncommon thing for a sudden redness and inflammation to attack the glans, whilst the natural means of cure, the running, is going on from the urethra: if this inflammation is considerable and continues, the discharge from the urethra may cease; remove this affection from the glans, and the original disease returns to its former seat. There is, therefore, a consent between the glans externally, and the surface of the urethra internally, and the inflammation and increased secretion of the one part may be readily transferred to the other. In like manner I have known the metastasis first shew itself on the testicle and epididymis, producing *hernia humoralis*; then leave these parts and appear on the skin of the scrotum; and lastly, though the running has been either partially or totally stopped for a time by the inflammation, yet it has returned again to the urethra. This secondary running, after *hernia humoralis*, is generally obstinate, and continues with great permanency to tease the patient, and seldom leaves him till the testicle and epididymis are nearly reduced. It is in short the natural termination of this inflammatory affection, and should not therefore be checked.’

We point out the facts and remarks, not to observe that this metastasis is a constant, or even a frequent event, but to induce practitioners to attend to it. Much less are we willing to follow our author, when he endeavours to rest on it as an argument which will show the difference between the gonorrhœa

thœa and syphilis. He draws no other important consequence from it, in which from different motives we should not agree with him. He would, like every prudent practitioner, give mercury in gonorrhœa, and treat the inflammation of the testis, in consequence of the suppression of the discharge, by relaxants only.

In other respects, he describes very carefully the gonorrhœa in all its varieties; and traces, with much exactness, its different consequences.

The first volume concludes with remarks on diseases connected with syphilis; and, in this part of his work, Mr. Howard introduces an opinion, that it arose from the confinement of the Moors, previous to their expulsion from Grenada; The leprosy was common with them; and their want of cleanliness, added to the virulence of the disease, may, he thinks, have produced the syphilis. If we must account for its origin independent of its being an endemic, we may attribute it to a chemical union of two morbid matters, of an assimilating nature. Leo Africanus is positive that the Moors from Spain carried it into Africa; if so, it cannot have been brought from America by Columbus; but it does not follow that it is the offspring of leprosy. The diseases seem to us to have no connection, and our author's analogy is a very distant one.

With gout there is a nearer connection; and we have seen inflammations and discharges from the urethra, so perfectly resembling gonorrhœa, from misplaced gout, that it was impossible to distinguish the difference. We know the little dependence that can be placed on patients' assertions in these complaints; but the fact was decided by the discharge resisting every remedy, till a fit of gout came on, and then ceasing spontaneously. We knew too of a venereal affection rapidly cured by mercury; but it was followed by a fit of gout, and we believe the symptoms originated from it. Scorbutic eruptions, and scrophulous discharges sometimes affect also the urethra, by metastasis. Murray's Treatise 'de Materia Arthritica ad verenda aberrante,' in the second volume of his *Opuscula*, is a very valuable one; and some facts in it lead us to suspect, that when our author speaks of regular gout keeping off swellings of the prostate, it is more probable that the gout, become irregular, had fixed on that part. We would strongly recommend Murray's Essay to his attention.

The second volume commences with general observations on the different preparations of mercury, and with some just remarks on the difference of their effects, chiefly as connected with their different solubility. Mr. Howard mentions a single instance of salivation from Plummer's pill:—we have met with
many;

many; but we agree fully with him, in thinking this medicine inadequate to the cure of lues. It may, indeed, be used with advantage in the advanced stages of pregnancy, to prevent the disease from gaining ground, till more active measures can be employed. Beyond this point we have found no good ground to trust it as an antivenereal. There are also some just remarks against trusting to a single mercurial: it is often necessary, we well know, to try numerous preparations; though, if any single one deserves the preference, it is the ointment, with the method of friction. We have long since returned to this old practice, and we believe that practitioners in general begin to perceive its utility to be greater than that of any other method. Mercury, divided by trituration, is also often useful: and, as the many old medicines, with proper attention, may be made to produce a sufficient change, we must confess, that we cannot speak from extensive experience of the newer forms in which mercury has been exhibited.

We differ somewhat from Mr. Howard on the subject of salivation: we are convinced, that some discharge from the mouth is necessary, and think that the mere alterative course, without any affection of the gums, is a dangerous refinement to gratify a timid race, at the expence of their constitution and future health. We differ, however, about the degree, and think that a discharge from a pint to a pint and half per day, has fully answered every purpose; nor have we seen the salutary changes take place so decidedly on the coming on of salivation, as Mr. Howard seems to have done, unless the salivation be supposed to take place from the first redness of the gums. Our author's general conduct of the cure, viz. by keeping up the effect of the medicine by regular repetitions, preventing an excessive discharge, and accumulating it in a sufficient degree, are undoubtedly proper. We have had much reason to distrust the effects of very sudden salivations, and think the cures produced in this way are often delusive.

Mr. Howard next describes the alterative course, and points out a very good plan for pursuing it: indeed, we would carry the salivation not much farther. Perhaps we may not differ greatly on the whole; for, greater or less, without some other limitations, convey very different ideas to different minds.

Our author admits of topics as assistants to mercury, by quieting local irritation; but perhaps there are few instances where they can be properly allowed. When a bone of any importance is attacked by a foul and spreading ulcer, the virulence of the disease in that part should be diminished, without waiting for the effects of mercury brought to it in the course of the circulation. When an unpleasant deformity occurs,

turs, it is undoubtedly right to correct it; but, in other instances, we have been willing to leave the ulcers, as indices of the effects of the remedy; and when we find the full efficient action of the medicine produces no change on them, we have reason to think the appearances depend, in some degree, on local causes, and treat them accordingly.—Our author cannot dread sedative injections in gonorrhœa, from an apprehension that the matter may be thrown into the system. He thinks, however, that the general inflammatory tendency may be transferred to the neighbouring parts. This is undoubtedly a common effect; but we fear also other consequences. The chancre, and the chancrous excoriation, should be only alleviated: the worst effects have sometimes arisen from suddenly healing them by sedatives, or even destroying them at once by caustics.

As we have reason to expect another volume, it will be more convenient to close our article at this part of the work, which is nearly about the middle of the second. But we cannot conclude, without apologizing to the author, if we should have misrepresented his meaning. He has been accused of trusting only to full and unqualified salivation; and it must be owned, that his language, in many respects, supports this opinion. Yet his directions for the conduct of the discharge do not countenance the imputation, to one acquainted with the old authors, where full unqualified salivation holds up a dreadful picture of human misery. We suspect, however, that he carries it farther than some modern practitioners would allow, and farther than we can fully agree with him. We should be glad to be corrected in this respect, if we are mistaken.

Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. selected from the Correspondence-Book of the Society instituted at Bath, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, &c. Vol. III. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Dilly.

VARIOUS causes have contributed to delay our account of this very curious and important volume*; but, while they were unavoidable, they were not the less regretted; and we hope the respectable society, to whom the world is indebted for this collection, will attribute our delay to any thing but intentional neglect.

The society continue to keep in view their first, and their great objects, those circumstances which relate to agriculture and planting; and, from their proper conduct in selecting, occasionally abridging, as well as by the addition of notes;

* The former volumes were noticed in the XLIXth and LVth Volumes of our Journal, p. 412. and p. 170.

they render their successive volumes very valuable. After a suitable introduction, we receive an elegant eulogium on the memory of the late Thomas Curtis, esq. one of the vice-presidents of the Bath Society;—an essay on the farm-yard management of dung;—Miscellaneous observations on the æconomical and medical virtues of many common, mostly of indigenous plants, by Mr. Crocker; with Mr. Onley's method of cultivating his farm, and his calculation of the expence and profit in the cultivation of one acre of arable land for four years: these articles we cannot abridge.

There was a salt extracted from the rubbish of an old furnace of a steam engine: Mr. Swayne thought it nitre; we should rather have expected it to be natron:—it appeared, however, to be Glauber salt. The water, it seems, is brackish, and the vitriolic acid must have been furnished copiously from the pit-coal. Dr. Fothergill, who analysed this salt, has communicated a paper, in which he treats of the application of chemistry to rural æconomy, and the arts; but, in this dissertation, he only points out the connection in a general way, and endeavours to show that, as they are chemical processes, their improvement must greatly depend on the knowledge of chemistry.—Mr. Cloſe gives an account of the culture and produce of a small piece of lucerne, with the produce of a half crop of oats, with potatoes planted in the intervals. This plan succeeded very well. The culture of the bush vetch is described by Mr. Swayne: it is an indigenous, perennial, evergreen, of which cattle are very fond (*vicia sepium* Lin.). The produce from this specimen amounts to above four tons of dry fodder in an acre. The plant is not easily raised from seeds, as the seeds are much infested with insects.

Mr. Davis gives some arguments to show the greater advantages which dairy farms have above arable ones; but the conclusion will be liable to some exceptions. Mr. Billingsley has offered some remarks on Mr. Davis's arguments, which tend, in some degree, to limit his opinions. The culture of carrots is another subject which has occasioned some diversity of opinion. The mode of cultivation in the neighbourhood of Ipswich is explained by Mr. Kirby.

Mr. Wagstaffe of Norwich explains the success of his method of planting the hedge-rows, of new and upland inclosures. He planted the *populus alba*, the *nigra*, and different kinds of willows. The poplar is peculiarly useful in hedge-rows, as every thing thrives under them; their growth is rapid; and the timber useful for any purpose where lightness is required: it is not, indeed, very durable. The Essex and Kentish husbandry are described by Mr. Onley, and Mr. Hill: the former

mer is, we think, in many respects, too speculative, or at least his agricultural remarks are not supported by the practice of other counties.

Mr. Billingsley gives an account of the culture and profit on oats and potatoes, from six acres of land, at twenty shillings per acre. The first year, from the high price of oats, the profit clear was 24l. 6s. but, from potatoes, it was 48l. and the ground was left in excellent order for wheat. Of the culture of potatoes, Mr. Close gives a more particular account. They are not sufficiently attended to as an article of husbandry, particularly on the continent; and we think it will be of general utility to transcribe the various uses which may be made of this singularly useful vegetable.

'I have many years sold the greatest part of my crop for seven shillings per sack of three bushels; thus the one hundred and twenty sacks would amount to forty-two pounds; but they are now so much cultivated, that to make a fair, and what may be termed a sure estimate, they should be valued only as applicable to the feeding and fattening of cattle. I am convinced from experience, that they are worth three shillings per sack for those purposes, and then the produce would amount to eighteen pounds per acre. They are excellent food for hogs; roasting pork is never so moist and delicate as when fed with potatoes, and killed from the barn-doors without any confinement. For bacon and hams, two bushels of pea-meal should be well incorporated with four bushels of boiled potatoes, which quantity will fat a hog of twelve stone, (fourteen pounds to the stone). Cows are particularly fond of them: half a bushel at night, and the same proportion in the morning, with a small quantity of hay, is sufficient to keep three cows in full milk; they will yield as much and as sweet butter as the best grass.

'In fattening cattle, I allow them all they will eat: a beast of about thirty-five stone will require a bushel per day, but will fatten one-third sooner than on turnips. The potatoes should be clean washed, and not given until they are dry. They do not require boiling for any purpose but fattening hogs for bacon, or poultry; the latter eat them greedily. I prefer the champion potatoe to any sort I ever cultivated. They do not answer so well for horses and colts as I expected; (at least they have not with me) though some other gentlemen have approved of them as substitutes for oats.'

In the following article, sir Thomas Beever gives us some information relating to the culture of the turnip-rooted cabbage. Sir Thomas's letter is extremely clear and interesting. From two acres of this cabbage he fed twenty-four bullocks, and one hundred and ten sheep, for four weeks. The land, after this crop is off the ground, and it continues on it in the scarcest period for grass, may be sown advantageously with buck-wheat. Mr.

Mr. Billingsley's other crop of potatoes from six acres of land of twenty shillings an acre, was worth seventy-three pounds. The profit, though enormous, is not, we think, in any degree exaggerated: the produce was undoubtedly considerable.—Mr. Anderdon's attention was turned to a crop of turnips, raised between rows of beans; and his observations are, in some respect, controverted by the committee who examine the papers for publication. They seem to think, that Scotch cabbages are more suitable to the land proper for beans than turnips, and suspect, that Mr. Anderdon is too partial to horse-hoeing. Mr. Anderdon, however, escapes, with great dexterity, from these charges, and appears to have considered his subject with a minuteness and accuracy of distinction, which reflects credit on his attention and abilities. Mr. Pavier has examined his crop of turnips, and seems inclined to favour the sowing turnips in broad-cast, twice hoed, with beans drilled in the intervals of the rows. The committee are probably in the right, when they consider the escape from the fly as owing to some other cause than the bean rows. We strongly suspect, that the hoeing in Mr. Anderdon's practice, by destroying the lateral roots, which, at least in some kinds of turnips, and probably in all, may destroy the vigour of the shoots, by converting the nourishment to their own increase, gives additional force to the plant, which can best counteract the depredations of the fly. Mr. Pavier appears, however, to be a theoretical rather than a practical farmer.—Mr. Hazard's article on making butter and cheese is an excellent and practical one.—Sir Thomas Beever's relation of the experiment on the durability of woods, is of less importance, as the trees were of different ages when cut; yet, from 1774 to 1784, it may be worth while to transcribe the results.

* The cedar was perfectly sound.—Larch, the heart sound, but the sap quite decayed.—Spruce-fir, sound.—Silver-fir, in decay.—Scotch-fir, much decayed.—Pineaster, quite rotten.—Chestnut, perfectly sound.—Abele, sound.—Beech, sound.—Walnut, in decay.—Sycamore, much decayed.—Birch, quite rotten.

Mr. Wimpey's practical enquiry into the most effectual means of promoting vegetation, is a very useful work; but, as it is defective in the physiology of vegetation, the author must, of course, be less accurate in explaining the operation of those means which influence it. We do not pretend to say, that the operation of different manures is well known; but different parts of the subject have been ascertained, and little more is required than to bring them together. Mr. Wimpey, in his explanations, does not sufficiently discriminate

between different practices, as applied to different soils. His strong recommendation, however, of pulverizing the soil, is pretty generally well founded. A thin light soil is, we believe, the only exception.—Mr. Robins' essay on raising, planting, and cultivating the turnip-rooted cabbage, is an excellent one.—The experiment by Mr. Close, on horse-hoed wheat, is very instructive.—The description and use of the new-invented patent universal sowing machine can be understood only with the assistance of the plate.

In this collection of Papers on Agriculture and Planting, we meet with sir Thomas Beevor's account of the origin, progress, regulations, and description of the new Bridewell, or Penitentiary house, at Wymondham. This description is too generally interesting to be unsuitable to any collection, whose object is the good of mankind. The prisoners are kept clean and neat; the table of diet is not sumptuous, but sufficient. Diseases are unknown;—but no prisoner, only one excepted, has ever been known to be committed to it a second time. Such is the terrifying effect of solitude!

Sir Thomas Beevor has also communicated his observations on setting of wheat. He thinks the practice gains ground, and, from the great profit to the dibbler, there is little doubt of finding a sufficient number of labourers. The price of setting an acre is now reduced from ten shillings to six; but, from the expertness, which is the consequence of much practice, the gain is not less than it was at first.—Mr. Cook's patent drill machine is also described in this volume, and illustrated with a plate. On trial, we find it much approved of.

Mr. Pavier, in examining Mr. Bult's crop of turnips, scattered with little care among beans, revives the opinion of the beans contributing to prevent the fly. The beans had been horse-hoed thrice, and the field had long been in a course of drill husbandry. In this instance, the lateral shoots of the turnips could have had no bad influence; though it does not follow but that the same effect may be produced by very different causes. Whatever increases the vigour of the plant, undoubtedly prevents the destruction of the fly. Mr. Winter's crop of beans is a very good instance in favour of the drill husbandry, with the assistance of the hoe.—Mr. Hazard gives some very proper and judicious instructions for the culture of potatoes; and sir Thomas Beevor relates some important particulars relative to the produce and use of one particular kind, the white champion. This author's remarks too, on the Suffolk dun-coloured cow, recommended also by Mr. Young, are of great utility.—River weeds are recommended by Mr. Wagstaffe, seemingly on a good foundation, as manure.

We

We have often had occasion to mention buck-wheat, though we believe our readers in many parts of the kingdom are little acquainted with it.

‘It is become with me, says Mr. Bartley, a favourite object of cultivation; being clearly of opinion, that it ought in numerous cases to supersede the practice of summer fallowing, for the crop produced seems not only to be so much clear gain in respect to such practice, but also affords a considerable quantity of straw for fodder and manure; beside that I think a summer fallowing is nothing like so advantageous a preparation for a succeeding crop.

‘From its quick and luxuriant vegetation, it is an admirable destroyer of weeds, and suits with a dry, light, mellow soil, but flourishes most in a light sand. It is impatient of wet and cold.’

Horses, poultry, and hogs are fond of it; and there is great reason to suppose, with our author, that it may become an object of distillation. Mr. Bartley gives an account, in a subsequent paper, of the method of cultivation.—Mr. Young, in another paper, points out the numerous advantages of hoeing turnips; and Mr. Onley gives a good account of the Essex method of ‘cultivating and *applying* potatoes, carrots, winter-vetches,’ &c. He is more partial to carrots than potatoes, and is willing to substitute the former for oats, in the feed of horses, for whom so much national expence is incurred in the importation of this grain. We would strongly recommend an attention to carrots, as they contain a large portion of saccharine matter, and vegetable nutriment.

Mr. Chapple thinks his crop was better for steeping his barley in the lixivium of dung; but the real advantage seems to have arisen from his separating the lighter seeds which swam at the top.—Mr. Webb’s account of his method of selecting proper potatoes for seed, may be useful; but, in most parts of the kingdom it is unnecessary.—Rusticus tells the Society, that a little vegetable acid (about a spoonful to a gallon of cream) will accelerate the operation of churning.

The depredations of weevils are prevented by frequent screening only; and Mr. Wagstaffe informs us, that poultry are very fond of these animals. Hens collect them carefully for their chickens.—Mr. Rogerfon’s experiment for planting of wheat, was on too small a scale.—Mr. Close’s table for manuring land, Mr. Winter’s experiments for feeding swine, and Mr. Dobson’s description of the model of a barn, for which a premium was granted by the Society, can only be understood with advantage, from the work itself.

Mr. Bogle, in the next paper, recommends harrowing and rolling the crop of corn: he seems to think, that the har-

row may divide the roots. The Society differ from him, though they observe, that by sowing in broad-cast, seed enough to feed half a million of people is destroyed. By dividing the roots, a favourite system of this author, the saving in seed would also, he thinks, be considerable.—Dr. Grieve describes the Russian plough—A member of the Friendly Society, the mode by which Mr. Acland, in his new bill, proposes to lessen the poor rates, gives an account of the advantages of similar institutions; Mr. Anstie recommends them.—Sir John Anstruther endeavours to ascertain the increase of wheat and barley, by a series of experiments during the space of three years, as well as to compare the methods of broad-cast and drill-husbandry, in the cultivation of barley.—The miscellaneous information, and Mr. Winlaw's patent mill for separating the ears of corn without threshing, are equally incapable of abridgment.

The series of comparative experiments, by many different authors, on the nature of the Turkey, East Indian, and English rhubarbs, is extremely valuable, and give the fairest reasons for expecting that the last will, in time, rival, very successfully, the first. There is a little opposition in the different accounts, if by numbers I. and II. similar specimens are meant; but this difference we cannot reconcile. The English rhubarb requires a somewhat greater dose; but it is purgative, without stimulus or griping; it is astringent, and its united qualities of purging and astringency are not combined with any inconvenient addition. We cannot too often inculcate, because it is essential to the credit of the English rhubarb, and because the caution has been frequently disregarded, that the plant from which the root is taken should not be less than seven years old, and that it is safer to let it remain in the ground still longer. The seeds have also a purgative virtue, though in a less degree. In short, the English rhubarb seems only to want a greater age, more careful drying, and a little attention to its external appearance, to render it a successful rival to the foreign root. The part which affords the yellow colour is the effect of the saccharine acid, and it is not the astringent principle, though it is probably one of the component parts of that principle; for alkalis turn the rhubarb red, and the colouring matter in the urine is not changed by chalybeate solutions.

The remaining articles are not very important ones. Sir Thomas Beever gives some account of the value of the turnip-rooted cabbage, as a spring crop.—Mr. Winter calculates the weight and number of seeds per bushel, of different grains; and the advantages which Mr. Bogle supposes may be derived from setting out plants of wheat, &c. are distinctly enumerated.

On

On the whole, we think this volume a very valuable one; and if we have not enlarged on each particular in proportion to its merit, the omission must be attributed to its very miscellaneous nature, the condensed language of the several correspondents, and the abridgment which the letters seem to have previously undergone. To give any very distinct account of the different papers, would fill a volume instead of being comprised in an article.

The Athenaid, a Poem, by the Author of Leonidas. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

MR. Glover, if not in the first, claims a most respectable seat in the second class of English poets. His *Leonidas*, though too much exalted by the partiality of his admirers, was more unjustly decried by their opponents. Party-prejudices concurred to heighten the applause on one side, and to edge the asperity of the other. As a *whole*, it may be liable to many objections, but it contains particular passages of superior excellence, in almost every different line of poetic composition. The *Athenaid* may be considered as a sequel to it, and terminates with the destruction of the Persian army commanded by Mardonius, at the battle of Platæa. The hand of the same master is sufficiently obvious: some scriptural allusions should have been omitted; they are contrary to the genius of the poem, which, however, abounds with the same profusion of elastic imagery as *Leonidas*. We find in it likewise, the same liberality of sentiment, the same zeal for the natural rights of mankind, the same good sense, and sometimes the same strength, spirit, and elegance, which marked the other composition. It must, however, be acknowledged, that its merits are generally of an inferior degree to those which embellished *Leonidas*. The vivacity and fire which distinguished Mr. Glover's *Iliad*, too often appears quite suppressed, or faintly glimmers in his *Odyssey*. The *Athenaid* is a long, we had almost said, a tedious narrative, connecting an immense chain of events, performed by a variety of characters, in general faintly coloured and uninteresting. We have no principal figure on which we can fix our eyes. On Aristides, Themistocles, and Mardonius, the chief labour is bestowed; and they are, indeed, strongly discriminated; but neither the undeviating integrity of the one, the interested policy of the other, nor the gallant but unequal spirit of the last, fascinate our attention, or interest our feelings, like the majestic manners of *Leonidas*, the intrepidity of *Diomedon*, or blooming virtues of *Dithyrambus*. It should be observed, that the characters

and events are pretty closely copied from history; and the Poem is probably the worse for it. Some uninteresting narratives and weak passages would doubtless have been omitted or altered, had Mr. Glover lived to have given the last polish to this work. To dismiss a poem of such length as the present, and written by the author of *Leonidas*, without an extract, would shew too little respect to his memory; we shall therefore select one that will do no discredit to it. It may be proper to inform the reader, that a Grecian princess, having enquired of a Persian satrap concerning Sandauce, Xerxes' sister, is told that she was then mourning at the tomb of Ariana, whose fate is so elegantly described in *Leonidas*, and preparing a grave for her husband Autarcus.

————— Not distant flows

The fount of sorrow, so we styl'd the place,
Frequented oft by Ariana's grief;
There oft her head disconsolate she hung
To feed incessant anguish, ne'er disclos'd
Unless in sighing whispers to the stream;
Her last abode is there. The myrtles shed
Their odours round, the virgin roses bloom;
I there have caus'd a monument to rise,
That passing strangers may her name revere,
And weep her fortune; from her early grave
May learn, how Heav'n is jealous of its boons,
Not long to flourish, where they most excel.
A marble mansion new erected nigh
Her faithful slaves inhabit; who attune
To thrilling lutes a daily fun'ral song.
He leads, he stops. On gently-moving air
Sweet measures glide; this melancholy dirge,
To melting chords, by sorrow touch'd, is heard.

Cropp'd is the rose of beauty in her bud,
Bright virtue's purest mansion is defac'd;
Like Mithra's beams her silken tresses shone
In lustre gentle as a vernal morn;
Her eye reveal'd the beauties of her mind;
The slave, the captive, in her light rejoic'd.
Lament, ye daughters of Choaspes, wail,
Ye Cissian maids, your paragon is lost!

Once like the fresh-blown lily in the vale,
In Susa fair, in radiancy of bloom
Like summer glowing, till consuming love
Deform'd her graces; then her hue she chang'd
To lilies pining in decay, but kept
The smile of kindness on her wasted cheek.
Lament, ye daughters of Choaspes, wail,
Ye Cissian maids, your paragon is lost!

O ray of wisdom, eye of virtue, form'd
To spread superior light, the dazzling brand
Of love malign obscur'd thy eagle sight;
Thy vital flames are vanish'd, ours remain,
As lamps to endless mourning in thy tomb,
Till we rejoin thee in a land of bliss.

Lament, ye daughters of Choaspes, wail,
Ye Cissian maids, your paragon is lost!

The song concludes. Sandauce from a bank
Of turf uprises, resting on her slaves;
A pallid visage, and a fainting step,
She brings before the sepulchre and spake:

O Ariana! listen from thy tomb,
To me in woe thy sister, as in blood!
By different fortunes both were doom'd to waste
An early bloom in sorrow; O admit
Autarctus first a neighbour to thy clay,
Me next, who feel my vital thread unwind.
O Heav'n! my humble spirit would submit
To thy afflicting hand—but every fount
Of health is dry'd; my frame enfeebled sinks
Beneath its trial. When the inhuman priest
Condemn'd my children to his cruel knife,
The freezing sheers of fate that moment cut
My heart-strings; never have they heal'd again;
Decay'd and wither'd in the flower of life,
My strength deserts my patience: tender friends
Provide another grave.—For whom? bursts forth
Emathia's queen, and threw her clasping arms
Around the princess; whose discolour'd hue
In warm affection flushes at the sight
Of Amarantha, as a languid rose,
Shrunk by the rigour of nocturnal frosts,
A while reviving at the tepid rays
Of wintry Phœbus, glows. For me, she sigh'd,
For me, that bed of endless rest is made.
Com'st thou, neglectful of thy nuptial bliss,
To poor Sandauce's burial! soon the hour,
When of the sun these sickly eyes must take
Their last farewell, may call thy friendly hand
To close their curtains in eternal night!

The reader will perceive some striking passages in the quotation we have given him; and similar ones, though we must confess more sparingly introduced than we could have wished, are scattered through the poem.

Medical Commentaries for the Year 1787. Vol. XII. By Andrew Duncan, M. D. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Elliot.

IT is with no little concern that we see an useful work, and a respectable author, sinking in public estimation, especially

cially as we are ourselves obliged to use repeatedly the language of admonition, and even of reprehension. We suspected that he once paid some attention to our remarks; and we hope that he will not now misconstrue what is designed for his advantage. We mean not to say, that the books and papers are improperly chosen; but we must be allowed to observe, that the remarks on the use of the spiritus vitrioli dulcis in fevers, the three works on the red and quilled bark, by Drs. Skete, Irving, and Kentish, are not of so great importance as to fill nearly one third of the part appropriated to books. As to Dr. Reynolds' account of the use of sugar of lead, we believe it might have been of importance, if, instead of one grain, he had given ten for a dose. We have seen this repeatedly done with advantage, assisted only by the occasional use of ol. ricini, to prevent constipation. Of some other books we may remark, that Fontana sur le Venin de Vipere was published in 1781; Strack's *Observationes de Febribus intermittentibus*, in 1785; and of course not proper objects for an account of the publications of 1787. Dr. Blane's, Quarin's, and Bacheracht's works are almost the only ones which are within the limits that the author laid down for himself, and which are objects of general attention.

Of the choice of original essays we shall make no observation, because we know the difficulty to which an editor, in Dr. Duncan's situation, is exposed. Some of the essays are, however, of real practical importance. In the case of rabies canina, which terminated fatally, after mercurial salivation had been induced, it must be remarked, that the salivation was very rapidly brought on. Dr. Bennet's history of a dropsy of the pericardium, mistaken for an aneurism of the heart or larger vessels, reflects honour on his candour, without bringing the least imputation on his skill:—the account of the scurvy in Siberia; of the pepper medicine in the ulcerated throat of the West Indies, and of the use of the flowers of the arnica, in paralysis and amœnorrhœa, are of real utility.

The medical news is, in many instances, very trifling: we wish that this part of our author's work was greatly shortened. The greater number of the publications, announced to be almost ready, had reached us before the promise in the *Medical Commentaries*.

To this volume is added, an original memoir of Dr. Webster, in which he endeavours to show, that condensation is the only cause of heat in nature. In the greater number of operations in which heat appears, or is produced, condensation is particularly conspicuous: but it can scarcely be called a cause; it is often only a concomitant effect of the separation of heat; and it has been in general well known, and repeatedly

adly observed, that in the change of state from vapour to fluid, and from fluid to solid, heat becomes obvious to the senses, while in the opposite changes it is lost. We perceive little novelty, and no very considerable ingenuity in Dr. Webster's opinion, when stated properly.

We must conclude with repeating, that our esteem for Dr. Duncan, and our wish to render his work valuable, and worthy of his character, has drawn from us, somewhat unwillingly, these remarks. Perhaps we may have expected too much, and consequently this part of the work may to us have appeared to sink proportionally low; yet, as we think the plan good, we wish that the execution was unexceptionable. As we have mentioned the objections freely, we ought also to remark, that much useful information may be found in this volume; and that to the younger students, and more secluded practitioners, it will be particularly valuable.

Defences of Unitarianism for the Year 1787, containing Letters to the Rev. Dr. Geddes, to the Rev. Dr. Price, Part II. and to the Candidates for Orders in the Two Universities, Part II. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

DR. Priestley has changed the form of his *Defences*, and designs to publish an annual volume with a title similar to the present. The last volume of *Letters to Dr. Horne, &c.* is to appear as the volume of *Transactions for 1786*. We hoped that we had seen an end of a controversy, tedious in its progress, and which promised little utility in its conclusion. We did not consider the irritable nature of our present author; we did not reflect that many of his opponents had the last word. But still some comfort remains. 'Every year, he says, brings this controversy nearer to its termination.' We rejoice at it, though we fear that this prophecy means only that it will not be eternal; for he adds, that the attention to it abroad and at home, is continually increasing: now if the future can be judged of by the past; if experience adds to wisdom and sagacity, this increasing attention, if we except the influence of inspiration or revelation, will have an opposite effect. The more it is attended to, the greater number of controversialists there will necessarily be.

The transactions for the year 1787 consist of an answer to Dr. Geddes, and we think a judicious and a satisfactory one. We gave nearly a similar opinion in our review of his Letter. The next object of our literary Entellus is Dr. Price, who, in the appendix of his *Sermons*, had stated some of Dr. Priestley's arguments, that the public might form their own opinions, on the

the subjects of their difference. In this statement Dr. Priestley finds some things to correct, and some things to which he chuses to reply.

Our author next addresses again the Candidates for Holy Orders; and, in these Letters, he groups a croud of antagonists, and some opponents, who have rather alluded to his opinions than attacked them directly. In this group, we distinguish particularly Mr. Howes, who has again appeared in the lists in the appendix to his fourth volume, Mr. Madan, the author of the Letter by an Under-graduate, and Dr. Croft, author of the late Bampton Lectures. Some others we cannot distinguish in the crowd. The under-graduate Dr. Priestley has answered distinctly, without perceiving the humour of the assumed character. If he is however right, when he mentions the reputed author, we think him too severe in charging that author with a direct falsehood. The person who assumes a character is not a liar when he tells the audience what that character is. He concludes, that the deception is understood; and Dr. Priestley we supposed was too acute not to have perceived at once, that the under-graduate's gown concealed a writer of some rank and importance. Who he is, we presume, has been hitherto only guessed at; and we shall not transcribe the tale of rumour, till we have a better foundation for it.

In these Defences, we perceive the same active eagerness, the same acuteness in the reply, the same earnestness in advancing fresh proofs. Dr. Priestley is an Antæus that rises with fresh spirit from the ground, and attacks his numerous opponents with the spirit also of a Briareus. We cannot say that he is always successful; but we are well pleased to add, that these Defences are conducted with more temper than his former ones.

Four Tracts.—I. *On the Principle of Religion, as a Test of the Divine Authority.* II. *On the Principle of Redemption, whether if premial it is agreeable, or if judicial contrary, to divine Requitute.* III. *On the Angelical Message to the Virgin Mary.* IV. *On the Resurrection of the Body, as inferred from that of Christ, and exemplified by Scriptural Cases. With a Discourse on Humility.* By Robert Holmes. B. D. 8vo. 4s. Cadell.

THESE Tracts are written with great neatness and precision; they add no inconsiderable credit to the author's character, and deserve our commendation. The first is on the principle of religion. All religion is founded in love or fear of the Deity; and by fear is meant not that reverence which partakes of dread, but real apprehension of punishment: in short, it confines to one being those feelings which, in most religions

gions not founded on revelation, have formed two distinct principles. Mr. Holmes examines the influence of these, in different periods of the world, and enquires in what time either principle predominated. In the state of innocence it was love, and expectation of benefits: in the Jewish dispensation, it was considerably mixed with fear; but even then, the foundation was laid for another, more perfect dispensation, when mankind were to be reconciled to God through the merits of a Saviour.

The second Treatise was occasioned by the republication of Mr. Balguy's Essay on Redemption: it is entitled, 'the Pre-mial and Judicial Principles of Redemption, considered under the idea of divine Reckitude.' In pursuance of the former principle, he points out the attributes of showing mercy, and inflicting punishment; but seems of opinion, that the operation of both is necessary; and, that though penitents may hope for pardon, sinners will undoubtedly be punished. Impunity for impenitent sinners is not then to be considered as the object of our Saviour's suffering: it is not for them that he died: it is not they who are redeemed. From the death of Christ Mr. Holmes thinks that the suffering of some may be penal for the faults of others; and that, as we see only a few links of the vast chain, we ought not to consider this mode of proceeding as any imputation on the wisdom and benevolence of a God, who sees all the connections of past, present, and future.

The third essay, on the Angelical Message to the Virgin Mary, is designed to prove that the message was of divine origin, and the messenger sent from God; and that, from the concurrence of all the parts of the evidence, our Saviour was a divine being in a human form;—that he was God and man.

'Thus was God gloriously and sensibly manifested unto men; when he came down to men, in the likeness of man, and in our nature discovered his own. And when he appeared in human nature, he discovered himself by divine works, and his glory was disclosed by his actions. If any one looked upon the man Christ Jesus, there was no sensible glory about his head, that might distinguish him from others; but there was an intellectual lustre, with which wisdom and goodness adorned him. His words and deeds were such, as mere man never did exhibit; and upon his speeches and actions there were marks of divinity visible. His miracles were such as no power, but that of God, could do; and with them he entertained and astonished the minds of men, who expressed their admiration, saying, 'what manner of man is this.' Besides, these miracles were all acts of love; and men were affected at them,

as at the observation of greatness and goodness. At the same time, the obliged and amazed multitude were entertained by the divine reason with discourses full of wisdom and virtue, such as were most worthy of God, and most profitable to men. Those who heard him speak such wisdom as never man spake, saw him live such virtue as never man lived; and celestial holiness clothed the Son of man with glory. He was thus a living law of virtue, and the substantial doctrine of wisdom, and a sensible manifestation of power; and yet a man, like unto us in all things, except those glories, and except our vicious infirmities. Here then was human nature in view, and human conversation observable: but in all this, a divine wisdom, goodness, and power, did appear. Here was the life of God exhibited in the nature of men; and the invisible divinity did appear, veiled in the sensibleness of humanity. His conversation was familiar, and yet stupendous; and every appearance was wonderful, but not terrible. Such a manifestation of God there was, as obliged men to the greatest veneration of him; and what the Son of God did, was most God-like. Such an one is he, who is the supreme in the spiritual kingdom of God; and none other was either worthy or fit to be supreme, but he, who by his appearance could shew us the Father, and reconcile us unto him.

The fourth essay is on the Resurrection of Christ, and of the Body. The former is first demonstrated by strong and clearly connected evidence; and the latter is inferred from it. The different objections are answered with considerable force.

A very sensible and judicious Discourse on Humility follows, in which this state of the human mind is recommended as the surest guard against the fascinations of prosperity, and the best support against the frowns of adversity; as a convenient quality, as well as a religious principle.

The notes contain much learning, and some curious information: those on the first tract are extremely curious, particularly in the references to authors who speak of human sacrifices. In the notes on the fourth tract, Mr. Holmes gives it as his opinion, that the future life will be a state of society. On the whole, our author seems very well acquainted with the subjects he treats on; and, though we have occasionally differed, for on some points a difference is unavoidable, yet we can freely and cheerfully commend the whole. To have stated those passages on which we entertained another opinion, would have led us too far; it might have drawn us on to speculations, in which truth would be with difficulty ascertained, and have at last ended in barren disputation.

The

The Twin-Brothers; or, a new Book of Discipline for Infidels and old Offenders. In Prose and Verse. 8vo. 2s. Elliot.

IT is not easy to guess at the contents of this book from the title; and after it is read, so whimsical and excentric is the author, that the difficulty is scarcely lessened. These Twin-Brothers are, a poem and a sermon;—we beg pardon—it is a new exhibition,—a sermon in a style such as our fathers never knew. The poem is ‘a new colony proposed and considered.’ It is a whimsical Hudibrastic one, in which the author proposes to colonize some desert spot,—not with felons and convicts, but with a race that may well be spared, the Deists. Where they are to go, we know not; but we would beg leave to take from the colony those Deists who neither write nor dispute, because belief is frequently involuntary; and it has been said, that in this tribe there are at least some whose lives are in the right. Our projector too must take care whom he calls Deists, because some indiscriminating authors have rashly called the modern Unitarians by this name. The poet, however, chiefly talks about David Hume, Voltaire, and Rousseau. His rhymes are not always correct, or can his humour be sometimes easily understood; yet, on the whole, it is a very amusing performance.

The Sermon is an address to the old Bucks who, by example at least, if not by precept, train up a child in the way he should *not* go. There is much sarcastic invective against this race, and a vein of irony that is occasionally very successful. The humour evaporates in the too great length of this new exhibition. The following argument, though ludicrously enforced, is strong and cogent; it relates to those who assume any religion for temporal advantage.

‘I wish for no feigned friendships: I hold the temporising, accommodable system to be infamous and detestable. I must therefore be exceedingly sorry if it is frequent and fashionable.

‘Let us gravely and soberly talk of this matter. What, pray, constitutes a gentleman? He is no coward, he is no liar, he is no deceiver: on his word, on his writing, on his profession, on the plain language of his conduct, you may confidently rely. Ah! what becomes of our accommodation? If I have described a gentleman, my temporizer forfeits the character; for he is not a man of courage, of integrity, of consistency, of honour.’

The following story, though there is a little indecorum in the ludicrous conclusion, is well told.

‘Apropos, on the subject of bibles; you have heard the
story

story of our friend Harry ———. I have laughed a hundred times, when I have figured how confounded he must have looked on the production of his Bible: I must tell you this story, gentlemen. It was this. He was going abroad. Mothers are mighty good people, you know; and Harry's mother took up Harry to her closet, and said many a grave thing to him you may be sure: but to crown all, she took from the shelf an elegant Bible, telling him, this was the precious treasure; he must remember his duty; he must remember her; he must consult and take great care of the precious volumes. Little did Harry know how precious the volumes were; for— you shall hear—Harry returns in due time. One day the worthy lady takes our friend aside, and “hoped he had remembered the last injunction she had given him.” He could very honestly say, He had taken great care of the Bible. To prove this respect and obedience, he runs up stairs to his own room, and returns instantly with the two volumes safe and sound, neat and fair. The good lady pulls off one cover: “Rather too clean, Harry?” “O mother, I took great care of them.” The second volume is equally unsullied: she shakes her head; thereby indicating her suspicions that they had not been perused so often as she had wished. She opens volume first, and, lo! a five pounds bill is found safe and sound. The second volume displays bill the second, quite safe also, and of four times the value. She was confounded, —and so was Harry! Harry, I used to say to him, I know one man of our acquaintance who most sincerely regrets he did not search the Scriptures!

Indeed, it may be observed, that the author's humour occasionally carries him too far. He comes too near the porch, and occasionally steps on the threshold of the temple: above all, his invectives cannot increase the detestation of the hoary sinner, nor are they likely to produce a reformation.

Elements of the Grammar of the English Language. Written in a familiar Style: accompanied with Notes Critical and Etymological. By Charles Coote, A. M. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Dilly.

THE professed design of these Elements is to furnish such a system of grammar as, by uniting perspicuity of expression with preciseness and justness of idea, shall avoid the most essential defects observable in the various treatises hitherto published on the subject. The general utility of a work of this nature is sufficiently obvious. How far Mr. Coote has succeeded in his laudable attempt, may appear from our ensuing enquiry.

The

The volume is divided into four books, respectively allotted to orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody. The author begins with remarks on the different powers or sounds of the vowels, and the pronunciation of the consonants; concluding the first book with remarks on the English orthography. The following observation on the last of these subjects deserves to be extracted.

‘The orthography of a great number of words is so unsettled, that they are written indifferently two ways. Thus, *enlarge* and *inlarge*, *inquire* and *enquire*, *increase* and *encrease*, *entire* and *intire*, *superintendence* and *superintendance*, *vitious* and *vicious*, *negotiate* and *negociate*, and many other words are used indiscriminately for each other. This difference is the effect of their passing to us from the Latin through the medium of the French; in consequence of which double derivation, they are differently written, according to the temporary prevalence of one or the other language in the writer’s mind. The rule I would recommend in these cases is, to write in the Latin mode those words which we have received, almost unchanged, from the French; but where the French have made considerable alterations in the word in question, it seems most advisable to adapt its orthography to that which prevails in their tongue.’

It is known that the case of the English nouns, which answers to the Latin genitive, and is styled by bishop Lowth the possessive case, is formed by adding to the noun the letter *s*, preceded by an apostrophe. When the plural ends in *s*, the other *s* is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained. Dr. Wallis and Mr. Greenwood, however, recommend the elision of the plural *s*; as *the lord’s house*, for *the house of lords*; *the warrior’s arms*, for *the arms of the warriors*. On this occasion, Mr. Coote makes the following just remark:

‘But this is certainly an improper method, as it confounds the possessive case of the singular number with that of the plural; *the lord’s house*, as written by Dr. Wallis, implying *the house of lords* or *of a lord*, rather than *the house of lords*, to which sense the doctor applies it. If either *s* is omitted for the prevention of a harshness of sound, propriety and perspicuity require the omission of that which succeeds the apostrophe; as, *the lords’ house*, *the warriors’ arms*; a method sufficiently distinguishing the plural from the singular, which, in the words now treated of, would be *lord’s* and *warrior’s*.’

Mr. Addison has observed, that the letter *s*, ‘On many occasions, does the office of a whole word, and represents the *his* or *her* of our forefathers.’ In consequence of this opinion, he sometimes subjoins the pronoun *his* to a noun, to denote the possessive case; as ‘my paper is the *Ulysses his* bow,’ for *Ulysses’s* bow. Our author justly remarks, that this is an erroneous idea; because, if the *s* were a contraction of *his*, it

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could

could not properly be applied to feminine nouns, to substantives of the plural number, or to the possessive pronouns *our*, *your*, *her*, or *their*; on which occasions it is frequently used. He concludes, therefore, that the *'s* is not an abbreviation of *his*, but of the old English terminations *is*, *ys* or *es*, or of the Saxon *es*.

Mr. Coote observes, with equal justness, that the addition of the apostrophic *s*, to *her*, *our*, *your*, and *their*, though established by custom, seems to be superfluous, as these words include the idea of possession, and require no farther indication of that circumstance.

Respecting the conjugation of the auxiliary and neuter verb *to be*, we meet with some observations which deserve a place in our Review.

'This tense was formerly inflected also in another form; as, *I be*, *thou beest*, *he beeth*; *we be*, *ye be*, *they be*. Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, Sir John Cheke, &c. sometimes used this inflexion; but it is now obsolete, except among the provincial vulgar. The correspondent tense in the Saxon will justify either of these methods.

'Shall then this verse to future age pretend,

Thou *wert* my guide, philosopher, and friend?

Pope's Essay on Man, Ep. iv.

Wert is here used in the indicative mode for *wasst*; as it is also in the following quotations:

'Thou who of old *wert* sent to Israel's court. *Prior's Solomon*,

'Before the heav'ns thou *wert*.—Milton.'

'I am just now as well as when you *was* here.' *Pope's Letters*.—'Knowing that you *was* my old master's good friend.' *Spectator*, No. 517.—'If you *was* here,' *Bolingbroke's Letters*.—This use of *was*, which is the first and third person singular, with a pronoun of the second person plural, is altogether inconsistent with grammatical analogy. The word *you*, even when it is applied to one person, is plural: and should therefore be joined to a plural verb. The expression above condemned, frequently occurs in conversation; but those who adopt it ought to consider, that it is as improper as it would be to say *you is* for *you are*, which the very persons who substitute *you was* for *you were*, do not think of using.

Mr. Coote observes, that *will*, in the first person, expresses an inclination, promise, resolution, or menace; in the second person, it simply foretels; and in the third, it not only foretels, but sometimes intimates willingness as well as a peremptory resolution. To these observations we would add, that *will*, in the second person, has sometimes the import of a command. In giving orders to a servant, it is not uncommon to say, *you will go* to such a place; a mode of expression which certainly implies more than *simply foretelling*.

We must differ from Mr. Coote with respect to the ordinal adverb *firstly*, the use of which is, in our opinion, not only pedantic, but improper. For *first* is used as an adverb as well as an adjective; and, therefore, needs not the addition of the adverbial syllable *ly*, to give it that signification.

In treating of the adverbs of time, our author makes the following remark.

‘Among the adverbs of time some reckon *to-day*, *to-morrow*, and *yesterday*; but, though these words are sometimes used adverbially, they are more properly nouns than adverbs. Indeed, the former of them is no other than a combination of the noun *day* with the preposition *to*; the second, of the substantive *morrow* with the same preposition; and the latter, of *day* and the adjective *yester*.’

In this quotation, Mr. Coote has used *former* improperly, instead of *first*. *Former* and *latter* can be used with propriety only where *two* things are spoken of. As we observe this grammatical error in other parts of the work, we hope it will be corrected in the next edition.

‘*Opposite*, says our author, though properly an adjective, is occasionally used as a preposition; as, *his shop* is opposite (that is, *fronting* or *facing*) *his father’s*; *he lives* opposite *you*.’ In these examples, we are inclined to think, that *opposite* retains its signification as an adjective, and that the preposition *to* is understood.

‘From *differo*,’ says Mr. Coote, which signifies *to put off* as well as *to differ*, we have also borrowed the verb *to defer*, which should therefore be written *differ*; for *deferro* would properly have made *defer*. The French, in their *differer*, and the Italians in their *differire*, both which signify *to put off*, have preserved the original beginning.’

In this remark, we cannot help *differing* from our author. We think that the distinguishing of different ideas is an object of grammar superior to the consideration of etymology; and, therefore, that the naturalization of *defer*, to put off, or delay, is not only expedient, on account of precision, but a useful acquisition to the English language.

The following extract concludes with a remark worthy of attention.

‘If a disjunctive conjunction occur between two nominative pronouns of the same person and number, the verb governed by them agrees separately with each; as, “either *he* or *she* was concerned; neither *he* nor *she* has been there.” But, when the pronouns thus disjoined are of different numbers or persons, the verb cannot properly be made to agree with each; for, if we say, “*you* or *I* was present,” adapting the verb to the pronoun *I*, as being in the most worthy person, the verb, being then

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singular,

singular, will not suit the second person plural, *you*; in which case, that part of the verb in question which would suit *you*, is understood. The sentence, therefore, will be of the same import as if we had said, “*you were present, or I was present.*” Those persons who make the verb agree collectively with two nominatives, when parted by *or* or *nor*, instead of adapting it severally to each, would, for *he* or *I was present*, say plurally, “*he or I were,*” as if it were, “*he and I;*” but this is altogether improper; for it indirectly affirms the presence of two persons, when only one or the other is meant to be referred to as present.

Mr. Coote is, without doubt, justified by etymology, in considering the noun *means* as plural, and, on that account, in condemning the expression, “*by this means,*” or “*by that means,*” though frequently used by the best writers. *Mean* being the singular (from the French *moyen*) is, in such cases, more conformable to etymological propriety, as well as to discrimination. But there are grammarians who consider *means* as a noun both of the singular and plural number.

We entirely agree with our author, that adjectives are improperly used as adverbs, when the intention is to express the manner or degree of any circumstance; as, “*extraordinary bright, extreme elaborate,*” &c.

‘In the following passage,’ says Mr. Coote, ‘the same word is used both as an adjective and an adverb; as, “all their *ungodly* deeds, which they have *ungodly* [that is, in an ungodly manner] committed.” Jude 15. This is an awkward confusion of acceptation; but the emendation proposed by Dr. Lowth is certainly ill-judged. That grammarian is of opinion, that the analogy of formation established in our language, would require *ungodlily* for the adverb, rather than the adjective *ungodly*. To those, however, who reflect, that the *ly* in *ungodly* is a corruption of *like*, and that the syllable which he proposes to add to it is exactly the same, the term *ungodlily* will not appear to be an analogous combination, but as improper an expression as *ungodlike-like* would be. He also recommends *heavenlily, livelily,* &c. as consistent with analogy; but he ought to have considered, that, though *ly*, subjoined to nouns, forms adjectives, and, added to adjectives, constitutes adverbs, the latter part of this rule must doubtless have an exception with respect to those adjectives which have been already formed from nouns by the addition of *ly*, and which therefore cannot reasonably admit a duplication of that particle. In such instances as the above mentioned, where an adjective is less proper than an adverb, it is very proper that the former should give place to the latter; and, as *ungodly* is an adjective, it would have been better to substitute an adverb for it; but, as an adverb formed from that word in the same manner in which adverbs are formed from the
gene-

generality of adjectives, would have been somewhat anomalous, recourse might have been had to an adverb formed from an adjective of the like signification with *angodly*.'

To the etymological objection made by Mr. Coote, respecting the derivatives mentioned in the foregoing extract, we might add that of cacophony, or the disagreeable sound which would result from the formation above specified.

In the course of this work, Mr. Coote makes many judicious observations on the English syntax; pointing out improper modes of expression used by some of the best writers, and frequently combating the doctrines of the most approved grammarians. If we should in any thing dissent from his opinion, it would be where he scrupulously adheres to etymology, at the expence of discrimination. Such instances, however, are very few; and when they occur, they are generally supported with a strength of observation that almost precludes any positive opposition of sentiment. On the whole, this volume affords a perspicuous, rational, and useful system of English grammar, improved by many philological remarks; and purified from a number of popular errors and improprieties, which have their source in the prejudice of authority.

The Fate of Sparta; or, the Rival Kings. A Tragedy. By Mrs. Cowley. 1s. 6d. Robinsons.

THE following tragedy, says Mrs. Cowley, is, in its fable and events, all invention—except in the conduct of Chelonice, and the scene in the temple.—Other deviations from history will strike you; but if I have altered circumstances, I have strictly abided by *character*.' That of Leonidas, she adds, is, according to history, 'artful and tyrannical.' But is it natural to suppose, that an artful king of Sparta would thus address one of his high-spirited subjects in language an Asiatic despot would hardly use to the meanest of his slaves?

'*Leon.* How slave! what, murmur at my will! Dispute His word, whose breath annihilates thy race!
What are ye all, but creatures of my breath?
I doom ye life—rejoice! I bid ye die—
Sink silent to your graves!'

The costume likewise is sometimes violated. To 'wield a *fabre*,' and

'The *miners* now beneath us

Form for the *quick* a *wide capacious* grave'—

is not very descriptive of the Spartan mode of warfare. The 'statue of Phocion' would better have suited an Athenian drama; and 'the *sovereign* pontiff' of Lacedæmon gives rather

the idea of a pope than a pagan priest. Such expressions as 'the still *sabbath* of the night,' and 'sorrow *cloister'd* in the heart,' are inconsistent with Grecian manners.

We meet, however, with many passages to which we can form no objection. The characters of the hero and heroine of the drama, that of the latter more particularly, are drawn with strength and spirit, as the following quotation will evince.

Chel. The hour in which thou vanquishest Leonidas,
Prepare the pile, to flame around his daughter!

Cleom. Princess! thou dost mistake thy duty.—Spartan,
And daughter of Leonidas, are titles
Dearest to thee——

Chel. Mistake my duty, said'st thou?
When at a husband's feet I ask a father's life,
Do I mistake my duty?—If I do,
I'll ever so mistake, and boast my error!
Yes, 'till Leonidas sits thron'd in safety,
His daughter shall forget she is a wife;—
Tear from her heart each trace of long past fondness,
And own no ties, but those first awful ones
Stamp'd there by nature.

Cleom. Wife of Cleombrotus!
Thy honour and thy fame's deriv'd from him;
Thy happiness from the same source should flow.
How dear those hours—for sure such hours have been,
When thou disclaim'st all joys, but in my love.

Chel. Hadst thou found bliss in love——

Cleom. I'd not fought bliss on thrones.
Thus, as a lady would you chide, and this
Let all the subject world receive as law.
Let them be taught that in the humble shade,
Far from the reach of proud ambition's eye,
Felicity has rais'd her grassy seat,
And wantons there with love.

But, madam, I was born to reign!
And he so born, feels fires that vulgar souls
Could not endure.—Felicity to us,

Is not a nymph in humble ruffet clad,
Sipping the dew-drops from the silver thorn,
Or weaving flow'rs upon a streamlet's brink—
Oh, no! she's *septer'd*, and her gifts are *crowns*!

Chel. I have a soul, to taste her gifts, like thine.
I have a mind that grasps sublimer cares
Than cottage nymphs can know; I would be great,
And bear the cares of thousands.—But ambition,
And ev'ry lofty sentiment it gives,
Sinks to the earth, when weigh'd against his life
From whom I drew my own.

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We cannot speak very highly of the plot in regard to its probability; but many of the scenes are extremely animated and interesting, and well calculated for stage-effect.

Love in the East; or, Adventures of Twelve Hours; a Comic Opera, in three Acts. Written by the Author of the Strangers at Home. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lowndes.

EASTERN Tales are now told in a dramatic form: we have seen an eastern tragedy; an amphibious being, neither tragedy nor comedy, styled, in the doubtful language of Shakespeare, a play; and we now receive an opera of the same kind. The play is the only species that affords any distinguishing characteristic of eastern manners: the tragedy and the opera, mutato nomine, may be placed in any climate, and the adventures appropriated to any habitable country, either east, west, north, or south. But, if it loses its robe and turban, it may still retain an incontestible title to the mask and the socks: it is interesting, lively, and busy. Probable we can scarcely call it in any instance; yet its improbabilities are well disguised, and we have seldom time to enquire into the foundation of any incident, from the mirth excited in consequence of it. The first metamorphosis is, however, too common on the stage: we have seen Tom Errand in Beau Clincher's cloaths so often, that we are almost weary of the change, though conducted with great pleasantry. The two pretended colonels is a considerable improvement on the original incident; and the source of some true comic humour. Of the characters there is not one that has any pretensions to novelty; Mrs. Mushroom is lady Tremor, with scarcely any change. The language is pointed and pleasant, though rather too much like that of 'the First Floor.' The songs deserve also great praise. We shall select a short specimen: the scene requires no explanation.

Baton. Ah, ha!—Voilà mon homme—[comes forward softly, and tips Eliza on the shoulder] serviteur. I am told, Sair, you call yourself colonel Baton.

Eliza. I—I have answer'd to that name, Sir.

Baton. Den I presume, Sair, you be officier in de French service, by your vite cockade.

Eliza. Sir, I—I, yes, Sir; I wear a white cockade—I admire it extremely.

Baton. So do I, Sair.

Eliza. I am very glad you like it—I—

Baton. And I must 'ave it, Sair.

Eliza. Have my cockade, Sir! Bless me, that is a little extraordinary.

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Baton. Monsieur. [*Angrily.*]

Eliza. Well, Sir, there it is—If you have taken any fancy to the hat, Sir, it is at your service. [*Aside*] I wish Henry were come.

Baton. [*tears the cockade from Eliza's hat*] Now, Sair, you 'ave no mark of de livree of my sovereign—I tell you dat you be villain, poltroon.

Eliza. Really, Sir, I think it is very absurd for us to cut throats about a piece of white ribbon—so——

Baton. I know dat I do you too mnch honour to fight you. [*drawing his sword.*]

Eliza. Then I am sure, Sir, I don't desire any more honour than is my due.

Baton. Allons, defend yourself.

Eliza. I wish I could, Sir.

Baton. [*pressing on Eliza with his sword*] Combatez! combattez! Monsieur.

Elix. No, Sir, you have dishonoured my reputation, by calling me a coward, and I will not fight till I have cleared my character. Pray, Sir, don't be so violent. [*Aside.*] What shall I do? I must avow myself.

Baton. Repondez, scelerat!—answer me—do you deserve the name of man?

Elix. No, indeed, Sir—I am—

Baton. Parlez—vite.

Eliza. I am——

Baton. Vat be you?

Eliza. I am—[*seeing Stanmore, who enters at the moment*] Sir, your most obedient humble servant.

Stan. Heavens! that voice—no longer distinguished by the Scotch accent—I—

Eliza. Here is my champion, Colonel—Surely he will defend a life which I have risked for the joy of seeing him once more; and which, from this moment, shall be devoted to repair the wrongs he has suffered.

Stan. [*embracing her*] My life! my soul! my dearest Eliza.

Baton. [*aside*] My dear Eliza! Oh ho! [*to her*] Madame, vil you pardon my mistake? Dere be de cockade. Venever you like to go into de army again, I hope to 'ave de honneur of be your commanding officer.

Eliza. You see, Colonel, I have engaged with another commander, and I am sure you are too much a man of honour to wish I should ever desert.'

The success of this opera on any stage but those of the winter theatres will be, we fear, inconsiderable, as the character of Eliza requires such various powers to be supported with effect.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 157.)

IN compliance with the request of a very respectable correspondent, for whose opinion we have the highest regard; we shall fill up the outline of the new discoveries in natural history, and natural philosophy; and we do it with more willingness, because we shall by this means ascertain the state of these sciences at the end of the last year, and fix the period from whence our future progress must commence. We shall nearly follow our former order.

M. Romé de l'Isle has written to M. Marivetz, one of the authors of the *Physique du Monde*, formerly mentioned; and combated, at some length, his opinions on the matter of heat. To this letter M. Marivetz has replied, requesting the continuation of the remarks, and promising to pay every attention to them. He owns that this treatise was written during a state of ill-health; and confesses that, on this account, it may be less perfect than it ought to have been. We have mentioned this controversy at its origin, not because we mean to pursue it in its successive steps, but because we shall watch its progress, and communicate to our readers any facts of importance, which it will contribute to draw forth to public notice. We are not convinced of the truth of one assertion of M. de l'Isle, that flints struck against each other produce no fire. If the sharp edges of gun-flints are struck in this way, we have seen fire proceed from the collision. In any other method, the particles abraded are not sufficiently small to be inflamed. On the subject of heat we may also shortly observe, that P. St. Julien has examined the opinion relating to the heat of warm mineral springs; we mean the system which refers the heat to the decomposition of pyrites, as was mentioned in our last volume, and has obviated many objections that may occur from the great variety of springs, and their different situations.

Another branch of natural philosophy, and another form of fire, occurs in the electrical fluid; and we are happy to introduce the continuation of Van Marum's electrical experiments with Teyler's machine; we embrace this opportunity with more pleasure, because the first experiments were published three years ago, before the commencement of this part of our undertaking. This vast machine is in Teyler's museum, at Haarlem; but what it was is of little importance, as its powers are now much increased. To the 135 jars, forming as many square feet of coated glass, he has added 90 other jars, of similar dimensions; and the battery now contains 225 feet of coated glass. This immense surface, after a little exposure to the sun, was charged as soon as the old battery; and the power was increased in proportion to the increase of the surface. With this power, a stroke that would melt 120 inches of lead wire, of $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch in diameter, melted an equal length of tin, 5 inches of iron, $\frac{1}{2}$ inches of

of gold, $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch of silver, and as much copper and brass. But the order of the fusibility of metals by fire, in the experiments at the academy of Dijon, were iron, copper, gold, silver, and lead. The relation, therefore, of metals to the matter of heat, and to the fire of the electrical fluid, is very different; nor is the relation of the compound metals to each, less uncertain. Lead, therefore, is the worst metal for conductors, and copper the best, particularly as it adds to the difficulty of its fusion the property of not rusting. Iron, brass, and copper, formed globules when fused; but the other metals did not. The globules are sometimes thrown to the distance of thirty feet; and those of copper remain eight or ten seconds in a red state; yet, when melted in the fire, though the globules are larger, they continue red only two or three seconds. If the wires are too long, a part only is fused; and if different parts are united by a knot, the fusion stops at the knot. M. Van Marum confirms the observation of M. Nairne, that an iron wire of .8 inches is shortened $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, by being brought to a red state, in consequence of a discharge of electricity.

Our author has continued his experiments on the calcination of metals; but the colours of paper, on which the metal is calcined, is expressed by illuminated plates. We can only describe them imperfectly. Lead is most easily calcined, and part of the calx is dissipated in smoke; the rest forms a flame-coloured spot, shaded with different colours, from the greater or less degree of calcination of the different globules. A tin wire calcined gave smoke-filled with filaments, and globules which rebounded from the paper several times. The spots which the globules left were yellow. Iron is difficultly calcined: it is dissipated in smoke and in globules, which leave a dull reddish colour. Copper is still more refractory: its spots are green, yellow, and a shaded brown. Brass is more easily calcined; and the appearances differ a little on account of the zinc which it contains. The calx of silver is grey, or brown; that of gold, purple. The globules of gold calcine on the surface, while they remain red, though they are unalterable in a common fire: they probably require a greater proportion of air than they can receive in a mass. M. Van Marum explains calcination by the antiphlogistic doctrine, a system which seems to gain ground on the continent.

Iron, lead, and tin, are melted by the electrical stroke, in phlogisticated air; but they cannot be calcined in it. Lead calcines more easily and completely in pure than in atmospheric air; but the other metals are calcined with equal ease in each. The globules of iron acquire a much greater heat in pure air. Lead and tin are calcined in nitrous air, as well as in common air. Our author calcined metals in water; but he could calcine only one-eighth of what could be calcined by the same force in air. They furnished in calcination an elastic fluid; that of tin was inflammable air; but in general the air of the water mixes with the air of the metal: so that the experiments are to be pursued

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in water deprived of air, by boiling. We have reason to expect that they will produce important consequences.

M. Van Marum has proved, that if a conductor is too small to carry a charge of electricity from the clouds, it will jump to the nearest and most powerful conductor. He, therefore, recommends them to be of copper, and to be in the form of a rod, so large as not to be melted, or made red-hot by any shock which they may be expected to conduct. He confirms what Dr. Priestley has said of the lateral pressure, and, of course, advises that the conductors should not be fixed in the masonry.—He confirms Dr. Priestley's explanation of earthquakes, from the same pressure, and has rendered it more conspicuous by placing the water between two bad conductors. Our author formed nitrous acid too, in the manner of Mr. Cavendish; but, as this experiment is now pursuing in a peculiar manner, we shall not enlarge on it.

Two ounces and a half of pure air, placed on mercury, and electrified, was reduced to one-fifth of its quantity, and the mercury was calcined. Three inches of phlogisticated air, by the same means, was, after ten minutes, augmented three-eighths of its bulk. A caustic liquor did not diminish it, but before the next morning the augmentation subsided. M. Van Marum concludes that this expansion arose from the heat, or from the electrical fluid increasing, by some other means, the repulsion between the particles of air. Nitrous air, tried in the same way, with a caustic lixivium, was changed into phlogisticated air; and the lixivium contained nitre. Yet the same change was observed after three weeks, without the assistance of electricity. Inflammable air, in a similar experiment, gave no signs of acidity; it was only a little dilated. Alkaline air was expanded after being electrified, and was no longer absorbed by water: it was partly inflammable.

To explain some electrical phenomena, our author made two balloons of the amnios of a calf; and having filled them with inflammable air, balanced them so as to keep them in the lower region of the atmosphere. One was electrified positively, the other negatively. They soon arose and moved towards each other; they then descended slowly. Clouds, in similar situations, rise and become more rare; they cannot consequently hold so much vapour as before. He imitated thunder and lightning also in miniature, by electrifying surfaces of bronze and copper gilt. The sparks from these surfaces are said to resemble storms in miniature, at a distance.

While we are speaking on these subjects, we may shortly notice some extracts from a manuscript on the winds, by M. Durculla: it is entitled 'Objects of Enquiry.' We cannot explain his opinions at length, as they depend on diagrams. The origin of winds is, he thinks, the condensation of vapour, since every cubic inch of rain must be replaced by a mass of air equal to the bulk which the rain formerly assumed in its state of vapour. It is the great evaporation from the sea which keeps that element so cool:

cool: if all the heat absorbed by the sea in a year were to become sensible at once, it would be almost sufficient, in our author's opinion, to make the Mediterranean boil. The southern hemisphere is said to be colder than the northern, as the proportion of land to sea, beyond the tropics, is very inconsiderable. It follows, from his calculations, that the trade-winds are of three kinds, viz. those between the east and the visible pole: they last more than six months; and even this excess increases with the intertropical latitude. 2dly, Between the west and the invisible pole; they continue less than half a year; and this diminution is farther increased between the same latitudes. 3dly, In the space where the usual trade-winds prevail, in the neighbourhood of the torrid zone, the regular winds are constantly between the east and the visible pole. The easterly winds must, therefore, be peculiarly prevalent.

To conclude the subject of meteorology at present, we shall shortly mention the Society at Manheim, and the contents of their former volumes. The elector Palatine, who is also duke of Bavaria, in order to remedy the inconveniencies which arise from detailing observations made with various instruments, distributed many, of different kinds, made in an uniform manner, to observers of different countries. The academy, which he instituted for the purpose of improving meteorological observations, in conformity to the intentions of the prince, ordered the most perfect and uniform barometers, thermometers, hygrometers, and compasses, to be constructed under the inspection of its own members, and to be distributed to different universities. The Capuchins of Mount St. Gothard in Switzerland, the university of Cambridge in America, the Academies of Sciences of Petersburg, Copenhagen, and Stockholm, have among others received them; and they expect to find attentive observers also in India and Africa. The society was instituted in 1780; and, in 1782, their first volume appeared, under the title of '*Ephemerides Societatis Meteorologicæ Palatinæ.*' It is in large quarto, beautifully printed on fine paper. It contained, besides the usual appendages of preface, description, &c. meteorological observations made in different places, during the year 1781. The second volume contains the observations of 1782, and a dissertation from America, on the varieties in the pressure of the atmosphere. In the third volume are the observations of 1783; a description of Cavallo's electrometer rendered more perfect; a dissertation on the oscillation of the mercury in the Torricellian tube; a history and description of the earthquakes in Calabria and Sicily, and of the burning of the earth in Iceland. The fourth volume contains the observations of 1784; a dissertation on the diurnal and nocturnal oscillation of the barometer; observations on the rigour of the cold in Flanders; different descriptions of the inundations of that year. In the fifth volume are the observations of 1785, and a memoir on the constant descent of the barometer during the passage of the sun over the meridian at noon and night. This
volume

volume was unusually delayed, and we have heard of no more. The Academy proposed a subscription for the sixth volume, as the expences exceeded their funds; and, if this plan fails, they will confine themselves to an abridgment of their observations: they offer the sixth volume, of 736 pages, for six Rhenish florins, or fifteen French livres (about twelve shillings and six pence sterling.) The observers are to receive a copy gratis.

We must add, however, to this subject, some intelligence from the Manheim Academy, received at the moment of our writing. 'The abbé Hemmer, director of the academy of natural philosophy to the elector Palatine, has just made three curious discoveries: the flame of every burning body is always electrified negatively: the barometer always makes an effort to descend, when the sun passes the meridian: and animals have always a perpetual spontaneous electricity.' Of these discoveries two are anticipated: the second in the fifth volume of their own Transactions. We find conductors to guard against lightning are very common in the Palatinate. M. Hemmer has himself erected one hundred and sixty on houses, magazines, and churches. In a late thunder-storm in Provence, in France, the thunder struck the bell, and killed a monk, who was zealously tolling it with a view to dissipate the accumulation of the electrical fluid. A conductor would have saved his life, and enabled him to pursue his unphilosophical or superstitious plan in safety.

We have stepped a little out of our way; but it is on collateral, and not, we presume, on uninteresting subjects: we must now return to our former companion, M. Reynier. His observations on the generation of plants do not add much to the force of his system, though they contain some facts of importance. His experiments were first directed to the effects which result from depriving flowers of the sexual organs; the operation seemed to have no effect on the duration of the flower. In many instances, however, there was an attempt to reproduce the stamina and pistils; for the flower threw out filaments from the wounded part, of different lengths. It does not appear that the antheræ were ever reproduced. This consequence was very conspicuous in the *geum rivale*; in different kinds of mallows; in the *æchinopus ritro*. It was less observable in different species of *ranunculus*, the *philadelphus coronarius*, the *clematis erecta*, and *viticilla* and the *cratægus tomentosus*. It was not observed in different kinds of iris, the *hibiscus Syriacus*, and some others. The light seemed greatly to influence the elongation; and, in some instances, it seemed merely a natural developement. It was remarkable in the *ruta graveolens*, which has five stamina standing against the pistils, and five laying on the petals, that when the first five were cut off, the others assumed their place.

In the second part the author considers more particularly the generation of plants. He recurs to Spalanzani's experiments, and adds one other of his own, on the *treisième* (we know not exactly the Linnæan name.) Before the corolla was opened, he cut

cut away all the sexual parts, and destroyed all the other flowers in their bud: of five flowers, two gave fruitful seeds, the rest withered. On this principle, he again enforces the doctrine of organic molecules, with additional power. But it is sufficient to observe, in the words of a very intelligent French author, that a few instances are of little importance. No one will deny the animal generation, because Bonnet found the puceron (the insect called the vine-fretter, from its usual habitation) might at once fecundate many successive generations. Besides, it does not appear that M. Reynier kept his flowers from the access of insects; or that other plants of the same kind were not in the neighbourhood, from which the pollen may be brought by the wind.

That the parts of flowers usually styled sexual, particularly the stamina, are organs of the greatest importance, is evident from their possessing irritability, and even spontaneous motion. In almost all the species of cistus, if the antheræ are irritated with a pin, they diverge from the centre. Many instances of their spontaneous motions are mentioned in the *Sponsalia Plantarum*, in the *Amœnitates Academicæ*; and various others are accumulated, in a memoir read lately to the Royal Academy of Sciences, by M. des Fontaines. This gentleman is professor in the botanical garden at Paris; and to numerous opportunities adds unwearied attention. A very sensible motion is observed in the stamina of many plants, at the moment when the antheræ are expanding, and the pollen is ready to escape. By this motion, the anthera is directed towards the pistil, and, in some instances, after the pollen is dispersed, the stamen returns to its former station. The approach of the male organs is perceived in the class of lilies: in the *fritillaria Perfica*, the garlicks, and the *ornithogalums*, the return of the organ to its former station is conspicuous. In some of the other species of *fritillaria*, where the difference in length would render this approach useless, the flower remains till the antheræ burst; the flower then changes its pendant situation for an upright one. The peculiar situation was no longer necessary. The stamina in the different kinds of rue, from a right angle, and, from lying concealed in the hollows of the petals, rise upright, at the moment of impregnation. In the white dittany, the stamina hang down and bend, at the proper time to reach the pistil, in the form of an arch. In the *tropæolum*, the *geranium fuscum*, *alpinum*, and *reflexum*, the motions are similar. In plants where there are numerous stamina, they approach sometimes singly, sometimes in pairs, or three and three, or all at once. This motion is very uniform and regular; it occurs at one time, always in the same order in the same flower, and not in those where the end could not be obtained by the motion; so that it is impossible to refer it to a mechanical cause, or to consider it as fortuitous. In some plants, the motion may be mechanical, where the stamina are connected with the leaves, and their expansion raises the anthera. There are instances of this

this kind in the forkales, the parietaria, the flowers of the nettle, and some others. It is impossible to mention all the variety of motions, or the names of plants, whose irritability is pointed out in this memoir; it is of consequence, however, to observe, that the stamina of every plant are not irritable. In a few kinds, where the antheræ are naturally placed near the style, it cannot be expected; but no irritability has been perceived in some plants where they are at a distance.

There are some motions observable in the pistils, not reconcilable to mechanical causes: they occur in the styles, and even in the stigmata. The motion of the pistil towards the anthera; and the subsequent change of situation, may be easily observed in the passiflora, the nigella, and the lilium superbum. The different appearance of the stigmata of the common tulip, and the gratiola, before and after the explosion of the pollen, is very obvious. These are the facts mentioned by our very intelligent author, who concludes his memoir by some remarks which are designed to prove, that these different motions cannot be mechanical. But, if mechanism be considered as effects necessarily arising from a peculiar organization, in consequence of any given cause, his opinion is not well founded; and indeed, in that sense many of our own operations may be styled mechanical. His meaning, therefore, seems to be only that they depend on irritability, and consequently on life.

The number of moving plants, not only which move on an irritation, but which, like the *æschynomene movens*, perform regular revolutions, has been much increased. A species of *hedysarum*, brought some years since from the banks of the Ganges, has, from this property, been styled the gyrons. It was described by M. Bruffonet, very lately; but the plant is known in England, for it flowered in 1777 in Lord Bute's garden. It was discovered in India by lady Monson; and a specimen is at present in sir Joseph Banks' collection. It occurs in the Supplement of the younger Linnæus; but has only been described and delineated by M. Bruffonet. The chief motion is in the lateral folioles, which rise and sink alternately, describing the arc of a circle: the motion is in the foot-stalk, and is rather an oscillation than gyration.

M. Bruffonet has lately added to his observations on fish, and finds, that the fins, when cut off, are reproduced. Since the publication at Gottingen, relating to the reproduction of the parts of animals, naturalists have taken different sides, and, while some contend that every part of our body may be regenerated, others confine the reproduction to those parts which are not primitive and original. When divided, they are united again by a substance resembling the original, without possessing its peculiar properties. M. Bruffonet is of the former opinion, and it may hold in fish as it does in the insect tribe, though the more perfect animals have no such properties. M. Plumenbach, professor at Gottingen, tells us, that even the eyes of salamanders, after be-
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ing taken out, are reproduced. Speculative science should never be supported by such inhumanity. The opposite opinion is well defended, in a dissertation published at Strasburg, by M. Egtins, 'De Consolidatione Vulnerum.'—If we recollect rightly, M. Fontana found, that though divided nerves were reunited by a substance seemingly nervous, yet he could never trace the fibrous structure in this new part; and scarcely, in any instance, was sensibility and motion recovered. Yet we see Fontana arranged on the opposite side, in this controversy: perhaps his opinion may be changed in consequence of new experiments.

We cannot boast of many new-discovered quadrupeds; yet we ought to mention M. Schreiber's new work. It is a description of the quadrupeds already known, taken from the best authors, and illustrated with coloured plates. The text is in German and French; and the figures are often taken from the life: the descriptions are, however, sometimes imperfect.—There are two new works, publishing on ornithology in fasciculi or numbers: one at Gottingen by M. Moerhem, illustrated with plates; and the other by Sparman. The last contains many not yet described; in the first we have no reason to expect much novelty.—Fabricius has published the first volume of his new work on insects, which contains many additional species. The first fasciculi of the history of the fish peculiar to Austria are publishing at Vienna.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

The Abbey of Ambresbury. A Poem. Part First. 4to. 2s. Cadell.

THIS poem is founded on some manuscripts relative to the abbey, and events which have happened in it. Should it meet with approbation, it will be followed by a second part. Its chief tendency is to decry absurd institutions,

'Which under colour passion to controul,
Enthral the active virtues of the soul.'

The story of Eltruda, who, in obedience to a father's dying commands, renounces the prospect of domestic happiness, and prefers the veil to a deserving lover, takes up the greater part of the poem. There is but little novelty in the tale, or mode of relating it; the diction is, however, sufficiently easy and perspicuous, and sometimes elegant and pathetic.

Jekyll: a Political Eclogue. 4to. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This is one of the little squibs of a party, powerful at least in words, in wit, and in humours. The shaft is directed against Mr. Jekyll, as the supposed pupil of the marquis of Lansdown, because he was returned for the borough of Calne; but the arrow is harmless, and, though winged with wit, is not pointed by ill-nature, or poisoned by malice.

We shall select Mr. Jekyll's supposed soliloquy, which is humorous and sarcastical.

'Where were our friends, when the remorseless crew
Of felon whigs—great Lansdown's pow'r o'erthrew?
For neither then, within St. Stephen's wall
Obedient Westcote hail'd the treasury-call;
Nor treachery then had branded Eden's fame,
Or taught mankind the miscreant Minchin's name.
Joyful no more (tho' Tommy spoke so long)
Was high-born Howard's cry, or Powney's prating tongue:
Vain was thy roar, Mahon!—tho' loud and deep;
Not our own Gilbert could be rous'd from sleep.
No bargain yet, the tribe of Phipps had made:
Lansdown! you fought in vain ev'n Mulgrave's aid;
Mulgrave—at whose harsh scream, in wild surprise,
The speechless speaker lifts his drowsy eyes.
Ah! hapless day! still, as thy hours return,
Let Jesuits, Jews, and sad Dissenters mourn!
Each quack and sympathizing juggler groan,
While bankrupt brokers echo moan for moan.
Oh! much-lov'd peer!—my patron!—model!—friend!
How does thy alter'd state my bosom rend.
Alas! the ways of courts are strange and dark!
Pitt scarce would make thee now—a treasury-clerk!'

Aithan and Galvina, a Tale. By J. J. 4to. 1s. Hookham.

The author has thought proper to explain the circumstances which constitute a 'well managed tale,' and appeals to the public whether the present does not answer his definition. We have less to object to the story than to him, for not acknowledging that he has closely copied it from the episode of Comal and Galvina, at the conclusion of the second book of Fingal.

A Trip to Parnassus; or, the Judgment of Apollo on Dramatic Authors and Performers. A Poem. 4to. 2s. Abraham.

Every modish faunterer, in his casual trips, will stop at the theatre, and give his opinion, incidentally, of the piece and the actors, or will remain there, and review the whole set at his leisure. From the splendor of the Rosciad many ephemera were raised into existence, which buzzed a while, and were forgotten. Our authorefs may live a little longer: she is a harmless fly, without a sting. In this poem some authors are crowned at Parnassus, who, if we may judge from their works, were never in sight of the mountain; and some encouraged by Apollo, whose names must have been unknown to the god of wit. But this lady is more inclined to praise than blame; nor will she sacrifice each well-meaning candidate for fame, to raise a pile to some favourite idol of fashion or prejudice. Of her poetry we can say but little: there are no gross defects; but there are no striking beauties.

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Slavery;

Slavery; a Poem. By Hannah More. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

Religion, philosophy, and poetry, have of late vied with each other in deploring the fate of the unhappy negroes, and in endeavouring to interest the reason, feelings, and fancy, in their favour. Their united efforts, it is to be hoped, will be crowned with some degree of success; though immediate or absolute emancipation, as we have already observed, is scarcely to be wished, or expected. Interested considerations, placed in the opposite scale, will probably counterbalance the advantages which policy might allow. The load, however, may be lightened, though not totally removed. The natives of Congo and Angola, if a liberal code of laws was instituted in their favour, and guardians of their rights appointed in different districts, would possibly have little reason to repine at their state of servitude. However that may be, Miss More shews herself no despicable advocate in their favour, as the following passage, in which the sentiments are no less just than happily expressed, will sufficiently shew.

‘Perish th’ illiberal thought which wou’d debase

The native genius of the sable race!

Perish the proud philosophy, which sought

To rob them of the pow’rs of equal thought!

Does then th’ immortal principle within

Change with the casual colour of a skin?

Does matter govern spirit? or is mind

Degraded by the form to which ’tis join’d?

No: they have heads to think, and hearts to feel,

And souls to act, with firm, tho’ erring zeal;

For they have keen affections, kind desires,

Love strong as death, and active patriot fires;

All the rude energy, the fervid flame,

Of high-soul’d passion, and ingenuous shame:

Strong, but luxuriant virtues boldly shoot

From the wild vigour of a savage root.

Nor weak their sense of honour’s proud control;

For pride is virtue in a Pagan soul;

A sense of worth, a conscience of desert,

A high, unbroken haughtiness of heart;

That self-same stuff which erst proud empires sway’d,

Of which the conquerors of the world were made.

Capricious fate of man! that very pride

In Afric scourg’d, in Rome was deify’d.’

AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE.

A Proposal for the Consideration of those who interest themselves in the Abolition or Preservation of the Slave Trade. 8vo. 6d. Lowndes.

Our author, with much candour, suggests that, as we aim at procuring the happiness of the Africans, it is not of great consequence whether they languish in servitude under the tyranny of

of a black master, or of a West Indian planter. Besides, he adds, that their lives are sometimes spared because they will be a lucrative object of commerce. The proposer is not aware, that many wars are projected and carried on in Africa for the only purpose of supplying the slave market; and that death, at any rate, must be a favour in comparison of the miseries which slaves often suffer, both previous and subsequent to their importation.—He proposes not to abolish but to regulate slavery; and to render the importation less necessary; by securing good treatment to the negro. This is the converse of our plan: we wished to secure good treatment, by preventing the importation; and as in this way, we speak more immediately to the interests of the planter, we hope that we shall be better attended to. This author also recommends a greater attention to their religious instruction, in which the English planters are, we fear, often deficient.

An Occasional Discourse, preached in the Cathedral of York, on the Subject of the African Slave Trade. By W. Mason, M. A. 4to. 11. Robison and Clarke.

While the earnest exhortations of humanity, the active endeavours of the wise and good; while reason dictates, tenderness pleads, and the insinuating charms of poetry allure; while all tend to one good end, the emancipation of our brethren in slavery, the pulpit*, from which the noble design first proceeded, should not be silent—it is not: we have now before us five discourses, which merit considerable praise, and display the goodness of the preachers' hearts, their piety, their benevolence, and their judgment.

Mr. Mason adopts for his text the quotation from the Greek poet; which St. Paul applies very forcibly in one of his exhortations. It occurs in Acts xviii. 28. 'For we also are his offspring.' The sermon commences by a general outline of St. Paul's general plan of reasoning, to allure the Gentiles; those haughty Greeks, who called every other nation barbarians. The words of the text, from one of their own poets; was applied with great force and good effect; while, in our author's hands; its power is not lost, when he points out that it is a great, a leading, a fundamental doctrine of Christianity, that God is the father of all, and that we are ALL, without exception of place or time, or any accidental circumstances; HIS offspring.

Mr. Mason is, throughout the whole discourse, warm; spirited, and energetic:—it is a noble sight to see a whole kingdom rise at once, in opposition to slavery; and it is the most animating consolation to reflect that, in a cause like this, religion and humanity must smile on the attempt, even though it should prove abortive.

* If we mistake not, the design of abolishing the slave trade was first recommended in a sermon by bishop Warburton, long before even the benevolent solicitations of the Quakers appeared.—Since writing this note, we find our suspicion well-founded.

A Sermon on the Subject of the Slave Trade. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 1s. Johnson.

On this subject there is no dissent: Dr. Priestley joins with Mr. Mason, and both labour earnestly in this truly Christian task. On this subject too, there is little room for criticism, for he who means well may be freely forgiven, though he should err in trifling points. From our present author we have occasionally differed; but we never so entirely coincided with him as in the Sermon before us, though, on one or two circumstances, we cannot join him with much cordiality. On the whole, however, this sermon is truly valuable, and may be very serviceable to the cause of humanity.

The foundation of this Sermon is similar to that of Mr. Mason's: indeed, Christian divines cannot easily differ on the least doubtful tenet of the Gospel, charity and good-will towards men. Dr. Priestley examines the state of the negro trade, and the condition of the West Indian slaves, without improper exaggeration, or unjust representation. He answers, with great coolness, and with much reason, the arguments for this trade, drawn either from the state of the Africans, the good treatment of some of the slaves, or even from political motives. He agrees in the opinion which we have already offered, that to prevent the farther importation is the only step that can at present be taken with propriety; and he adds to it a proposal, that a negro should be permitted to acquire his freedom by his work; or rather by his diligence, industry, and good behaviour.

Dr. Priestley and Mr. Mason mention that passage in Volney's Travels, in which he speaks of the original Egyptians having been negroes. We mention it again, chiefly to draw some attention to the extraordinary assertion, which we had great reason, in our review of that work, to think not well-founded. Perhaps Dr. White may elucidate it in his History of Lower Egypt.

Justice and Mercy recommended, particularly with Reference to the Slave Trade. A Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge. By P. Peckard, D.D. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

Dr. Peckard, in his official capacity, gave out the subject of the prize, which was gained by Mr. Clarkson, whose work on the indefensibleness of slavery, has been received with so much regard, and contributed to animate many zealous friends to the rights and liberties of mankind in this cause. Of course his merit has not been, hitherto, inconsiderable; and, in the present sermon, he displays equal zeal, with much judgment and forcible reasoning. His text is from the prophet Micah vi. 8. 'He hath shewed thee, O man, what is good; and what doth the Lord require of thee but to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God.'

Dr. Peckard enforces the necessity of showing mercy in the strongest light: he opposes some of the arguments in favour of

the slave trade; and shows, from various facts, that to treat the slaves with humanity, is highly advantageous even to the temporal interests of the planter. In many respects, this Sermon deserves our approbation.

The Abolition of the Slave Trade considered in a Religious Point of View. A Sermon, preached before the Corporation of Oxford. By William Agutter, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Mr. Agutter contends for the abolition of the slave trade, on religious principles; as in creation and redemption they are partakers with us of the divine mercies, they should, he argues, be considered as brethren. In a consultation at the Hotel Dieu, when a desperate remedy was proposed, one of the physicians observed, 'hat experimentum in corpore vili:' the patient, who retained his senses, and understood the language, looking with steadiness on the physician who had spoken, replied, 'Nullum corpus vile est, pro quo non dedignatus est Christus mori.' The reply may well be retorted on those who would continue to transport by fraud, by oppression and violence, the unoffending African, and attempt to justify the infamy of the transaction by alledging their inferior powers and capacities as an excuse.

A Discourse in Favour of the Abolition of Slavery in the British West Indies. By W. Hughes, M. A. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

The first Sunday in Lent, on which this Discourse was preached, is ingeniously connected with the subject, by means of the text, 'Is not this the fast that I have chosen? to loose the bands of wickedness, to undo the heavy burthens, and to let the oppressed go free?' Is. lviii. 6. The author examines the state of servitude among the Jews; its aggravation among the Romans, till the milder radiance of the Gospel mitigated its severity, and may, in due time, probably destroy every part of the system, leaving only its vestiges in the accumulated descriptions of its horrors. Mr. Hughes is an ingenious advocate, and, on the whole, deserves great commendation.

MISCELLANEOUS SERMONS.

Two Sermons, preached in his Majesty's Chapel at Whitehall. By J. Hayter, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

The first of these Sermons is on the 16th verse of the xvth chapter of St. Mark 'He that believeth and is baptized shall be saved.' Mr. Hayter shews, that the term 'saved' is often used in a collective, rather than in a particular sense, and means one of the chosen and elected, whose future destiny must, however, still depend on his own merits. Thus the Jewish nation is said, at times, to be chosen and to be saved, though their personal characters were not such as would in general entitle them to divine distinction. From this meaning of the term, he proceeds to consider the abuse of it among some sects of fanatics, and points out, with much precision, the effects of some few obscure passages of Scripture, not properly discriminated, or thoroughly understood by the gloomy and often the uninformed sectari.

The second is from St. Luke: 'He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.' Mr. Hayter applies these words to the intellectual ears rather than the corporeal; and, from this view, he takes occasion to direct some just and pointed arguments towards the unbeliever. He answers a few of the objections of the sceptic very properly, and seems to consider it as an inevitable consequence, that morality must fall with religion. We have had occasion to observe, that the opposers of religion are peculiarly exact in their moral characters, to give a sanction to their opinions; and this will still be true, while free-thinking is confined to a few men of some abilities and reflection. Mr. Hayter's opinion would probably be just, if religion were generally abandoned.

It is not by accident, or from refinement, that we have used the terms of 'opposers of religion,' and 'free-thinking.' The terms are best adapted to the persons and their opinions. There are many truly religious Deists; and we believe there is scarcely, in any instance, a real Atheist. We have known many reputed ones, who have endeavoured to reason away the existence of a Deity. Their reasons have been of the most trifling kind, and scarcely ever seem to have convinced themselves; but, whatever becomes of their reasoning, their feelings have always contradicted it. Religion is so intimately interwoven with the human heart, that it cannot be torn from it: religious sentiments will return, and cause a perpetual war in the bosom. But in our digression, we must not forget Mr. Hayter, whose two Sermons are excellent. With sound sense he unites a very clear and perspicuous language; with much information he joins a happy method of explaining it.

A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, on Wednesday, January 30, 1788. By Samuel Lord Bishop of Gloucester. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

In this Sermon his lordship points out that trait of Christianity which teaches submission to the powers that be, because they are ordained of God. The text is from St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans, xiii. 1, 2. 'Let every soul be subject to the higher powers; for there is no power but of God; the powers that be are ordained of God; whosoever therefore resisteth the power, resisteth the ordinance of God.' From the latter part he does not draw the slavish tenet of absolute non-resistance, but refers to the implied compact between the governor and the governed; and hints, that a failure on one part may justify a resistance on the other. Though we give his lordship full credit for the good sense and the liberality of this position, we do not see how it is connected with the text; nor can we think it peculiarly applicable to the solemnity which the lords spiritual and temporal were met to commemorate.

In other respects, the candour, the judgment, and the good sense of this Sermon render it, in our opinion, truly excellent. His lordship traces the changes which have, at various times, taken place in Christianity; he shows how they have been connected

ected with the state; explains the foundation of the union between the civil and religious systems, in the plainest and most convincing manner; and he shows the expediency of surrounding the national religion with the pale of a test act. We may assume the credit of having coincided with his lordship on these points, generally on the same grounds: yet, perhaps, when the preacher pointed out the reason of preferring one form of religion to the rank of an establishment rather than another, he might have added, that the government would undoubtedly choose that which was most favourable to the claims of the reigning monarch. This does not apply, indeed, to our own times, since the king did not establish our national religion, but that establishment was the great foundation on which the family of Brunswick rested its claims.

His lordship's sentiments on the test-act we shall beg leave to select, and with them we shall conclude our account of this admirable discourse.

'It is of the nature of religious sects, as such, to conceive their own system of faith and worship to be purer and to approach nearer the standard of perfection than that of any other; for on no principle but this can they be supposed to have separated from other religious societies, whether national or tolerated. Under this persuasion they will always be trying (and the more sincere they are in their persuasion, the more earnestly they will be trying) to propagate their own opinions, and to advance their own models on the ruins of the rest; and, as the surest way of effecting this, to interest the state in their service, by gaining a part of the legislature to their side. In this pursuit, besides the simple motive of truth, it may be presumed, they will be not a little stimulated, from the view of those temporal emoluments which they see annexed to the religion of the magistrate, and from which they themselves, unjustly, as they will think, are at present excluded. Nor is there any other way of preventing them from accomplishing their designs, and erecting themselves into the national church, than by keeping them out of the public administration, and taking care that offices of trust and dignity, in the disposal of government, shall be conferred on such persons only, whose principles incline them to preserve the constitution in all its parts. Now this is the precise business of a test: not as an artful mode of harassing our adversaries, but as a prudential provision to secure ourselves; not as an engine of oppression, to lay men under legal disabilities, because they profess not the true faith; but as a weapon of defence, to guard us from the attacks of those who are prepared to catch at every opportunity to do us harm: not as a penal law, and by way of punishment for opinions; for with opinions, provided they be neither destructive of private virtue nor subversive of civil authority, the Magistrate has no concern; but as a law of restraint, by which the men, who hold opinions unfriendly to the religion of the state, are withheld from situations, where they might possibly reduce those opinions to practice;

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practice: not that the national church may persecute its opponents, but that it may not lie at the mercy of its enemies; not that it may become a tyrant, but that it may not become a slave."

A Discourse read in the Chapel at Belvoir Castle after the Funeral of his Grace the Duke of Rutland. By the reverend George Crabbe. 4to. 1s. Dodsley.

This is an elegant and a pathetic eulogium. If the late duke of Rutland was so amiable, so able, and so great as he is represented, the national loss, in his death, is considerable, and we would join the preacher in his lamentation. Something must be allowed to private friendship; something to Mr. Crabbe's peculiar situation. There were, undoubtedly, in the late duke, virtues which time would probably have rendered still more conspicuous; there were probably faults which, in a longer life, we charitably hope would have been amended.

P O L I T I C A L.

Observations relative to the Taxes upon Windows or Lights. By John Lewis De Lolme, LL. D. 4to. 3s. Richardson.

Had not the name of Mr. De Lolme been prefixed to this pamphlet, we never should have supposed it to proceed from the author of 'the Constitution of England,'

Quantum mutatus ab illo!

The sagacious political writer is now sunk into a whimsical satirist, exposing to ridicule the tax upon windows, with a levity as disgusting as it is tedious. The result of the whole is to recommend, instead of it, a tax on the capacity or tonnage of houses. The best arguments which the author produces for this substitution are, that the manufacture of glass, and of window sashes, would not be discouraged, as he thinks they must be by the present impost. Mr. De Lolme, however, is against relinquishing entirely the tax upon windows: he would continue it at the rate of a sixpence upon each; but insists that the produce of such a tax be expressly appropriated to 'some elegant purpose.' 'I would,' says he, 'have all these additional sixpences set apart as a perpetual fund for paying off the debts of future princes of Wales,—for giving portions to princesses royal, as well as entertainments on occasion of their marriages,—and for defraying the expences of fire-works on the king's birth-days.' The virtuous advocate of Geneva, who declares himself an enemy to 'unreasonable' taxes, would yet propose one, the chief purpose of which is nothing else than the encouragement of luxury.

To the observations already-mentioned, are added others on the shop-tax, and the late act relative to hawkers and pedlars, all written in a similar strain: with a hint for the improvement of the metropolis; which consists in removing the cattle-market from Smithfield to the fields north of the town, and supplying the cattle with water,

Impar.

Impartial Reflections on the Proceedings of Government, and of the Court of Directors, respecting the four Regiments raising for the service of this Country in the East Indies. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Morgan.

The writer of this pamphlet defends the conduct of those directors who have resisted the authority of government in sending out the four regiments to India. The subject has been so fully discussed in parliament, that the public is already in possession of all the arguments advanced in the course of the contest. It is at length happily terminated; and that with additional security, not only to the British dominions in the East, but to the constitution of our government.

Letters on the Politics of France. By an English Gentleman at Paris. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

This writer is an advocate for the French king, against the late opposition of his parliaments, which he affirms were not actuated by a regard for the liberty of the subject, nor by any desire of an improvement in the constitution or the laws of the kingdom; but by the misconception of a measure which became necessary, from the disordered state of the finances. But when he admits, in the fourth letter, that their efforts were levelled at the king's power of taxing his people, we cannot easily reconcile the result of this acknowledgment with the observations above specified. If any thing farther were necessary to convince us that this author, notwithstanding his assumed title of 'an English gentleman at Paris,' is really an humble devotee of the monarchical power of France, it would be the following observations on one of the most important circumstances in the British constitution.

'The house of commons has held the strings of the national purse, while the sum of no less than two hundred and forty millions of pounds sterling has been expended, besides the ordinary revenue, and till the annual expences have increased from being under two millions a year, to upwards of fifteen millions.

'They have disputed and quarrelled about the money, and done every thing but save it. In short, their œconomy, without prudence, has led the nation into more than one half of that amazing expence; and, it is more than probable, that a nation less jealous of the power of laying on taxes, would not have expended near so much. While you have had armies abroad, and fleets at sea, the debates, cabals, and intrigues of the house of commons, have undone all that they have been doing. The king has retained the power of expending money without responsibility. He can order ships to sea, and armies to march. But then the people alone, by their representatives, are to decide concerning the means of supplying the money to pay them, What a farce is this! What a children's trick! And yet this pleases the nation. This pleases a sensible, intelligent, and well-meaning people!!!'

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It will require more convincing arguments than an exclamation, to persuade the people of Great Britain that the command of the public purse is a matter of no consequence in government. Had this author consulted the writings of the illustrious Montesquieu, he would not have hazarded a sentiment so repugnant to the plainest maxims in politics.

A hasty Sketch of the Conduct of the Commissioners for the Affairs of India. 8vo. 6d. Debrett.

When an author professes to state to the public any political transaction of importance, it is his duty to perform the task with impartiality and precision. But we must acknowledge we find neither of these qualifications in the pamphlet now before us. The avowed haste of the writer is urged as an excuse for inaccuracy; and inaccuracy gives rise to misrepresentation. A Sketch, therefore, which can only merit attention by its justness, is substituted, however erroneous, for a faithful narrative; while some circumstances necessary to be known are suppressed, and others either perverted or exaggerated. We must content ourselves with these general remarks on this pamphlet, as a minute examination of it would not only exceed our limits, but be extremely disproportioned to the degree of notice which such a production requires.

M E D I C A L.

Elements of Medical Jurisprudence. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Becket.

This is a translation of a work of Faselius, under the same title. The chapter, however, on insanity, is added by the translator, Dr. Farr. A work of this kind was, indeed, much wanted; but the necessary facts are not sufficiently distinguished from the trifling; and those most essential, in any given case, from those that are less so. Much useless matter also occasionally occurs. The best part of the original work is the chapter on poisons; but the symptoms in consequence of taking vegetable narcotic poisons will not point out the particular poison which has been given, so distinctly as the author supposes. The additional chapter on insanity contains some important lessons, and the rules for preserving the general health of cities are very useful.

The Case of a Boy who had been mistaken for a Girl; with three Anatomical Views of the Parts, before and after the Operation and Cure. By Thomas Brand, Surgeon. 4to. 2s. 6d. Nicol.

In this instance, the testes had not fallen into the scrotum, and the frænum was connected with the lower parts; so that the organ resembled the clitoris. The mistake was easy, and the method of removing the inconveniencies obvious. Mr. Brand thinks, that an hermaphrodite does not exist. Yet, if our memory does not fail us, we once read a description of a person who had the organs of each sex, though we cannot recollect the author. A curious instance of a person of neither sex is quoted in this pamphlet,

A Can-

A Candid Review of Jesse Foot's Observations on the new Opinions of John Hunter, in his late Treatise on the Venereal Disease. By John Peake, Surgeon. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

Mr. Peake thinks, that Mr. Foot's Observations are vulnerable in other parts besides those at which the critical arrows have been directed: we agree with him, that much remains to be remarked; and that even another combatant may find some weak side, on which the attack may be successfully made. Mr. Peake follows the observer very closely; but, though we do not differ from him in general points, there are a few particulars in which we would beg leave to hesitate at least, if not to oppose our brother reviewer. They are not, however, of much consequence. As we were first in the lists against Mr. Foot, we are highly gratified at being attended by authors so respectable as Mr. Peake, Mr. Tyre, and Mr. Brand.

N O V E L S.

Alan Fitzosborne. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Wilkins.

MISS Lee's *Recess*, the parent of the modern historic novels, will strike too forcibly on the reader's mind, and will perhaps have gained too strong an interest in his heart, to leave him an impartial judge, or an unprejudiced critic. When we say that Miss Fuller is inferior to her predecessor, we do not mean to deny her a proper share of praise. These volumes possess great merit; but they do not interest us by events so uncommon; they do not harrow up the soul by distress so accumulated, or rouse the attention by incidents so unexpected as occur in the work just quoted. Miss Fuller's merit is of an humbler kind; she connects the outline of history with a chain of events in domestic life; and interests us as much by the tender affection of Gertrude, as she dazzles by the splendid heroism of Edward.

It too often happens, in this novel, that the men are jealous without reason, and the wives murdered without examination; nor is this the only mark of an unfruitful invention.—Fitzosborne is discovered, as other heroes have been; and Alan takes an eastern spouse, after the example of many of his predecessors. A fastidious critic may also perhaps notice some minute geographical errors, and a rigid moralist point out that the spirit of vengeance is too eager and rancorous.

Notwithstanding these defects, Alan Fitzosborne will be read with much pleasure. The story is well connected, and generally interesting: the language is usually correct and often elegant: the distinctions are just; and the morality, with the little exception already noticed, unblameable. The great morals, which the fair author seems to have particularly aimed at illustrating, are the advantages of an undeviating sincerity and

and regard to truth; with the distress which conscious guilt must induce, even when most apparently prosperous.

If this work be not the first, it should be arranged in the first class of historical novels; and we have pointed out the faults, rather to assist the fair candidate for fame, in her future attempts, than to detract from her present merit.

The History of Leonora Meadwson. By the Author of Betsy Thoughtless. 2 Vols. 5s. Noble.

The spirit which dictated Betsy Thoughtless is evaporated; the fire of the author scarcely sparkles. Even two meagre volumes could not be filled, without a little History of Melinda Fairfax;—without the Tale of Cornaro and the Turk,—a tale told twice, in verse and prose,—a tale already often published, and as often read. Alas, poor author! we catch with regret thy parting breath.

But, as this is probably the last time that we shall meet, as we owe somewhat to the author of Betsy Thoughtless, our first guide in these delusive walks of fiction and fancy, we must give a short account of the present work.—Leonora yields indiscreetly to the wishes of her first lover; she then marries another; she marries again, before she is happy, with the faithful Fleetwood, whom she thought inconstant. Mrs. Munden acted more prudently, though at first *thoughtless* and indiscreet. The tale is, however, neatly told, and we are interested in the fate of our heroine, notwithstanding her first indiscretion, and her two subsequent very unaccountable matches.

The story of Melinda Fairfax is that of the 'Guardian', which has been so often seen on the stage, though with some little variation. The Tale of Cornaro is well known; the poetical version we do not recollect. If it is the work of the author, he deserves our applause: the versification is elegant, and sometimes highly poetical. The descriptive parts are extremely well executed.

The Apparition; a Tale. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Hookham.

This is a pretty little story; but the invention of the author is superior to her powers.—The desk, the ring, and the apparition, are well conceived; but, from a want of force, their effects are inconsiderable. If this tale, as we suppose, is the production of a young author, we have reason to expect something more important in her maturity.

Sidney Place; or the Bracelet. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

This novel is, in many respects, superior to the numerous race of its companions; yet the author stoops with too much servility to the usual inartificial expedients of common authors. Why is the novel called the Bracelet? Why must elegance and beauty be discovered, by accident, in a cottage? These are trite, worn-out anticipations and incidents. It is a question of more consequence, why every pert, slipshod female must be the counter-

counter-part of lady G. in *Mr Charles Grandison*? Is it because in every author the copy is drawn, with various success, from the same original, nature; or that they are indifferent copies from a valuable painting? We shall leave the question undecided. The religious topics are not managed with success; if the 'points' of difference between the Catholics and Protestants were 'immaterial,' we cannot easily see the reason why Clara, for their sake, should have left her father.

Augusta; or the Female Travellers. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Lane.

The story is rather entertaining than interesting; and the entertainment is sometimes afforded at the expence of probability. The French adventures are extremely improbable, though they are, in other respects, more agreeable than any other part of the work, as they display scenes not usual in novels, and the event is kept cautiously out of sight. On the whole, there is little real merit in these volumes, and as little to blame: we were not greatly displeased, but we have no inclination to open them again.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An Appeal to the Public, on the Conduct of Mrs. Gooch, the Wife of William Gooch, Esq. Written by herself. 4to. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

Mrs. Gooch's appeal is dated from the Fleet Prison, where we are sorry to find that this unfortunate lady is at present detained for debt. She is wife of the gentleman who, a few years since, brought into parliament a bill of divorce, which was opposed by the lord chancellor, on the idea that there seemed reason to suspect a collusion between the parties. We sincerely sympathize with her distresses, and wish that her family, which appears to be both opulent and respectable, would afford her such relief as might extricate her from the horrors of a situation sufficiently overwhelming to female fortitude, though it were not embittered by the pangs of remorse, and the severity of implacable relations.

The Flowers of Ancient History; designed for the Improvement and Entertainment of Youth. By the Rev. John Adams, A. M. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Kearsley.

Our author, in filling his bouquet, has given us flowers and weeds, artificial representations, and sometimes the misrepresentations of historians. If we could diminish it to one quarter of its present bulk, we might say, that the incidents were well chosen, related with skill, and occasionally illustrated with judicious remarks. But the grains of corn are in so small a proportion to the chaff, that they do not repay the trouble of seeking them. Had our author styled his collection the subjects of ancient history, and at the same time had mentioned what an Auzæan stable he had wandered in, we should have commended his patience, and pitied him for having been engaged in such an uncomfortable labour.

The Flowers of Modern History. By the Rev. John Adams, A. M.
12mo. 3s. 6d. Kearsley.

When flowers are plucked from their native beds, they soon wither, and become offensive; while, in their best states, they are often misjudged, and ill-fancied ornaments. Mr. Adams has decked himself with the strength of Hume, the splendor of Robertson, the copiousness of Guthrie, the varied elegance of Burke, the curiosa felicitas of Chesterfield, and the unadorned neatness of Goldsmith; and, on the whole, has rendered himself disgusting with ornaments. They are misplaced and improperly connected. We are told, for instance, that in the time of Henry II. Becket was at the head of affairs: it appears as if Henry found him in that situation; and it is only obscurely hinted at, that he made him archbishop of Canterbury; nor is the motive mentioned, viz. that with his aid he might more securely oppose the pope. The penance of Henry at the shrine of Becket, a fact of considerable importance, and the source of much speculation, is not once mentioned; though the disputes, in consequence of Dr. Sacheverell's sermon, occupy whole pages. When the compiler speaks of the crusades, and the military operations in Palestine, he does not distinguish between the undisciplined multitude under the direction of Peter the Hermit, and the more regular armament that afterwards invaded that country. In that section where he treats of Magna Charta, he says it was '*resigned*' by king John, in 1216. The opposition against Charles II. rises and falls within the compass of a line; and James II. is at once in possession of the kingdom, immediately after the Restoration.—The prince of Orange lands at *Brixholme* in Torbay;—James is *naturally* timid;—the duke of Argyll goes to Scotland, collects troops in *Lothian*, and returns to Stirling. These are a few only of the little oversights, which are indeed of no great consequence to the well-informed historian, but which render this work very improper for those into whose hands it must chiefly fall.

A Review of the Memoirs of the Protectoral House of Cromwell. By the Reverend Mark Noble, F. A. S. of L. & E. By William Richards. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell.

We reviewed Mr. Noble's work in our LVIIIth volume, p. 42. with some little indignation at seeing abilities and industry misapplied. Mr. Richards attacks Mr. Noble on account of many errors and misrepresentations. Different mistakes are clearly pointed out; and the conduct of some of the adherents of Cromwell, and of the dissenters of that age, has certainly been greatly misrepresented. It is time now to rise above ridiculous prejudices: there were undoubtedly some wise and good men, who enlisted under the banners of the commonwealth on the purest and best principles, while the opposite army was disgraced by its hypocrites and libertines. It is easy to see, that the justice of the cause is not to be decided by exaggerated praises, or accumulated satire on individuals. Mr. Noble was undoubtedly reprehensible in this respect, and our
author

author sneers improperly at bishops and the hierarchy, because some bishops have been intolerant, unrelenting, and severe. Mr. Richards, on the whole, is, however, much more candid than Mr. Noble, and the style of this letter, addressed to lord Sandwich, the patron of the Memoirs, is mildly expostulatory, and occasionally indignant. Mr. Noble had represented Wales as a barbarous kingdom, and Mr. Richards engages in the defence of this (perhaps his native) country, with much zeal and success. Indeed, while England was harrassed with invasions, devastations, and civil wars, literature fled to the secluded corners of these islands, and we find her in Wales, in Ireland, in the Hebrides, and even in Iceland.

Tales, Apologues, Allegories, Visions, Historical Facts, and Anecdotes; in Verse. By William Walbeck. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder.

These seem to be the gleanings of Mr. Walbeck's common place-book; but we do not perceive the brilliancy which adorned his first sketches; and the humour which once amused us seems to have lost some of its zest. Short pieces are not, probably, well adapted to our author's genius. He wants that sententious brevity which gives force to apophthegms: he has not the expressive force which gives a poignancy to the epigram. His thoughts are expanded, and, like a diluted acid, lose their sharpness by being diffused. Yet, in these little pieces, we see no malevolent sarcasms: the arrows, though pointed, are not directed to a vital part; and our author's sallies are guided often by good humour, pretty generally by strict decorum.

Laura, or Letters from some Persons in Switzerland. By the Author of Camille. Translated from the French. 4 Vols. 12mo. 10s. Hookham.

In the original, we thought these Letters agreeable and entertaining: in the translation they lose much of their power to please, from the awkwardness rather than the incorrectness of the language. The translator cannot, however, deprive the reader of many judicious reflections; nor will his unskilfulness, on the whole, prevent these Letters from being read with some satisfaction and information. The characters and manners, though they may appear to be peculiar, are faithfully drawn, and well supported: to young ladies, in particular, these volumes afford many salutary lessons.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE are well pleased to take our leave of the candid author of the Treatise on Gout and Gravel, in good humour. The experiment he recommended, of adding a few drops of muriatic acid to morning urine, we have tried: he says truly, that the smell is hepatic; but it is not the smell of purulent matter in urine, which is much more nauseously foetid. We suspect, however, that we added too much of the acid. The deposition is not like pus; it is the mucus which occurs in the catarrhus vesicæ.

To his other observations we will shortly reply, by observing that calculi are sometimes of a different nature, as is well remarked, we believe, by Dr. Dawson, in the Medical Transactions, and supported by experiment. We suspect that we may have mistaken the experiment with magnesia, for want of comparing our author's letter with his work.

Though this instance is not quite in point, we are willing to abide by our opinion, which the author has adduced from our Review in December last, respecting the propriety of giving different names to acids apparently different, and are ready to wait till more experiments have been accumulated, before the point in dispute be finally decided. In our review of M. Fourcroy's Chemistry, just published in an English dress, we had tacitly consented to our author's proposal, and had allowed the concreting acid the term of lithiatic. This article was written before the receipt of his letter, which, by an accident, did not reach us in time to reply to it in our last Number. He may be assured that we shall always pay particular attention to an author, who joins with much original information, equal candour and complaisance.

OUR 'Old Correspondent' will see that we have attended to his advice in continuing the account of Natural History and Natural Philosophy, in the Foreign Literary Intelligence. We are well pleased with his approbation of our plan; and, indeed, we find, as he has observed, that by the continued narrative, we can combine more information within a narrower compass, and fix it more securely on the mind, than in any other form.

He advises us to drop the account of the transactions of the foreign Societies, as they are generally related in the newspapers. This subject we have had for some time in contemplation; and if we find they are given with regularity and correctness, we will, with pleasure, resign a task which, though it saves us much labour, yet takes up more room in proportion to its utility than we are willing to allow. Without this assistance we shall feel no want of materials.—He complains that the subjects of the Intelligence are not sufficiently pointed out in the Index: this is an inconvenience which we have ourselves felt, and we have had different schemes in view to remove it. To sacrifice the List of Books, which occurs after the title of each volume, as he and another respectable correspondent have proposed, is to give up a portion of our work which is not without utility, and which has had the sanction of custom; but, on this subject we wish for the opinions of our readers.

WE can assure Mr. Mossop, that we know nothing of the gentleman with whom he is so angry, or of the Letter alluded to. The only objects of our enquiry are the pretensions of authors to civility, learning, or erudition, leaving their titles to their own discretion.—We have no connection with those gentlemen to whom he wishes that we would communicate his letter.

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For APRIL, 1788.

Morsels of Criticism, tending to Illustrate some few Passages in the Holy Scriptures upon Philosophical Principles and an enlarged View of Things. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THE title of this work is equivocal: we opened the book with some dread, lest the 'philosophy' and the 'enlarged view' should be designed to lead us near the confines of the Deist, and lest Mr. King's abilities and character should have been employed to give a force to opinions which will always want the adventitious assistance of wit, humour, or pretended philosophy. It is with great pleasure, however, that we found our apprehensions without foundation; that much just criticism was united with sound philosophy; much ingenuity connected with extensive information. While we give our sincere tribute of applause to the author's attempt, we must own that he has seldom convinced us of the points which he has most laboured to establish. We have formerly observed, and every new attempt gives additional confirmation of the remark, that, in every instance, the inspired writers speak, without regard to philosophical precision, and adapt their relations to the popular belief, the general prejudices of mankind. No discoveries in philosophy have been yet able to reconcile the Scripture relations to the system of nature; and though we may be occasionally brought back to the language of a few passages, we differ greatly in the general views, and the more essential particulars. We have had occasion also to distrust those modes of revelation which rest on philological enquiries, as if the will and intentions of the Deity were only to be revealed through the medium of grammar, through the interpretation of Lilly, of Buxtorf, or Messieurs de Port Royal. As Mr. King, in some of his essays, rests on an interpretation of the words of Scripture, and endeavours to reduce the meaning, thus procured, to the modern system, his attempt militated originally against the opinions

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we had formed. We therefore perused his book with more than ordinary attention; and, as we were sensible of some bias, have endeavoured to guard against its effects.

The first Essay is on the Lord's prayer, of which Mr. King has given us a new translation: the great point, however, of his enquiry, relates to the first clause, Πάτερ ἡμῶν ὁ ἐν τοῖς ὕερασι, contrasted with the fourth γενήσῃ τὸ θίλημα σου, ὡς ἐν ἑραῖῳ. He observes, that though this prayer is given by St. Luke in somewhat different words, the same distinction of plural and singular is carefully observed; and consequently may be supposed to be of importance. Mr. King then collects many passages of Scripture, where heaven is spoken of in a general sense, and finds that the word is always used in the plural, though, where it is mentioned only with reference to the human race, the word is in the singular number. The foundation of this circumstance is, in our author's opinion, to be collected from modern philosophy. The heavens, in general, are supposed to be the stars, which are numerous, and our heaven the sun, which illuminates this system of planets. Each ray of light is divisible into seven colours; and our author supposes, that we see it only in its compounded state, while to the inhabitants of the sun it appears divided, and forms a gorgeous luminary of beautiful and resplendent colours. Yet, though light is thus constituted in our sun, in those of other systems it may be different: the union of their different colours may be equally resplendent, though the prevailing hue may be different; and Mr. Herschell has observed the light of some stars to be blue, others red, &c. so that *the heavens* may form an object as varied as it is glorious. The heat of the sun can be no obstacle to this opinion, since, with some other modern philosophers, he thinks that the light of the sun produces heat, in consequence of its action on the terrestrial bodies, rather than communicates it to them.

This opinion is supported, in Mr King's opinion, by the descriptions of the holy city, the different expressions of many of the prophets, the circumstance noticed in the appearance of angels, viz. the shining light, or glittering garments; nay, even the occasional illuminated appearance of the human face, particularly of Moses and St. Stephen.

Yet, on a little reflection it will, we think, be obvious, that colour has no existence but to the eye, and the eye is an organ of the natural man, and not of an immaterial soul. It is revealed, that we shall appear again in our own bodies to receive the judgment denounced against sinners, or the rewards promised to the righteous; but it is not revealed, that our punishments or our rewards are to be corporeal. This corrup-

sion is to put on incorruptibility, and the pleasures are 'such as eye has not seen, nor ear heard; nor has it entered into the heart of man to conceive.' If Mr. King contends that heaven is a throne, the earth is, on the same authority, a foot-stool; and, if the whole tenor of Scripture be examined, it will be clear, on the one hand, that the joys of heaven are not corporeal; and, on the other, that when they are particularly pointed out, the language is not descriptive, but metaphorical, and levelled to the common understanding. Again, if the sun elicits the elementary fire from bodies, and if we remain corporeal, the fire in our future mansion will be equally elicited, and of course extraordinary heat must be felt. Mr. King supposes, that it may be no more than 'vital heat;' but we know not how the degree is determined: indeed, from the term 'vital heat' being so often repeated, it appears clear, that our author thinks our bodies are to be unchanged. The state of comets stands in his way; they are ignited in their approach to the sun; and Mr. King is obliged to acknowledge, that though it may be cool and refreshing on the sun's surface, it must be very hot at a little distance: but this is impossible, unless by any cause the sun's rays are obliged to converge, or some body is opposed which contains elementary fire, in different circumstances from the human body. In short, the whole system is so hypothetical, that it will not bear even an examination with other parts of Scripture; it is neither supported by reason nor by revelation.

We have not opposed the great philosophical basis on which Mr. King rests, that the sun is a luminous and not a heated body, because we have more than once had occasion to hint at it, and to express our opinion of its probability. Every new step in philosophy gives it greater support; and a very valuable part of Mr. King's first essay contains some curious proofs of it. On the subject of phlogiston, indeed, he seems to doubt, and sometimes to employ the term, matter of fire, or elementary fire, instead of it, without sufficient accuracy. The experiments with Mr. Parker's burning-glass are in some degree new.

'If a piece of wood be inclosed within a decanter, full of water, you may, by means of the focal rays, char, or burn the wood to a coal, in the midst of the water; and yet the sides of the glass decanter, through which the rays pass, so very near to the focus, will not be cracked, or any ways affected; nor will the water be in the least degree warmed.

'These experiments already mentioned, have been actually made with Mr. Parker's great burning lens, in Fleet-street. The piece of wood was large enough to have some of its sub-

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stance left entire, and untouched: and it was inserted in a large decanter of water, about eight inches in diameter, and was compleatly charred very deep; only emitting bubbles of air during the operation.

‘With this same extraordinary glass also some other experiments were made, which greatly confirm all that is here said. The focus was caused to shine into the midst of the water, where the wood had been when it was charred; but no continuance of the focal rays there, would either heat the water, or crack the glass. As soon, however, as a piece of metal, either of iron, or of lead, (in which we well know there is what has been called phlogiston, but is rather fixed fire, or the fluid of heat fixed,) as soon as either of these were put into the midst of the water, they became too hot to be touched; and communicating their heat to the water, made it not only warm, but the iron caused it to boil almost immediately.

‘And when again the decanter filled with cold water only had been suffered to have the focal rays fall into the centre of it, for some time; and yet was no ways made warm, or affected; if a little ink were poured into it, (which we know contains the vitriolic acid, and which would therefore attract certain parts of the water, and set free the phlogiston, or fluid of fire, that was before fixed in the water) the mixture began to boil very soon.’

Mr. King’s explanation, relating to the ink, is erroneous; since the acid of vitriol is not essential to the composition of ink. In fact, the iron in ink is almost in a metallic state, and the focal rays act on it as divided iron. We mean not, however, to give this as an explanation; the facts should be repeated with care, and, after all, a complete explanation will be found difficult. Wood in charring seems to absorb the matter of heat from the focal rays; the phlogiston is again separated in burning; and, in its separation, combining with water, forms inflammable air. In this circumstance we dare not say that the water is decomposed. Our author falls into some other mistakes, particularly in considering the vapour in the exhausted receiver, as arising from fixed fire, separated from the brass plate: it is now known to arise from the wet leathers, the oil in the piston, and sometimes, as we suspect, from the residuum of air. We are sorry that we have not room for many subjects of curiosity and entertainment from this essay. Our author uses the version of the Septuagint, which he thinks most accurate, and particularly because it is the version quoted by our Saviour and the Evangelists. In one instance which is produced of its excellence, Mr. King is a little unfortunate: when the waters were divided, and the children of Israel passed through the Red-sea, the Septuagint says it was by the medium

dium of a south wind, the Vulgate by an east wind. Now, says our author, an east wind would drive the waters of the ocean into the Red-sea, through the Straits of Babel Mandel, instead of dividing the waters.—But, if he had looked farther, he would have seen, that eastward the Straits of Babel Mandel are sheltered by the coasts of Malabar: so that an east wind, prevailing generally, would prevent the waters of the ocean from accumulating in the Straits, and would actually draw off water from that coast. Besides, as the Red-sea runs nearly north and south, an east wind could alone *divide* the waters—A south wind would blow that sea into the Mediterranean, and it would be immediately supplied from the Straits of Babel Mandel, merely to restore the æquilibrium.

We are sorry, that from the extent of our observations on the first, we must be more concise on the succeeding essays. The second is on the first chapter of Genesis. In this our author labours hard; and he succeeds much better than Mr. Miln. But much may be expected from an ingenious scholar, with all the modern changeable theories of philosophy to assist him. The reflexibility of heat is not new; but it is, we believe, new, that heat, independent of light, may be brought to converge into a focus. On the consolidating power of air, Dr. Macbride's Essays would materially assist our author, though, after all his endeavours, after all the ingenuity which he has displayed, many important objections may, we think, be brought against his philosophical commentary. On the whole, however, this morceau is a very creditable one.

The third essay is on the first, second, and third verses of the fourth chapter of the First Epistle of St. John. Our author contends that ὁ ὁμολογῶν Ἰησοῦν Χριστὸν ἐν σαρκὶ ἰληθυστά, should be translated, that confesseth Jesus to be the Christ come in the flesh. This translation is attempted to be supported by many parallel passages, and, in our author's opinion, supports the pre-existence of Christ. But whatever support the general tenor of St. John's writings may afford, and this is all the evidence that we should choose to allow, we think the translation cannot be admitted. The omission of Christ, in the second passage in the Alexandrian and Vatican copies, seems to show that it was not considered as the word on which the stress of the passages was laid: and again, in a language so perspicuous as the Greek, whose perspicuity consisted in the liberal use of articles and pronouns, we should not have suspected that the article, at least, would have been omitted in a verse of so much importance as this must appear, if the proposed interpretation were allowed. The excuse of erasures and interpola-

tions has been so often abused, that we are unwilling, without decisive evidence, to allow it.

In the next essay on the second verse of St. Mark's Gospel, Mr. King would translate ἀγγέλως, angel'; and, from the prophecy relating of St. John being originally applied to Elias, from the same term being also applied to Elias, from the encomium on John, 'Yea, I say unto you, more than a prophet,' he is willing to conclude that Elias and John were angels in a human shape, perhaps the same, and proper harbingers for the Son of God. The reason of the confusion we shall transcribe from our author.

'The Greeks seem to have had no other proper word in common use, whereby to express and denote a messenger of any kind, than ἀγγελος; except it was πρέσβευς, or ἀπόστολος; neither of which clearly conveyed the idea: and therefore the Seventy, (when they composed their version of the Old Testament,) and afterwards, the writers of the New Testament, constantly used the former word, to describe a messenger of any kind; in all those instances where such was on any occasion mentioned. At the same time, however, as the principal characteristic, even of an angel of God, on every occasion on which one is at all mentioned in Scripture, is that of being a messenger from God; a messenger communicating the divine will; therefore (being extremely and justly cautious not to use the word δαίμων, daemon, on this occasion; or any word that might, by any possibility, convey a similar idea to the heathen, who would instantly and eagerly have caught hold of such an expression, and have perverted it;) they chose to express the character even of such a divine messenger, merely by the single word ἀγγελος, used by way of eminence; leaving it to the context to explain when the word was used in this divine sense; and when merely in the ordinary way. And in consequence of this, without due attention, some confusion and mistakes must need arise *.'

It is afterwards allowed, that our translators have, in general, avoided the confusion, though, in this instance, it is supposed that they are mistaken. After this, our author adds the principal passages where it is translated angel, and some where it is interpreted messenger. From comparing them together, he endeavours to show that the term angel should be employed in this verse. Though something may be objected to his arguments, yet, on the whole, they must be allowed to have great force.

* * The want of words, in the Greek language, to express fully the sublime description of heavenly things contained in the holy Scriptures, appears remarkably in another instance, where the LXX have even been obliged to introduce a word entirely new, and not before known in that language. It is the word χερουβ, Cherub, and in the plural, χερουβιμ, Cherubim.

Mr. King afterwards pursues the parallel more exactly.—He insists on the description of each; and thinks that their dress was similar, since ἀνὴρ δαυὶς will properly signify a man clothed in hairy garments, and John is expressly said to be clothed in camel's hair. The angelic nature of Elias is, he thinks, particularly pointed out in the first verse of the seventeenth chapter of the first book of Kings, ὁ ἀγγέλων ἐνάντιον ἔστη, before whom I stood in his presence. The narrative of his being fed by ravens depends, in Mr. King's opinion, on his being directed by the Divine Spirit to the neighbourhood of their nests, where he was fed by the food provided for their young ones. Many instances are accumulated, to show that they live on food, which is often taken from their nests in an eatable state; and one other instance of game, provided from eagles' nests, may be found in the Spectator.

Mr. King then obviates the objection that may arise from the words of our Lord, in his discourse to Nicodemus; (John iii. 13.) but, while he was thus employed, we should have been pleased to have seen a consistent explanation of the whole conversation, which, we think, is much wanted.—The Essay concludes with an enquiry into the main end and tendency of the preaching of John, and an explanation of our Saviour's remark, that though among those born of women, a greater than John has not risen—yet that the least in the kingdom of heaven is greater than he.—The main end of his coming was, as Mr. King observes, to be the harbinger of our Saviour; and that he may be again expected, in his character of Elias, the immediate predecessor of our Judge at the last day. The declaration of our Saviour, in the second object of remark, is supposed to relate to John's humiliation in a human form.

Our article would be disproportionably long, if we examined the remaining essays at this time; so that we must resume the consideration in a future Number.

Principles of Surgery, for the Use of Chirurgical Students. Part the First. By John Pearson. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Johnson.

IF surgery be defined 'the art of curing diseases by external remedies, and manual operations,' it will not hence follow that science and reflection are unnecessary: and it was useless for Mr. Pearson to engage in a defence of scientific surgery, by combining with it views more strictly medical. In the distinction between surgery and medicine, as in every other distinction where the outline is pretty exact, the colouring in the shades will mix and unite; neither in some part of the picture will it be easy to say where the one begins, or where the other

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ends. If surgery be, in reality, the art of curing wounds, the nature and condition of the wound, and the properties of the application adapted to it, requires some reasoning: and, even in manual operations, the mode of performing them, the expediency of the operation when the situation of the patient is considered, as well as the removing those states of the constitution which may prove impediments, require no little exertion of the mental faculties, and prove the necessity of the surgeon's being acquainted with science, capable of reasoning with justness, and deciding with propriety. Dr. Hamilton's state of the difference between the two sciences, always appeared to us very correct; and we were reminded of it by a suspicion which arose in our minds, that Mr. Pearson's observations were directed against it. The objects of the surgeon's consideration, he observes, 'are generally subjected to his senses; and, where they are out of the reach of sense, the symptoms are more plain, the inductions fewer, and the conclusions more certain than in medical enquiries:' in reality, in a scientific view, surgery must be arranged after medicine, because the intellectual operations are not required to be exerted with so much force, the objects to be combined are not so numerous, and the judgment to be formed is not so difficult. We know not whether it was to support the opinions of the preface, but the 'Principles of Surgery' contain much of what really belongs to medicine: unfortunately too, those parts are of inferior value to the rest of the work.

In this first part, Mr. Pearson treats of inflammation in general, of erysipelas, and the distinctions between the two diseases; of some particular inflammations, either of the glands or other parts; of the common boil, for instance, the abscess of the breast, of the psoas muscle, and of the paronychia. He treats too of gangrene and sphacelus; of the carbuncle; of chilblains, and of scalds. As these inflammations are of the erysipelatous kind, it would have been more *scientific* to have examined them after treating of erysipelas: this disease is, however, described at length, after burns; and the account of erysipelas is followed by that of cancer, ozæna, and canker of the mouth. In a scientific view also, the malignant parotid should have been noticed, as the connecting link between the anthrax or carbuncle, and cancer.

On inflammation in general Mr. Pearson is pretty diffuse, and engages in discussions which can scarcely, in any instance, be the object of the surgeon alone. Yet he declines an investigation of the proximate cause, though the question, whether the inflamed vessels are generally obstructed, might influence the cure. It is generally true, however, that, they

they are not; but it is not equally so, that inflammations are ever resolved without some effusion from the excreting arteries, or the neighbouring glands. We think, that during the course of every inflammation, some effusion may be perceived; and that, in the best circumstances of resolution, this effusion is particularly conspicuous. From hence we would also infer, that in resolvable inflammations there is no very general obstructions of the inflamed vessels. The resolution which our author mentions as produced by a small evacuation of blood, plainly shows that, though he treats of inflammation as a surgeon, his mind is filled with the idea of internal inflammations. Of erysipelas too, he speaks very generally, and the distinction between it and inflammation is extremely just, when we consider both diseases in the abstract; yet his distinctions will not apply to erysipelas, from external causes alone, and our author seems to consider it as always symptomatic. As it belongs to the surgeon, it is always so; but it is not the surgeon's province to treat even of cutaneous diseases from internal causes.

The treatment of inflammations is, in general, well described, though with a little of the same confusion which arises from mixing the different departments. We were not, however, aware that vegetable and fossil alkali were sedatives, or, in reality, that they were useful in inflammation.

We shall describe, as a specimen of our author's manner, the account of the venereal paronychia, which is in some measure new, and of real importance.

'As the venereal paronychia, is a complaint that is not universally understood, I shall deliver its history and treatment upon the present occasion, although it might be referred to another place. This disease generally appears in the form of a smooth, soft, unresisting tumor, of a dark red colour, and is situated in the cellular membrane about the root of the nail. It is attended with an inconsiderable degree of pain in the incipient state; but as suppuration advances, the pain increases in severity: its progress toward maturation is generally slow, and is seldom completed.

'When the fœtid matter it contains is evacuated, the nail is generally found to be loose, and a very foul, but exquisitely sensible ulcer is exposed; considerable sloughs of cellular membrane, &c. are frequently exfoliated, so that the cavity of the sore is often very deep,

'The discoloured and tumid state of the skin commonly extends along the finger, considerably beyond the margin of the ulcer: in such cases, the integuments that envelope the finger become remarkably thickened, and the cellular membrane is so firmly condensed as not to permit the skin to glide over the

subjacent parts. The bone is not usually found in a carious state.

' This species of paronychia is more frequently seen among the lower class of people when they labour under lues venerea, than in the higher ranks of life. It does not appear to be connected with any particular state of the disease, nor is it confined to one sex more than to the other. In the Lock hospital, it occurs in the proportion of about one patient in five hundred.

' When I adopt the name of venereal paronychia, it is not with the design of implying that this is a true venereal abscess, containing a fluid which is capable of communicating syphilis to a sound person. Its progress and cure, seem to be unconnected with the increased or diminished action of the venereal poison in the constitution, and to be also uninfluenced by the operation of mercury. I consider the venereal disease as a remote cause, which gives occasion to the appearance of this, as well as of several other diseases, that are widely different from its own specifick nature.'

On the subject of chilblains the author is a little inaccurate. In the 238th paragraph, he considers them as owing to severe cold, and, in the following one, not so much to severe cold as to alternate successions of heat and cold. In reality, they are owing to heat, or a little cold, on a part whose vessels have been weakened by heat, and of course easily chilled. If heat is therefore essentially necessary, and no certain diminution of it equally necessary, heat must be the cause. Our author is himself a little paradoxical on similar subjects. He is, however, sufficiently correct, and his apparent paradoxes on the effects of heat and cold, only appear to be such from his neglecting to make a proper distinction respecting the degrees of heat, or considering the effects as relative to the particular states of the body.

In the psoas abscess, our author thinks that he has seen immediate advantage from a large caustic near the lumbar vertebrae. Blisters we have found of very little service; and the wound, treated in any way, has been almost equally fatal. We never saw but one instance of recovery after the abscess had formed, and in that case the abscess pointed in the loins. Our attention has therefore been directed to prevent the abscess from forming; but we cannot boast of our success.—Large and repeated bleedings have appeared the most useful plan, though other methods may undoubtedly be tried; and we have had some in contemplation, which we shall mention if we find them useful.

On other parts of our author's subjects we can perceive no great novelty; but we shall transcribe two passages of different kinds, which will furnish their own apology.

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‘The use of farinaceous substances, earths, &c. (in erysipelas) counteracts one of our most principal indications, which is to promote a gentle perspiration in the part: their application is also attended with the farther inconvenience of forming hard irritating crusts upon the diseased part. I have seen very disagreeable and dangerous consequences to ensue from their use.

‘Mild, warm cataplasms, are the applications which a very extensive experience hath induced me to prefer. They may be composed of the powders of aniseed, fennel, camomile flowers, &c. mixed with a fourth part, or an equal quantity of bread, and a proper quantity of milk: linseed powder may sometimes prove a convenient addition.’

Again :

‘In cancerous affections of the breast, the absorbent glands in the axilla, are very frequently contaminated with the disease; and professor Camper has discovered some absorbent vessels, passing from the breast into glands situated under the sternum, which exhibited the same diseased appearances with those seated in the axilla. Now, as the absorbent glands that lay on each side of the under part of the sternum, communicate with each other by means of absorbent vessels, it will be easy to understand in what manner the disease may be propagated from one breast to the other. A cancer may therefore be reproduced in a part apparently cured; or propagated to a distant part, by means of diseased absorbent vessels.’

On the whole, though our author's too eager defence of surgery, as a science, has led us to examine his work very minutely in one respect, it has not blinded us to its general merit. The ‘Principles of Surgery’ show that Mr. Pearson joins an exact attention to a good judgment; and we can safely recommend him as a competent guide to the younger practitioners.

Method of Chymical Nomenclature, proposed by Mess. de Morveau, Lavoisier, Bertholet, and De Fourcroy. By James St. John, M.D. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Kearsley.

WE own our obligations to the translator, for collecting the different memoirs which have been presented to the French academy, on the subject of the new Nomenclature: every thing is added which can illustrate, every thing which can explain it. If the French chemists resolve to change the language of the science, it is at least necessary to have a dictionary of their terms. The translator steps forward, however, with too much warmth and confidence, when he observes, that this language is not the result of a theory, but of plain and simple facts; when, with an air of victorious triumph, he tells us, that we must not censure it, unless we can prove the fallacy

lacy of the principles on which it is founded, and goes on to enumerate, among these principles, certainties and uncertainties; facts admitted, as well as those which are disputed. A slight reflection should have told him, that when the foundation of a series of terms is not generally admitted, it is at least imprudent to incorporate the errors, and widely disseminate the difficulties which must arise if they are once disproved. To follow him in his triumphal career, though we should admit, that air is incorporated with sulphur in burning, will it follow from thence, that phlogiston is not separated? We allow that the sulphur, when burned, is an acid; but it is not yet clearly ascertained, whether the acidity is then first produced, or whether it appears in consequence of the separation of a principle before combined with it. The composition of water is admitted with great reluctance; and a very respectable academy has lately bestowed the prize on an essay which contradicts it: the origin of the heat, from calcination, or burning inflammable bodies, he will allow us to add, is by no means at present established, in the way which the French chemists have adopted, to explain it. If either of these opinions, which are still doubted, should be generally disbelieved, the greatest confusion would arise. The attempt, therefore, is impolitic; it is productive of doubt and of difficulty, and no one good consequence can arise from it. The language is harsh, unpleasing, and not easily remembered. Many new compositions were undoubtedly without names; but it will be more ridiculous, if names have been given to substances as acids, and followed in the reputed compositions which are found not to be so. It is not true, that many of the compounds were without names in the old language of chemistry, if we denominate Morveau's late improved language the old one; but, allowing all that is intended to be urged, it does not follow, that because some terms must be added, the old ones should be changed. Yet, if the language be admitted in any work, it is necessary that it should be explained: if it be used in English, it is necessary that it should be adapted to the English language. This our translator has done with sufficient care and accuracy.—But before we leave the preface, let us select one passage.

‘I have sometimes observed a phenomenon to take place during the putrefaction of human bodies, and which I cannot but think of very great importance to be enquired into and known. This is the exhalation of a particular gas, which is the most active and dreadful of all corrosive poisons, and produces most sudden and terrible effects upon a living creature. This I more than once have had an opportunity of remarking in

in the dissecting room of Mr. Andravi at Paris. I know that the carbonic acid gas produced by the combustion of charcoal, from liquors in fermentation, and by the respiration of animals, as well as all other elastic fluids except vital air, is incapable of sustaining life; but the aeriform fluid which is exhaled at certain times from animal bodies in putrefaction, is infinitely more noxious than any elastic fluid as yet discovered; for it not only is incapable of sustaining life in the absence of vital air, but is dreadfully deleterious, and does not at all seem to abate of its corrosive property, even in the presence of the atmospheric fluid. So that it is utterly dangerous to approach a body in this state of putrefaction. I have known a gentleman who by slightly touching the intestines of a human body beginning to liberate this corrosive gas, was affected with a violent inflammation, which in a very short space of time extended up almost the entire of his arm, producing an extensive ulcer of the most foul and frightful appearance, which continued for several months and reduced him to a miserable state of emaciation. He then went to the south of France; but whether he died, or escaped with the loss of his arm, I have not been able to learn. This is only one example of many which I have seen. I have known a celebrated professor who was attacked with a violent inflammation of the nares and fauces from which he with difficulty recovered, by stooping for an instant over a body which was beginning to give forth this deleterious fluid.

There is a peculiarity too, we apprehend, in this gas, that it eludes the trials with nitrous air. On this account, probably, the experiments with the eudiometer are such insufficient proofs of the salubrity of the air in many instances; and we may suspect then, on this account, wounds in dissecting are attended sometimes with so much, and at other times with so little danger.

The Memoirs which Dr. St. John has translated in this volume, are, 1st. A memoir on the necessity of reforming and bringing to perfection the nomenclature of chemistry, by M. Lavoisier: 2d. M. Morveau's explanation of the principles of chemical nomenclature, with an appendix on the nomenclature of some compound substances, which occasionally combine like simple bodies. 3dly, M. Fourcroy's explanation of the new nomenclature, with copious and proper glossaries. 4thly, The different memoirs of M. Hassenfratz and M. Adet, on the new chemical characters.

We cannot engage in a very extensive explanation of this new language; but shall give a short specimen of, together with some remarks on it, and the reasons why we think it improper to be adopted. We must begin, however, with a short account of M. Lavoisier's memoir,

This

This celebrated chemist draws his chief arguments for this change, from the increasing extent of the science, and the superstitions and fancies which once dictated its language. The first improvement, however, by M. Morveau, rendered the language simple and intelligible, while it was capable of being extended with ease and propriety, at least so far as the real discoveries will yet require. In this memoir M. Lavoisier refines in his speculation, with all the subtilty of a metaphysician; and his remarks are often just, if it were possible that a new race should be created, for which a new language was to be formed. He forgets that we have already a language, which wants only improvement: he is not aware that, before a new race can arise, some of the systems on which his language is founded, may pass away; even for this new race, they are not the neatest, the most euphonic sounds. Our translator keeps too close to his author—la metaphysique des langues, is undoubtedly the metaphysic of language, if the genius of the English would allow this term to be used abstractedly:—the ‘species of metaphysic,’ though equally literal, is still more harsh; we should say the ‘kind of metaphysical reasoning.’

The table, for that is the most comprehensive view of the subject, is divided into six columns. The title of the first is ‘substances not yet decomposed:’ these are light, the CALORIC, or the matter of heat; OXYGEN, the basis of acids, or of vital air, and the vital air itself, which is styled oxygenous gas, and is reduced to that state either by light or the caloric; HYDROGEN, the base of inflammable air, from which result hydrogenous gas, the inflammable air, and water, which is composed of hydrogen and oxygen; the AZOTE, or the base of phlogisticated air; the azotic gas is phlogisticated air. Azote, combined with oxygen, gives the nitric or the nitrous, according as the acid is colourless or smoking: in the latter, the azote is supposed to be in excess.—But to return:

The second section is on the acidifiable basis, or radical principles of the acids. Those whose bases are known are the azote, charcoal, sulphur, and phosphorus: the bases not known, as of marine acid, &c. are called the *radicals of the acid*. Sulphur, with oxygen, forms an acid; and, in the state of common vitriolic acid, saturated with oxygen, it is styled sulphuric; it is called sulphureous, when, in the state in which it has been usually called the phlogisticated acid. The general names for salts formed of acids of the first kind, are *sulphates*; of the second, *sulphites*; and all combinations not yet advanced to a state of acidity, *sulphurets*. In this instance, there is a slight change, and a very proper one, from the French terms, which, in English, are too much alike.

Fixed

Fixed air is the *carbonic acid*; its salts carbonats, and plumbago, the *carburet* of iron. The muriatic acid remains, and its compounds are muriats: the dephlogisticated is called *oxy-generated, muriatic acid*; and its compounds *oxygenated muriats*. —Corrosive sublimate and calomel are corrosive and mild mercurial muriats. The muriatic salts of tin, in their different states, are muriat of tin, sublimated muriat of tin, and smooking muriat of tin.

The terms nitric and nitrous acid are followed by the acetic and the acetous, the phosphorous and phosphoric, with their compounds acetats and acetites, phosphorats and phosphorites. The dephlogisticated kind has the termination in ic. Many acids have only this termination because we seldom see them but in their dephlogisticated state, or with little oxygen; so that they have but one kind of compound. The boracic acid has its borats; the fluoric its fluats; the succinic its succinats, the tartaric its tartrites; the oxalic its oxalats; the gallic its gallats; the prussic its prussiat; the arsenic its arseniats; and so on. The peculiar neutral is denominated the acetat of potash, of soda, of ammoniac, of lead, copper, &c. The calces of metals, as containing oxygen, are oxids: thus we have the oxid of arsenic, antimony, &c.—The earths and inflammables luckily remain with little change. In the different memoirs the foundation of the new names, and the reasons for the alteration, are given at some length.

The changes which these authors have introduced, are, we think, in many respects exceptionable. They are very numerous; numerous without necessity: and so different from the former terms, as to require much time and attention to understand and remember them. It is a task whose burthen we have felt severely. In many instances, the difficulty is increased from the want of analogy; and, in some, from the harsh terms, and the too near resemblance of those designed to convey very different ideas. The carbonic acid has no reference to the usual origin of the fixed air, and the carbonet of potash can scarcely be supposed to mean mild salt of tartar. Many of these words too are founded on hypothesis, and not on decisive experiment. If the absorption of vital air is not the only, or the most important change in calcination, what will become of the oxids? If the composition of water is not incontestably proved, who will adopt the hydrogen? Again: a language of this kind is not capable of being extended with the science: one new discovery may, on the contrary, shake it to its foundation, and, in each succeeding seven years, we must again learn a new dialect.

The

The substances not yet decomposed, which are arranged in the first column, are followed in the succeeding ones by these substances in different forms, and in composition. They seem, however, to be too numerous, for the vegetable and animal acids are certainly decomposed in the fire, and *their* basis is pretty clearly fixed air. In another view, they are too numerous; for if the same acid, in different forms, must be allowed a new name, till the similarity with some known acid is proved, as we have contended for, the number of acids must be greatly increased. Our authors have, indeed, taken advantage of every new discovery, and included the saccharine with the oxalic acid, and arranged the astringent principle, which we have formerly shown to be a phlogisticated acid, under the title of the gallic acid, &c. They have too, assumed the camphor as an acid, without having proved its acidity, while many bodies more certainly acid are omitted. If some of these acids must be admitted among compounds, light is also a compound body, consisting of rays differently refrangible; and there is some reason to think that even, as a chemical body, the different rays may possess different affinities, for we see different colours in the flames of burning bodies, and phosphoric light is tinged with different hues. M. de la Metherie has shown, that inflammable and pure air will decompose each other; and the volatile alkali has been clearly proved to be a compound. There are many different bodies very certainly compounds, among their simples. Again, the plan of giving bodies names from their principles, is a specious one; but it is not well managed, and is probably not easily executed. In this Nomenclature there are many errors from this source. Let us take an instance from inflammable air: it is called hydrogen, from its being one of the ingredients of water; but it makes only 0.13, while pure air is 0.87. It makes a larger proportion of oil, viz. 0.21, why then is it not called eleogen? and of volatile alkali, and then it should be ammoniacogen, terms not more harsh than many adopted in the new Nomenclature.

As to the particular terms, they are very badly adapted to the English analogy. *La calorique* is indeed French; but these terms, as we have already observed, are not used abstractedly in English. Oxygen is also better adapted, for the same reason, to the language of the inventors than our own; it is built too, on the system of its being the principle of acidity, without reflecting that it is as much a principle of the calces of metals, and more so of water. Hydrogen is equally, and for the same reason, exceptionable. Azote from
α, non,

æ, non, and *ζῶν*, vita, is an unpleasant term, and equally applicable to fixed and nitrous air. The sulphate, the sulphites, and the sulphures, or, as Dr. St. John more properly calls them, sulphurets, are harsh, disagreeable, and not sufficiently discriminated. To suppose that a basis of the muriatic oxalic, and other acids, exists, without having proved their existence, encumbers the new language unnecessarily: for to give it the term radical does not prevent the necessity of forming a new one, when the basis is really found. Besides, why will they suppose that there is a basis? In their list of substances not decomposed, there are many substances which really have one, though they then insist on rigorous demonstration of its existence: they here admit it on supposition.

The terms pyro-tartaric, pyro-lignic, and pyro-mucic, to express acids in an empyreumatic state, are improper, as compounded of Greek and Latin words: they are improper too, because the two last do not occur in their uncompounded state, and they are in the list of uncompounded subjects. There are many acids of wood, a term too general and collective, which are in a separate state, under other names. It appears highly probable, indeed, that all the ligneous acids are modifications of the acetous. Unfortunately the prussic is not an acid; the prussiate have no existence as neutral compounds, and the radical must consequently be an imaginary substance.

The new chemical characters deserve a better report: they are explicit, distinct, systematic, and intelligible. Though adapted to the new Nomenclature, they may be applied to any language: but those who have learned the characters of Geoffroy, Black, or Bergman, will be unwilling again to study another form. From this variety we have reason to suspect that characters will be neglected, and words at length used; since they will be more intelligible, though somewhat more troublesome.

To compress our account of this work, we have incorporated the French criticisms with our own opinions; and where some objections had been replied to with success, or where we thought them not well-founded, we have passed them over: we have not room for long discussions. After the most mature reflection, we are decidedly of opinion, that this new language is neither euphonic, exact, or convenient; and we earnestly dissuade the English chemist from adopting it. We have been repeatedly called on for our opinion, and flattered by being told that it was waited for with some impatience. We have complied, as early as possible, with the request; and, to give a force to our decision, we shall continue to use the former terms of M. Morveau.

Vol. LXV. April, 1788.

S *Lectures*

Letters to and from the late Samuel Johnson, LL. D. To which are added some Poems never before printed. Published from the Original MSS. in her Possession, by Hester Lynch Piozzi. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

IT is the lot of genius to be often drawn from obscurity in the most unfavourable moments : the festive board will not wait for the hour of health and hilarity, or make allowance for the gloom which disease and low spirits may spread around him.—As an author, the man of genius is expected to be uniformly excellent ; and, in the remarks on those parts where, he sinks below his own level, the critic does not reflect how often he has risen above it. The periodical essayist feels the weight of this inconvenience with double aggravation ; and the reviewer, for we may surely be allowed to look at home, cannot always enjoy the clearness of unruffled recollection : when called to fulfil his destined task, he may bring with him a mind harrassed by anxiety, and depressed by ill-health. But Johnson was loaded with almost every difficulty which we have mentioned, and he has not escaped the usual misfortunes of literary reputation, which happen after death : his life has been mangled with unrelenting cruelty ; his memory sullied by partial recollection ; the accumulation of every harsh reply, or dictatorial remark ; and, in the instance before us, each trifling scrap, dictated in the moments of pain, languor, and uneasiness, is brought from its hidden recess into open daylight. Strong must be the mind, and unsullied the character, that can bear so many, and such severe trials ! Johnson has not escaped from these various ordeals, without a wound ; but the wounds have not been fatal. We have no reason to think that Mrs. Piozzi meant to injure his credit by this publication ; and we are fully of opinion, that she has added to it by means the most precarious, and which might have been most destructive. The intimate correspondence of many years, the unserved communication, in various scenes and situations, in different states of mind and body, would seldom afford so few and such inconsiderable errors.

If the subject of Dr. Johnson's Letters be enquired after, we can truly say, that there is none ; with what then are two large volumes filled ? With traits of affection and regard ; with anxious solicitude for his friends' welfare and success ; with much infantine and amiable fondness for the children ; with frequent complaints of his own ill health ; with anxiety when his friends are sick and distressed ; mixed with a little apprehension, occasionally, of being neglected.—The man of business may style all this trifling ; the supercilious philosopher turn
from

from it with disgust; but it leads us through the labyrinth of the human heart; it shows us what Johnson really was, and gives no unpleasing picture of his mind, when separated from an unpleasing form and disgusting manners. We shall turn over these volumes; and, in selecting those little incidents which may be interesting to our readers, shall have sufficient opportunity of giving specimens of the style of his familiar correspondence. We must, however, first attend to the editor.

Mrs. Piozzi, whose answers to Johnson are occasionally interspersed, to avoid the necessity of annotations, is well known: with many polite accomplishments, she joins no inconsiderable knowledge of the best modern languages, French and Italian; she seems also well acquainted with Latin, and various sciences not usually understood by ladies. The following passage should, however, have been explained more particularly: it seems intended to elevate and surprise; but it is either incorrectly expressed, or not well founded. There are one or two other passages in Mrs. Thrale's Letters, which deserve the same remark.

'— Should I be charged with obtruding trifles on the public, I might reply, that the meanest animals preserved in amber become valuable to those who form collections of natural history, that the fish found in Monte Bolca serve as proofs of sacred writ, and that the cart-wheel stuck in the rock of Tivoli, is now found useful in computing the rotation of the earth.'

The rest of the preface we shall make no remarks on. The Letters, the editor observes, are unchanged. But we have reason to suspect that some are omitted. It was undoubtedly delicate, and, we think, proper, to erase the names, and, in some instances, to put asterisks instead of initial letters. Mrs. Piozzi has also baffled conjecture, by not distinguishing the same person by the same number of asterisks, and generally putting down the number without any settled design: we may have lost a little pleasure in this way; but it is not to be regretted, when some respectable individuals are probably saved a great deal of pain.

The correspondence commences in 1765, when Johnson was preparing his *Shakspeare* for the press, and continues uninterrupted during their separations, till the event which was fatal to their friendship, the marriage of Mrs. Piozzi in 1784. In this interval the letters are very numerous; and we shall point out a few which appear to deserve some notice. In general, we do not see many instances of that superstitious terror, that unmanly dread of death, which had taken such hold on Johnson's mind. His desire of being distinguished is frequently obvious; and his language, though in general cor-

rect, is, occasionally, full of the little peculiar phrases, the cant terms which may have been the subjects of his raillery, and are again employed to show the error by example, or to evince that his reproof was salutary and good-natured. The little infantine appellations of queeney (miss Thrale), of sweetheart, &c. show that he possessed a good and affectionate heart. The sight of old friends seems to be always pleasing: he sympathises in their distress, and feels a delight in their prosperity; but prosperity is not common, or at least he did not often meet with it, for he says,

‘He that wanders about the world sees new forms of human misery, and if he chances to meet an old friend, meets a face darkened with troubles.’

The first event which furnishes a little more than a repetition of regard and affection, is his journey to Scotland. The Letters written at this period are said to be the originals from which the Tour was compiled; but, independent of their being written when the images were fresh and vivid, they display much more good nature and complaisance than the work formed from them. He looked on Dr. Blacklock, he tells us, with reverence: he professes himself well pleased at St. Andrews, and other places, where he did not behave with complaisance or even with common decorum.—To what must we attribute this difference? We are much inclined to believe that Johnson meant not to offend, and was not conscious that he had done so. The day spent at Fort George, where his sentiments were opposed, he calls pleasant and instructive. His manner was, indeed, harsh and ungraceful, while his flatterers commended often his faults. Of Mr. Boswell he does not speak with great respect, though, in one passage, he allows that he had not given him credit for so much discrimination and good sense as he had shown. We know not, however, how the account stood before. We shall select a specimen or two from this edition of the travels. We first arrive at St. Andrews.

‘The professors who happened to be resident in the vacation made a public dinner, and treated us very *kindly* and respectfully. They shewed us their colleges, in one of which there is a library that for luminousness and elegance may vie at least with the new edifice at St. Atham. But learning seems not to prosper among them; one of their colleges has been lately alienated, and one of their churches lately deserted. An experiment was made of planting a shrubbery in the church, but it did not thrive.

‘Why the place should thus fall to decay I know not; for education, *such as is here to be had*, is sufficiently cheap. Their term, or, as they call it, their session, lasts seven months in the year, which the students of the highest rank and greatest expence

may pass here for twenty pounds, in which are included board, lodging, books, and the continual instruction of three professors.

Again:

'We travelled towards Aberdeen, another university, and in the way dined at lord Monboddo's, the Scotch judge, who has lately written a strange book about the origin of language, in which he traces monkeys up to men, and says that in some countries the human species have tails like other beasts. He enquired for these long-tailed men of Banks, and was not well pleased that they had not been found in all his peregrination. He talked nothing of this to me, and I hope we parted friends; for we agreed pretty well, only we disputed in adjusting the claims of merit between a shopkeeper of London, and a savage of the American wildernesses. Our opinions were, I think, maintained on both sides without full conviction; Monboddo declared boldly for the savage, and I, perhaps for that reason, sided with the citizen.

'We came late to Aberdeen, where I found my dear mistress's letter, and learned that all our little people were happily recovered of the measles. Every part of your letter was pleasing.'

'When they had not cabbage they had nothing' appears in the letters: we know the criticisms which this passage has excited, and we will draw none on ourselves by defending it. Yet, in England, at the Reformation, a cabbage was sold for six pence, and it was one of the *first* and the *commonest* of our vegetables.—The letters from the Islands are full of cheerful commendations; and the whole Tour would probably have been described with better colours, if his health had been better. The following passage, written in this frame of mind, is, however, in many respects, admirable.

'I cannot forbear to interrupt my narrative. Boswell, with some of his troublesome kindness, has informed this family and reminded me that the 18th of September is my birth-day. The return of my birth-day, if I remember it, fills me with thoughts which it seems to be the general care of humanity to escape. I can now look back upon threescore and four years, in which little has been done; and little has been enjoyed; a life diversified by misery, spent part in the sluggishness of penury, and part under the violence of pain, in gloomy discontent or importunate distress. But perhaps I am better than I should have been if I had been less afflicted. With this I will try to be content.'

The eighty-first letter is more gloomy and misanthropical: this life will only seem not happy to one whose powers of enjoying happiness are lost. The topics of this letter were, however, suggested by the barren heaths: Dr. Johnson is in better humour where he is warmed and filled; at every house,

he observes, with equal gratitude and propriety, he is received as if he came to confer a benefit. But we must leave Scotland for the accounts from different parts of England.

Dr. Johnson's relation of his occasional excursions to Litchfield, and to Ashbourne, the residence of his friend Dr. Taylor, furnish the subjects of many Letters. Yet little is told in them, but that he dined with one old friend, and saw another: in his successive visits he gives an account of little domestic incidents, below the dignity of any mode of writing but a familiar correspondence, where trifles assume a propriety, because they show that the writer has sufficient confidence in his friend, to trust him with his trifling. In his successive visits too, he is a witness to the decaying health of his old acquaintance, and sees, every year, the little crop thinned by death. More chearful men than Dr. Johnson would feel the depression which these events must have occasioned: but, in his Letters, he generally looks up to the rising family of Mrs. Thrale, and sees few things but what he connects with the most interesting parts of their situation.—As a specimen of their general style, we shall extract one entire, on Mr. Thrale's first attack, at a time when a tour to Italy was projecting.

'I am glad to hear of pretty Queeney's recovery, and your returning tranquillity. What we have suffered ought to make us remember what we have escaped. You might at as short a warning have been taken from your children, or Mr. Thrale might have been taken from us all.

'Mr. Thrale, when he dismissed me, promised to call on me; he has never called, and I have never seen him. He said that he would go to the house, and I hope he has found something that laid hold on his attention.

'I do not wish you to return, while the novelty of the place does any good either to you or Queeney, and longer I know you will not stay; there is therefore no need of soliciting your return. What qualification can be extracted from so sad an event, I derive from observing that Mr. Thrale's behaviour has united you to him by additional endearments. Every evil will be more easily borne while you fondly love one another; and every good will be enjoyed with increase of delight *past-compute*, to use the phrase of Cumberland, May your care of each other always increase! I am, dearest Madam, Your, &c.'

There are two letters which might occasion some discussion, if we examined these volumes with the severity of criticism, we mean the 138th and 189th. The former contains some reasons why those who have learned much in early youth seldom improve in maturer age. The reasons have undoubtedly weight; but the fact is not universally true; and the exceptions would have

have pointed out a better explanation, viz. that there is seldom, in maturer age, any very powerful motives for peculiar exertions. When there are, proportional excellence generally follows. Besides, to add to a stock requires more attention than first to amass it. How many books are read by a well-informed man, with very few ideas that are new; while, in the progress of knowledge, the greater part of each work may have appeared interesting. The botanist who collects the flowers of any district, must walk many miles to add one line to the end of his *Flora*, though, in the commencement of his undertaking, one field would furnish a page.—The other letter (the 189th) is on letter-writing. Though we have heard Johnson's sentiments on this subject controverted, we think that he is right: it is in the familiar letters that the soul is divested of disguise, and appears in its native colours. 'To sit down, says he, so often, with nothing to say; to say something so often, almost without any consciousness of saying, and without any remembrance of having said, is a power' which every body has not.

The controversy about Rowley's Poems, the Lives of the Poets, the riots in the year 1780, are the most public circumstances which occur in this correspondence. Dr. Johnson seems to think the Poems spurious.—The Lives of the Poets were written by starts, and often in a hurry. Indeed, in those where most pains are seemingly employed, the biographer, perhaps, only brought into form ideas which he had long possessed, and bent his powers of disquisition and discernment to subjects on which he had often thought, and on which he had probably decided. He seems not to have been aware, that the Life of Milton was coloured with political prejudice: his opinions on these subjects were deeply rooted; and, from their not having been contradicted in conversation, he might have thought that they were indisputable. The task of biography, at this period of his life, he seems to have wished to escape: he applied to lord Westcote for a Life of his relation (lord Lyttelton), and mentions, with some exultation, his success in procuring the Life of Young from Herbert Croft.—Of the riots in London he gives a tremendous account: he speaks of the great services which Mr. Wilkes performed; and tells us, that the king first recovered from the panic, and put the troops in motion, before his ministry had time to awaken from their consternation.

Dr. Johnson speaks with regard and affection of Mr. Thrale: the letter to Mrs. Thrale, on his death, we should have transcribed, if we had not already transcribed much. Their happiness in marriage was so great, he says, that 'without person

nal knowledge, he should have thought the description fabulous.' We omit it for another reason, to preserve the letter which Dr. Johnson wrote to Mrs. Piozzi, on her marriage. We have already hinted at some letters being omitted, and we strongly suspect that some expostulations passed on the report, or after the first information, previous to the conclusion. Whatever foundation our suspicions may have, we shall transcribe the only letter from Johnson, that appears on this subject, in the present collection. It is admirably suited to the situation and circumstances of his correspondent*.

'What you have done, however I may lament it, I have no pretence to resent, as it has not been injurious to me: I therefore breathe out one sigh more of tenderness, perhaps useless, but at least sincere.

'I wish that God may grant you every blessing, that you may be happy in this world for its short continuance, and eternally happy in a better state; and whatever I can contribute to your happiness I am very ready to repay, for that kindness which soothed twenty years of a life radically wretched.

'Do not think slightly of the advice which I now presume to offer. Prevail upon Mr. Piozzi to settle in England; you may live here with more dignity than in Italy, and with more security: your rank will be higher, and your fortune more under your own eye. I desire not to detail all my reasons, but every argument of prudence and interest is for England, and only some phantoms of imagination seduce you to Italy.

'I am afraid however that my counsel is vain, yet I have eased my heart by giving it,

'When queen Mary took the resolution of sheltering herself in England, the archbishop of St. Andrews, attempting to dissuade her, attended on her journey; and when they came to the irretrievable stream that separated the two kingdoms, walked by her side into the water, in the middle of which he seized her bridle, and with earnestness proportioned to her danger and his own affection pressed her to return. The queen went forward.—If the parallel reaches thus far, may it go no farther.—The tears stand in my eyes.

'I am going into Derbyshire, and hope to be followed by your good wishes, for I am, with great affection, Your, &c.'

The second volume concludes with some miscellaneous letters, and the Odes in the Consolations of Boethius, the joint labours of Dr. Johnson and Mrs. Piozzi. We cannot leave the collection before us, without again commending it; it conveys faithful pictures; and we listen with pleasure to Johnson, while we are disgusted with his biographers.

* It is a little remarkable, that we hear nothing of M. Piozzi till after the death of Mr. Thrale, and he is not then spoken of as a new acquaintance.

Pharmacopœia Collegi Regalis Medicorum Londinensis. 4to. 9s.
Johnson.

NEAR fifty years have elapsed since the publication of the last edition of the London Pharmacopœia. In this interval, the colleges of Wirtenburg, New Brunswic, Upsal, Copenhagen, Peterburgh, and Edinburgh, have published repeated editions of their several dispensatories. What may at first seem negligent, will be found at last highly creditable; and, when the college may have appeared most inattentive, in assisting the English physicians with a proper pharmaceutical guide, it will be a sufficient answer to refer the caviller to the former dispensatory. It contained many active and judicious prescriptions; and, though encumbered with some crowded formulæ, contained fewer trifles, and more excellencies, than any dispensatory of that period. The dignity of the college, in their national publications, is well preserved. Their directions are concise, pointed, and sufficiently clear to adepts, but they avoid minuteness in the directions, as it is not a work of chemistry; they omit the trifling cosmetics, which contribute to fill up some valuable foreign dispensatories, and refuse to assist the cook or the confectioner. The narrative of the committee, prefixed to the last English edition, is a work of much learning; displays great extent of information, and an accurate discrimination between what is useful or elegant in composition, and what is trifling or disgusting. We greatly regret that the English translation is not decorated by a similar narrative.

It is the great business of a reviewer of a national work, to give a full account of the changes which the improvements in science, more accurate investigation of the powers of remedies, or even fashion and fancy, have suggested. We should also perform our task imperfectly, if we did not join in applauding what is proper, and blaming what is either incorrect, hastily rejected, or too eagerly admitted. As the translator has added notes, like Dr. Pemberton, we shall defer the task of criticism till we can examine the merits of the English version, since we shall then have some of the reasons before us which influenced the college in their conduct. At present we shall confine ourselves to the real changes which occur.

The Preface is written with great elegance; and it explains the necessity of the changes in the names, the reasons for adopting the arbitrary terms allotted to the alkalis, and the conduct of the college in some other respects. The catalogue of the materia medica follows; and the college has now followed the example of almost every foreign pharmacopœia, in assigning

assigning the generic and trivial names of Linnæus to each of the vegetables and animals employed. The last edition had only the synonyms of Caspar Bauhine, for Linnæus was then unknown. From the former catalogue they have rejected the ACACIA; the AGARIC; the semina AMMEOS and AMOMI; the roots of the ARISTOLOCHIA longa & tenuis; the leaves of the ARTEMISIA and ATRIPLEX olida; BDELLIUM; BITUMEN JUDAICUM; BOLUS ARMENIA, BUXI LIGNUM; CALAMINTHÆ folia; CANCROCORUM OCULI; CARPOBALSAMUM; CASUMUNAR; CEPA; CHAMÆDRIYS and CHAMÆPITYS; COSTUS; DICTAMNUS CRETICUS; ELATINE; FULIGO; GLADIOLUS luteus; Gum ELEMI; HEDERA TERRESTRIS; HYPOCISTIS; HYSSOPUS; JUNCUS Odoratus; KERMES SUCCUS; LAMIUM ALBUM; BEZOAR; LICHEN *Cinereus terrestris*; MALABATHRUM; MARGARITÆ; MARUM vulgare; MATRICARIA; MEUM; NAPI Semen; NARDUS Celtica & Indica; NEPETA; OPOBALSAMUM; OVA; PÆOMA; PARALYSIS; PETROSELINUM Macedonicum; PIMPINELLA; PIPER album; PIX arida; POLIUM; SCINCI; SESELI; STÆCHAS; TEREBINTHINA argentoratensis; THLASPIS; THYMUS citratus; TILIÆ flores; TRICHOMANES; VIPERA and UVÆ PASSÆ. Acetum Tartarum, &c. are put under the term vitis; and each calx or salt of metals, usually put into the list of the materia medica, because procured from manufacturers, occurs under the title of the metal.

Among the additions are, ACETOSA; ACIDUM VITRIOLICUM; ACONITUM; ARNICA; AVENA; BALSAMUM Canadense; BARDANÆ; CICUTA; CYNARÆ folia; COLCHICUM; COLUMBA; DIGITALIS; GENISTA; GINSENG; GRATIOLA; HELLEBORASTRUM; ICHTHYOCOLLA; JUGLANS; KINO; MEZEREUM; PAREIRA BRAVA; PIPER INDICUM; QUASSIA; QUERCUS; RIBES nigrum and rubrum; RICINUS; SANTONICUM; SENECA; SIMARUBA; SIUM; SPIGELIA; STAVISAGRIA TARAXACUM TUSSILAGO; UVA URSI and ZINCUM.

Of the more simple preparations, those of course are omitted where the articles are omitted in the materia medica. The roasted squill, the roasted rhubarb and nutmeg, and the strained storax, are expunged. Storax is purified in a different way; and a formula is added for the purification of gum ammoniac.

The conserve of garden scurvy-grass, of mint, rue, lavender, mallows, and rosemary, are omitted. Conserve of arum and squills are added. The preserves are wholly omitted. The inspissated juices of red currants, of lemon, and hemlock leaves, gathered when the flowers are just going to appear, are added. Of the extracts, the ext. enulæ campanæ, aloes,

and

and lign. guaic. are omitted. Extracts of chamomel flowers of broom tops; a resinous extract of bark and cascarilla; an aqueous extract of fenn, are added. The ext. catharticum is improved, by adding the cardamom seeds, near the end of the inspissation, in a smaller quantity, and in substance: it is now *extractum colocynthis compositum*.

The list of expressed oils is augmented by the castor oil; that of essential oils by the animal oil of Dippel; spirit of turpentine rectified by distilling it from water; rectified oil of amber, and the aromatic oil of Hoffman's anodyne liquor, under the title of *oleum vini*. The omissions are numerous: the college have rejected the oils of rhodium, wormwood, marjoram, rue, fennel, chamomel flowers, dill and cammim seeds, as well as the aromatic oils, the oils of box, bricks, and copaiba.

There are numerous changes in the salts; and we shall therefore give a concise and connected description of the articles, as they appear in the new edition. The vitriolic acid is in the materia medica; and its strength ascertained by its specific gravity: from this acid the nitrous, muriatic, and acetic acids, are formed; and their respective strengths are fixed in the same way. The acetic acid is the radical vinegar distilled from copper; and the common distilled vinegar retains its place and name. The vitriolic and the nitrous acid are diluted in different degrees in distinct formulæ. The other acids are the salt of amber, with its oil, and the flowers of benjamin; the last are prepared still by sublimation. Of the alkalis there is prepared kali, natron, and ammonia; a solution of the mild and caustic alkali, called the aqua kali, and aqua kali puri, the solid caustic alkali (kali purum), and calx cumkali puro, viz. a saturated solution of the caustic alkali with lime.—The spirit of sal ammoniac is aqua ammoniæ; that with quick lime, aqua ammoniæ pura. The spirit of hartshorn is retained, and styled liquor volatilis cornu cervi; the salt and oil are distinguished by their former names.

The neutrals are the kali vitriolatum (sal polycress); natron vitriolatum (cubic nitre); purified common nitre; kali acetatum (sal diureticus); aqua ammoniæ acetatæ (sp. Mindereri); kali tartarizatum (tartarum solubile); natron tartarizatum (sal rupellensis); alumen purificatum, &ustum. Sea salt, Epsom salt, and common salt, are in the list of materia medica. We have hitherto interspersed neither praise nor blame; but we may now be permitted to add, that the salts are called with strict propriety, and are described with great accuracy and neatness. This part at least of the work is seemingly carried to its highest pitch of improvement.

Magnesia

Magnesia now appears for the first time in an English dispensatory; its preparation, and the method of calcining it, are properly described. Of the sulphureous preparations there are the flores sulphuris loti, as before; kali sulphuratum (hepar sulphuris); oleum et petroleum sulphuratum (balsamum sulphuris); and sulphur præcipitatum, prepared from the kali sulphuratum.

We must follow also the new edition in our account of the metallic preparations, and leave the comparison to the reader. Our article would otherwise be too extensive. The antimonium calcinatum is continued; the crocus antimonii is improved, by adding to the deflagrated materials a little common salt. The antimonium muriatum is prepared with equal parts of the crocus and vitriolic acid; common salt is added, and a double elective attraction ensues. In this way the preparation formerly the causticum antimoniale, seems to have additional portion of vital air, and to resemble, in this respect, the corrosive sublimate. The preparation of the pulvis antimonialis we shall transcribe: it seems intended to be employed instead of James's powder; it agrees pretty nearly with the specification, except that *H.* separated the remaining phlogiston, by boiling in melted nitre, while the college direct it to be done by heat alone.

‘*Pulvis Antimonialis.*—*R.* antimonii in pulverem crassum triti, cornu cervi rasi, singulorum p. libras duas.—Misce, et injice ollæ ferreæ latæ, ad rubedinem calefactæ, & assidue agita, donec colore cinereo fuerint. Materiam refrigeratam in pulverem tere, et crucibulo loricato immitte. Crucibulum aliud inversum, cui parvum sit in fundo foramen, luto conjunge. Ignem subministra, quem ad rubedinem sensim auge, & ita auctum serva per horas duas. Denique materiam frigescentem in pulverem subtilissimum tere.’

The sulphur antimonii præcipitatum is nearly the same as the kermes mineral, and ordered to be prepared in a different manner from the former medicine under that title. The antimonium tartarizatum is directed to be prepared from the crocus, with an excess of the crystals of tartar, and to be crystallized. The glass of antimony (antimonium vitrificatum) is now added.

The lunar caustic is made with a greater proportion of aqua fortis, and is more properly called argentum nitratum.

The flores martiales are prepared from iron filings, and called ferrum ammoniacale.—The ferri rubigo is directed to be moistened with water instead of vinegar, in the operation of rusting. The ferrum tartarizatum is made by mixing filings of iron with twice the weight of crystals of tartar, into a thick paste, exposing it to the air for eight days, it is then to be dried

dried and powdered.—The *ferrum vitriolatum* is the *sal martis*, somewhat stronger.

Of the mercurials there is the *hydrargyrus purificatus*, by distillation, and adding some filings of iron in the retort. The *H. acetatus* is the *pulvis cinereus* of the Edinburgh dispensatory, though somewhat more calcined, dissolved in the acetic acid, and crystallized: this is probably the medicine of Keyser. The *H. calcinatus* continues nearly as before. The *H. cum creta* consists of three ounces of mercury, triturated with five ounces of chalk, and is intended to supply the place of a very old preparation, the *mercurius alkalizatus*. The *hydrargyrus muriatus*, the *old* corrosive sublimate is prepared in the following manner.

‘*Hydrargyrus muriatus*.—℞ *hydrargyri purificati*, *acidi vitriolici*, singulorum p. libras duas, *salis muriatici ficcati* p. libras tres cum semisse.—Misce *hydrargyrum cum acido* in vase vitreo, & coque in balneo arenæ donec materia exsiccata fuerit. Materiam frige factam misce in vase vitreo cum sale muriatico; tum in cucurbita vitrea sublima calore sensim aucto. Dein materia sublimata a scoriis separetur.’

Calomelas, formerly *mercurius dulcis*, remains; and Scheele’s calomel, the *H. muriatus mitis* is also added. The *H. nitratus ruber*, the old *mercurius corrosivus ruber*, is prepared by adding a small proportion of muriatic acid to the nitrous. The *mercurius præcipitatus albus* is now *calx H. muriati*. *Æthiops mineral* continues, to the disgrace both of chemistry and medicine, under the name of *H. cum sulphure*. In the fictitious cinnabar, the *H. sulphuratus ruber*, there is a less proportion of sulphur, and, of course, some chance that the medicine may not be wholly useless. In the *H. vitriolatus*, the old *mercurius emeticus flavus*, the mercury and acid, are in equal quantities.

The *saccharum saturni* is *cerussa acetata*; and a substitute for Goulard’s preparation is formed by adding two pounds four ounces of litharge to a gallon of distilled vinegar: this may be an useful application; but it is not like that of Goulard. *Stannum pulveratum* continues with little alteration.

Zincum calcinatum is preferred to the flowers; and the white vitriol is purified, by adding a little vitriolic acid, again dissolving and crystallising the salt.

Of the distilled waters retained, there are common water distilled.—*Aqua anethi*; *aqua cinnamomi*; *aqua sceniculi* (from the seeds); *aq. menth. sativ. & piperit.*; *aq. pimento*; *pulegii*, & *rosæ*. They are ordered to be distilled from the *dry* herbs.

Among

Among the *spiritus distillati* we find alcohol; *spiritus ætheris vitriolici* (sweet spirit of vitriol or æther in embryo); *æther vitriolicus*; *spiritus ætheris nitrosi* (sweet spirit of nitre); *spiritus ammoniac* (sweet spirit of sal ammoniac); *sp. ammoniac foetidus*; *olim sp. volatilis foetidas*; *sp. anisi compositus*; *spiritus carui*; *cassiamomi*; *juniperi compositus*; *lavendulæ*; *menthæ piperitidis*; *menthæ sativæ*; *nucis moschatæ*; *pimento*; *pulegii*; *raphani compositus*; & *rorismarini*.

The decoct. *cornu cervi* has a larger proportion of gum arab. than that preparation for which it is substituted, the decoct. *album*. There is also the decoct. *cort. Peruv.*; *hellebori*, *ulmi*, et *hordei*; decoct. *pro somento* & *pro enemate*. The decoct. *pectorale* is now styled decoct. *hordei compositum*. The decoct. *sarsaparillæ* is also attended by a dec. *sars. composit.* a substitute for the Lisbon diet-drink. The mucilages are those of starch, gum arabic, and of quince seeds. The *infusum gentianæ compositum* is the old *inf. amarum*.—There is a simple infusion of senna, and the old preparation, with this title, is called *inf. sennæ tartarizatum*. The simple lime-water only remains: the *tinctura rosarum* is *infusum rosæ*; and the *acetum scilliticum* has one-twelfth of brandy.

The *vinum aloes* is the old *tinctura sacra*. The antimonial wine is made with the glass of antimony; and the *vinum antimon. tartarizat.* is a solution of that medicine in water, with four times as much wine. We hope the quantity directed will not be made in warm weather.—The *vinum ferri* is made with Spanish white wine, instead of Rhenish, and without spice. The *vin. ipecacoanhæ* is prepared with the same wine, without the orange peel. The *vinum rhabarbari* is kept from fermentation by a little spirit: it is in other respects unchanged.

Tinctura aloes is sweetened with a liquorice, which takes off from the disagreeable taste of the aloes.—The compound tincture is the same with the elixir aloes of the last edition. *Tinctura assæ foetidæ*, *balsami Tolutani* and *balsami Peruviani* are understood from their titles: they are made with rectified spirit of wine. The *tinctura benzoes composita*, is the old *balsomum traumaticum*. The *tinctura cinnamomi composita* is the former *tinctura aromatica*; and the *tinctura cardamomi composita* is the old *tinctura stomachica*. The other new tinctures are *tinct. cascarillæ*; *columbæ*; *corticis aurantii*; *Peruviani composita* (Huxham's tincture); *galbani* & *scillæ*. The other altered titles are the *tinct. catechu* (*olim Japonica*); *ferri muriati* (*martis in spiritu salis*); *gentianæ composita* (*amara*); *guaiaci* (*guaiacina volatilis*); *hellebori nigri* (*metampodii*); *lavendulæ composita* (*olim sp. lavendulæ compositus*);

positus); opii (vice tinct. thebaica); opii camphorata (elixir paregor.); fabinae composit. (olim elixir myrrhae composit.); a compound tinct. of rhubarb is added, seemingly with little advantage. Tinctura antimonii; corticis Peruviani volatiliss, fuliginis; strom martialium, saturnina, veratri & styptica, balsamum guaiacinum, elixir vitrioli acidum & dulce, do not occur in this new edition.

The julepum è camphorâ is mixtura camphorata, with the camphor previously rubbed with a little spirit of wine; the julepum è Creta is mixtura Cretacea. The mixtura moschata, lac amygdalæ, & ammoniaci, are sufficiently understood by their names. The first is considerably increased in strength, and the mosch. is suspended by gum arabic. The emulsion has no gum, but more almonds. Hoffman's anodyne liquor occurs under the title of spiritus ætheris vitriolici compositus, and is compounded of a quart of sweet spirit of vitriol to three drachms of the oleum vini. In this form it is scarcely so active as in the Dijon receipt. The spiritus ammoniæ compositus is the spiritus volatiliss aromaticus; and the spiritus ammoniæ succinatus is the eau de luce. Spiritus camphoratus has a double quantity of camphor.

The only syrups are syrupus althææ; caryophilli rubri; corticis aurantii; croci; succi limonis; papaveris albi & erratici; rosæ; spinæ cervinæ; toltanus; violæ et zinziberis. These, in a pharmaceutical view, are too many.

Among the medicated honies are mel rosæ & scilla; oxymel æruginis, with one-fifth only of the quantity of ærugo which it had when it was styled mel Ægyptiacum; oxymel colchicum; Scillæ & simplex. The two last are unaltered: the first is new.

The pulvis hieræ picræ is now pulvis aloeticus. The pulv. aloet. cum guaiaco is a very imperfect representation of an useful, though ill-compounded medicine, the pil. aromat; and the p. a. cum ferro, is in the place of the pil. cephrædicæ. The pulvis aromaticus stands for the species aromaticæ; the pulv. ari composit. for the pulv. sternutatorius. The pulv. è creta compositus, & cum opio, for the different bole powders; the pulvis ipecacuanhæ compositus for Dover's powder. The pulv. è scammonio compositus is rendered more active: the pulv. è senna compositus has fewer aromatics.—The pulv. è cerasia; è chelis cancerorum compositus; contrayervæ compositus, still continue to disgrace a great work. The pulv. opiatu is opium joined with burnt hartshorn, in the proportion of one grain to ten. The pulv. è scammonio cum calomelane is an improvement of the old pulv. basilicus, though the cream of tartar might have been continued, as the medicine was in powder.

powder. The starch and the liquorice crowded the pulv. è tragacantha comp. too much : they are now properly omitted.

The lozenges are of little importance : the *trochisci amyli* are the former white lozenges ; the *T. glycyrrhizæ*, the black ones. The *T. è nitro. & sulphure* remain. The *T. è creta* are the old *tabellæ cardialgicæ* ; and *T. è magnesia* are now properly added, for the first time.

Pillulæ ex aloe are formed of aloes, ext. of gentian, and syrup of ginger : *pil. ex aloe cum myrrha* are the former *pil. Rufi* ; the *pil. è gummi* are the *pil. gummoſæ* ; and the *pil. ex hydrargyro* are the *pil. mercuriales*. The *pil. ex opio* supersede the *pil. fapon* ; and the *pil. è scilla* are an improved form of the *pil. scillit.* though rather too much crowded by the ginger. —

The electaries are few : viz. elect. è cassia, è scammonio, & è fenna (olim elect. lenitiv.) Why was not the elect. è bacis lauri continued ? The college have not ordered a more efficacious medicine in this volume. The *confectio aromatica (cardiaca)*, and the *conf. opiata (Philonium Londinense)* amply supply the voluminous electaries of this kind in the former edition.

Of the medicated waters, the *aq. aluminis composit.* stands for the *aq. aluminosa Bateana* ; and the *A. cupri ammoniati* for the *aqua sappharina*. The *A. lithargyri acetati composita* is a diluted solution of the former water, with a little proof spirit. *A. zinci vitriolati cum camphora*, is made with the *spiritus camphoratus*, instead of the camphor in substance.

All the infusions and decoctions in oil are justly rejected. The plasters next follow. The *emplastrum ammoniaci cum hydrargyro* is only slightly altered in name. The *emp. cantharidis* is improved by adding hogs-lard instead of vinegar. *Empl. ceræ* is the former *attrahens*. The cummin plaster is unchanged ; the *empl. ladani* is the same as the former *empl. stomachicum*. The *empl. lythargyri* is much like the old *empl. è minio* ; the calx from which the name is derived is only altered. But the greatest change, in this department, is the substitution of the *emp. lithargyri* for the *emp. commune*, in many following formulæ. Thus we have the *emp. lithar. cum gummi*, *cum hydrargyro faponis*, *thuris*, & *cum rezina*, in other respects like the old formulæ, with similar titles. The two last are the *empl. roborans* & *commune adhæſivum*. The *empl. picis Burgundicæ* is the old cephalic plaster.

The *unguentum adipis suillæ* is the former unguent. simplex.—*U. calcis hydrargyri albæ* was once *U. è mercurio præcipitato*. The unguent *ad vesicatoria* is now, more properly, made of a decoction of cantharides, with the *empl. è ceræ*.

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The ung. ceræ is the former ung. alb. U. cerussæ acetatæ was once the saturninum, though it had then a less quantity of wax. The new U. elemi is rendered softer by mixing a little oil with it. The white hellebore ointment is new, and, with the aid of a little essence of lemon, is no disagreeable remedy for a very disagreeable complaint. The strong mercurial ointment is made with an equal quantity of the adeps & sebum, though in different proportions, without the bals. sulphuris. The U. hydrargyri mitius is near the strength of the unguent. cæruleum mitius, as it contains one part of the strong ointment to two parts of hogs lard. The U. hydrargyri nitrati has been long in use under another name, the citrinum, though not in the Dispensatory. Ung. picis is unchanged. The basilicum, now the U. resinæ flavæ, loses the common turpentine, with advantage. U. Sambuci, sulphuris, & tuiæ, are unaltered. U. spermatis ceti is altered only in name from the linimentum album. The liniment. ammoniæ is stronger than the linamentum volatile, which it displaces; and there is a still stronger liniment, distinguished by the additional term fortius. The linimentum saponis remains unchanged: the L. camphoratum is an elegant and useful form. It has two ounces of camphor, six of aq. ammoniæ, and sixteen of simple spirit of lavender.

The ceratum album, citrinum, & epuloticum, remain under the new terms of C. spermatis ceti, resinæ flavæ, & lapidis caliminariis. There is a ceratum cantharidis, C. lythargyri acetati, which contains some camphor, and a very useful preparation, well known in private practice, ceratum saponis. With the soap it contains a pretty large proportion of acetated litharge.

The cataplasma cumini has a double proportion of the cummin seeds; the cataplasma sinapios consists of equal parts of flower of mustard and crumb of bread, made into its proper form with vinegar. The coagulum aluminis continues unaltered.

An Essay on the Method of Studying Natural History. By Richard Kentish, M. D. F. A. S. Delivered to the Soc. Nat. Studioforum, at Edinburgh. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

THERE is no little confusion in this Essay. It is said to be delivered in 1782; but the author not only tells the members what happens in 1782, which they must be supposed to know as well as himself; but, by a kind of prophecy, what happened in 1783 and 1784. In fact, he speaks at the same time of the origin of the Society, and of its improved state:

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while a student in Edinburgh, he regrets that he did not make sufficient use of sir Joseph Banks's library in London. Though we cannot explain the facts, we perceive the source of the errors to be, his having added to his oration since its first delivery, and having united the different parts very unskilfully.

The observations on the method of studying natural history consist chiefly of a list of authors, many of which he seems not to have read. In mineralogy, he speaks of Romè de l'Isle's system; and the attempts of some other crystallographers; but omits the abbé Häuy, the best support of crystallography, and overlooks the proposal, and indeed the practice of many natural historians, who fix the specific characters from the obvious properties. He is not aware, that much real knowledge may be derived from crystallography, or of the many facts lately adduced for that purpose. His arguments against it are those only of Mr. Kirwan. If he objects, that the speech was delivered in 1782, we must remark, that it was corrected and enlarged in 1787.

On the physiology of plants, he is not aware of the best book on the subject, Du Hamel's *Physique des Arbres*; and on their application to the purposes of medicine, he is strangely mistaken, in thinking that Murray's *Materia Medica*—(*Materia Medica! Apparatus Medicaminum*) is arranged according to the Linnæan system. The method is indeed botanical, but the orders are natural ones, of his own formation. He ought to have known, that though this work is not completed, so far as it goes it is the best and most instructive system that has ever appeared.

Of Buffon he says, that the 'elegance of his diction, and the boldness of his thoughts, give an air of novelty and genius to his work.' The tutor of natural history might have learned, if he had read this author, that the novelty and genius were not semblances only: he might have found a greater number of real, well authenticated facts; more true information in Buffon's work, than in an host of merely popular writers. We know his faults; but we sever his excellencies.

It is a little surprising that Dr. Kentish, who engages to instruct, did not know any thing of the system of insects by Fabricius. On this subject too, the only notice which he takes of Swammerdam is the observation that four hundred writers preceded him in the path of entomology. Perhaps he was not acquainted with the *Biblia Naturæ*, a work of such vast extent of knowledge, such unwearied labour, and so excellent in execution, as to raise the highest admiration in even a superficial enquirer.

On the whole, in this work we find much that is generally known;

known; little that is out of the common tract. It is a respectable Essay for a student; but it will not add credit to one farther advanced in the science. It would have been more prudent to have kept it from the public.

An Essay on Sea-Bathing, and the Internal Use of Sea-Water.

By R. Kentish, M.D. F.A.S. Edin. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

DR. Kentish has tried some experiments on bathing; but, from that source we cannot perceive that he has greatly improved our acquaintance with the remedy. His second experiment we can, however, confirm from our own trials; and, from them too, we can contradict one of his remarks, that the glow never comes on in the parts of the body immersed in the water. We have felt it a thousand times, particularly in the sea. His recommending weak people to bathe in the forenoon rather than in the morning, and to take some cordial to assist the glow, when it does not come on, are also well founded. In general, however, his directions are not properly discriminated: the salutary lessons are mixed with many errors; and, while this book will, in no instance, supersede the directions of the practitioner, it will add little to any practitioner's knowledge.

The mischief is greatly increased by the Synopsis, and the very short insufficient remarks added to it. How can any person not acquainted with diseases, distinguish between active and passive hæmorrhages? And, since he has remarked the sedative power, from remaining in the bath, why did he not rather discriminate the management peculiar to each kind of hæmorrhage? Elephantiasis, giddiness, melancholy, jaundice, hectic, syphilis, hiccough, low fevers, and the confluent small-pox, appear among the diseases for which 'cold bathing is an approved remedy,' without a single remark. This undistinguishing recommendation is highly pernicious. We know that, in peculiar stages, and with cautious management, it has been used in most of these cases; but does the author really think it adapted for melancholy, jaundice, or elephantiasis? Will it remove a gall-stone? Will it correct the præternatural torpidity? or destroy those ill-formed tubercles, which characterise the true elephantiasis? As the author writes for the people, we cannot help eagerly cautioning our readers to distrust this very inaccurate list of diseases, and those very undiscriminated recommendations.

The use of bathing in hectic we have not mentioned; it is a speculation which requires caution and attention. In this work too, it is connected with doctrines which we think highly dangerous, viz. the use of full diet and tonics, under which

head we observe that wine occurs. We have seen instances of this practice; but they have been fatal ones, and we shall reserve a full discussion of this seemingly destructive tenet till the author's work on phthisis appears. It will then receive the strictest examination.

He seems to misrepresent the general practice of physicians, who prepare their patients for the cold bath, by bleeding and depletion. In cases of general weakness, it would be undoubtedly wrong. It is probable, however, from his remarks, that he has never seen considerable plethora with weak vessels; that he has never observed symptoms of debility arising from, or attended with, a great fulness of the circulatory system. If he was to meet with such a case, and employ the cold bath, without previous evacuations, some internal hæmorrhage would probably be the consequence; if he should direct bark and full living, he would augment the disease. There is little doubt but that, when he has practised some time, many such will occur: to his future experience, therefore, we may safely leave him.

The Rural Economy of Norfolk: comprising the Management of Landed Estates, and the present Practice of Husbandry in that County. By Mr. Marshall. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

MR. Marshall is not unknown to the public, or to our readers: in our XLVIIth Volume, p. 18. we gave an account of his first work, entitled, 'Minutes of Agriculture,' and we found him enterprising and attentive, affectedly singular, and whimsically eccentric. His second appearance was in our XLVIIIth Volume, p. 444. where we gave an account of his 'Experiments and Observations concerning Agriculture and the Weather.' He seemed improved in that short interval, and we are happy to find that his improvement has been progressive.

In these volumes he explains the rural œconomy of Norfolk; but as we expressed some apprehensions that he might become a theoretical book-maker, from a practical farmer, it is necessary to clear his character from every suspicion. He found the inutility and fallacy, he tells us, of 'transient views;' and, at the same time, thought that faithful registers of the practice, in well cultivated districts, might be extremely useful. For this purpose, he presented a very excellent plan to the Society for the Improvement of Arts, &c. in 1780; and as he had endeavoured to acquire agricultural knowledge systematically, from 'self-practice,' he proposed to extend his observations to the practice of others. In reality, he purposed to reside in some county where agriculture was studied with precision

precision and care, at least twelve months; to confine his observations to cattle, the dairy, and the management of grazing; after which he intended to pursue his enquiries in arable districts. The plan was not adapted to the Society's views; so that, while they offered every assistance which their library or their models could afford, they declined engaging in it more particularly. At this time he was offered the agency of sir Harbord Harbord's estate in Norfolk. This was well enough suited to his designs; and the volumes before us are the result of his enquiries in that county. We find, that he has since been in Yorkshire with the same purpose, and we are in daily expectation of his observations on the system of husbandry peculiar to that part of the kingdom.

The first part of his work contains a general description of that part of Norfolk in which his observations were made, and their agricultural system: it relates to districts, estates, farms, soils, manures, farmers, workmen, horses, implements, and taxes. The part of the county where the pure Norfolk husbandry may be found unaltered, is the eastern district. We shall extract a general account of the soil.

'A singular uniformity of soil prevails throughout this country: there is not, perhaps, an acre in it which does not come under the idea of a *sandy loam*.

'Its quality, however, varies widely, both as to texture and productiveness. The northern part of the district abounds with barren heaths and unfertile inclosures; while the southern hundreds are principally covered with a richer, deeper, highly productive soil.

'The soil, in general, however, may be termed shallow; perhaps six, perhaps five inches may be taken as the medium depth.

'Immediately under the cultivated soil, a hard crust—provincially "*the pan*"—occurs universally; and under this substrata of various qualities, an unfathomable ocean of sand may be considered as the prevailing substratum. In some places a hungry gravel, but more frequently an absorbent brick-earth, is the immediate *sub-soil*. Marl sometimes rises to near the surface, but seldom so high as the pan.'

The pan, our author thinks, is produced by the pressure of the broad flat share of the Norfolk plow: to break it may be injurious, since it becomes a receptacle of the seeds of weeds, and is a defence against the bibulous sand below, which would absorb the water. From general considerations of the soil, and natural history of that part of the kingdom, we are entirely of the same opinion. The great Norfolk manure is marl, and Mr. Marshall gives a very good account of the different kinds of marl. Let us select a short passage, where his whimsical language is strongly and pointedly expressive.

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The natural situation of the white marls of this district is singular: they do not lie in strata, as fossils in general do;—nor in a continuation of rock, like chalk and limestone; but in distinct masses, of different figures and magnitudes, rising with irregular heads toward the surface, and sinking to, perhaps, ten, perhaps, twenty feet deep, and sometimes to a depth unfathomed. If the abyss of sand, in which they lie buried, could be rendered transparent, these clouds of marl would, I apprehend, be seen scattered under the surface of this country, in resemblance of the clouds of vapour, which we frequently, in summer, see suspended in the atmosphere.

Marl is well known to be a calcareous earth, with different proportions of clay and sand.—The different marls of Norfolk are analysed in this part of the work, with sufficient accuracy. An account is given of the other manures, particularly the sea-sand, used in Yarmouth for littering the horses, which is consequently impregnated with the different excrementitious fluids. The horses are those of the heavier black Lincolnshire breed: the old active, though smaller race, is almost extinct.

The general management of estates, in Norfolk, is explained under the heads of tenancy, term rents, covenants, time of receiving rents, and heads of a lease. These particulars we cannot abridge; and, indeed, the work before us is so miscellaneous, that we can do little more than transcribe the subjects of the author's attention, and occasionally extract any passage that may appear interesting. He next explains construction of the buildings, and the materials, the forms of gates and fences, and of live hedges. He treats also of inclosures, planting, the general management of timber, and pretty extensively of the general management of farms, that is, of the several crops, and the use to which the different products may be applied. Previous, however, to this discussion, he examines their practice of laying out, succession, soil process, manure, seed, vegetating and harvest process, farm-yard management, and markets. The laying out farms, and proportioning their fields to the size of the farm, is a great object of the Norfolk husbandman, and is generally judiciously executed. In most of the other parts of this subject he is equally a proficient. In the soil process, in particular, they excel; and their management is distinctly detailed. Broad-cast is almost universally prevalent.

Mr. Marshall then informs us of the Norfolk management respecting wheat, barley, oats, pease, vetches, buck, turnips, cultivated and natural grasses, cattle, sheep, rabbits, swine, poultry, decoys, and bees. The article of cattle is very extensive, and the observations are judicious: we shall extract what relates to decoys, as little known, and more generally entertaining.

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‘ The leading principles of a decoy are these. The wild-duck is a very shy bird, and delights in retirement. The first step, therefore, is to endeavour to make the given water a peaceful asylum, by suffering the ducks to rest on it undisturbed. The same love of concealment leads them to be partial to waters whose margins abound with underwood and aquatic plants; hence, if the given water is not already furnished with these appendages, they must be provided; for it is not retirement, alone, which leads them into these recesses, but a search after food, also.

‘ Nevertheless, at certain times of the day, when wild fowl are off their feed, they are equally delighted with a smooth, grassy margin, to adjust and oil their plumage upon. On the close-pastured margins of large waters frequented by wild fowl, hundreds may be seen amusing themselves in this way: and, perhaps, nothing draws them sooner to a water than a convenience of this kind:—hence it becomes essentially necessary to success to provide a grassy, shelving, smooth-shaven bank at the mouth of the pipe, in order to draw the fowl, not only to the water at large, but to the desired part of it.

‘ Having, by these means, allured them to the mouth of the pipe, or canal, leading from the water to a tunnel net, fixed at the head of it; but hid from the sight, among trees and aquatic plants;—the difficulties now remaining are those of getting them off the bank into the water, without taking wing; and of leading them up the pipe to the snare which is set for them.

‘ To get them off the bank into the water, a dog (the more he is like a fox the better) steals from behind a screen of reeds, which is placed by the side of the pipe to hide the decoyman, as well as his dog, until the signal be given. On seeing the dog, the ducks rush into the water; where the wild-fowl consider themselves as safe from the enemy which had assailed them.

‘ But among the wild-fowl, a parcel (perhaps, eight or ten) of decoy-ducks have mixed, and were, probably, instrumental in bringing them, with greater confidence, on to the bank. As soon as these are in the water, they make for the pipe; at the head of which they have been constantly fed; and in which they have always found an asylum from the dog. The wild-ducks follow; while the dog keeps driving behind; and, by that means, takes off their attention from the trap they are entering.

‘ As soon as the decoyman, who is all the while observing the operation through peep-holes in the reed-screen, sees the entire shoal under a canopy net, which covers and incloses the upper part of the pipe, he shews himself; when the wild-fowl instantly take wing; but their wings meeting with an impreviuous net, instead of a natural canopy formed of reeds and bulrushes, they fall again into the water, and, being afraid to recede, the man being close behind them, push forward into the tail of the tunnel-net which terminates the pipe.’

The first volume is concluded by a list of rates and proportions; or rather, the prices of different labourers, and the quantity of materials for a given work.

In this volume, various references are made to 'minutes,' or those detached observations which are separate and distinct from any general systematic plan; and the minutes are recorded in the second volume. They are a collection of very valuable facts, related familiarly, and, we believe, faithfully. A list of provincialisms, a very necessary work, concludes the volume.

If the former part of the work would not admit of abridgment, these isolated facts are still less capable of being shortened. The naiveté, the clearness, and the good sense which these minutes display, have rendered them to us singularly entertaining and instructive. The management of the dairy is related more at length, and with much care. It is, however, a Norfolk diary, and the products are not of the best kind. In short, Mr. Marshall's minuteness and singularity gives an interesting appearance even to his dealings with the miller at Walsham fair, or his relation of the manner in which a bullock eats turnips. We shall select only one fact, and we think it an important one.

'In sinking a well near Gunton-House, the workmen it seems traced the tap-root of an oak, through an uniformly white sand, to the depth, I think, of twenty feet. The tree was nevertheless uncommonly healthy and beautiful.

'This shews that a strong soil is not necessary to the production of fine oaks.

'There might, however, be one circumstance favourable to this oak. The stratum which it grew in might be impregnated with the drainage of the house and offices; for of so absorbent a nature is this bottomless bed of sand, that it drinks up the whole drip of the house, together with the overflowings, and waste water, and filth of every denomination.'

On the whole, our author has executed his task very well; and we shall, with great pleasure, accompany him in his future observations in Yorkshire *.

Practical Observations on Hernia; illustrated with Cases. By B. Wilmer. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Longman.

MR. Wilmer's knowledge and experience render him, in many paths, an eligible guide: on the subject of hernia he has already instructed us. These Observations are the result of a careful attention and extensive practice; and we have little doubt but that they will be received with proper respect.

* These Observations are, we find, since published.

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He enforces the observations of some of the best chirurgical authors, on the stricture of the upper part of the sac, which is often an impediment to the reduction, after the ring of the muscles is dilated or divided; and he distinguishes, with great care, between the hernia congenita and the hydrocele. Different cases are also added to illustrate the use of cold applications; the coldest, and therefore the best, is, in our author's opinion, a saturated solution of sal ammoniac in the coldest water, used during solution.

His observations on bleeding in herniæ have not entirely corresponded with our experience. We have often seen the pulse, in cases of rupture, fuller, stronger, and quicker. If he means to condemn the copious and indiscriminate bleedings, often practised, we entirely agree with him; but we have usually thought it expedient to take away some blood from a sound healthy man, if he laboured under a recent hernia, with much pain; especially if the strain which brought it on occurred in the moments of mirth and jollity, and consequently when a little intoxication may be suspected. Perhaps our author may not differ from us: the cases seem to say that he does not; but he will then allow us to observe, that his condemnation of bleeding is too general.

The use of blisters in ileus we do not attribute to the absorption of the cantharides, because their utility appears too suddenly, to admit of this opinion; and we cannot therefore agree with Mr. Wilmer, in thinking a blister to the abdomen would be of service in herniæ; or that the more quick action of the flies, in the methods suggested, would be salutary. The acrid purgatives are, we know, alone successful; and, though it may appear improper, in many views, we suspect, that to quiet the inverted peristaltic motion previously, with opiates, might in the end facilitate the action of the laxative. But this is suspicion only, not sanctified by experience, and must therefore be received with caution.

Surgical Tracts, containing a Treatise upon Ulcers of the Legs, &c. Second Edition. To which are now added, Observations on the more common Disorders of the Eye, and on Gangrene. By Michael Underwood, M. D. 8vo, 5s. Mathews.

WE examined Dr. Underwood's Treatise upon Ulcers of the Legs, the Hints on the Method of Treating Scrophulous Tumors, and the management of the Mammary Abscesses and Sore Nipples, in our LVith Volume, p. 156. On his peculiar method we were cautious of deciding, without experience;

perience; but we immediately began a series of experiments, and took occasion, some time after, shortly to mention the progress of the trials. It was favourable, on the whole, to Dr. Underwood's plan; but the amendment was not so rapid, and we can now add, that the cure was not so certain as we expected. The state of many old ulcers has, however, been much amended by it; the inflammation and pain lessened; and, in some instances, where the plan seemed successful, and we thought it might be safely done, they have been healed. We continue to practise it; and we think it a very valuable improvement: to the former treatises there is very little addition on this second appearance.

The tract on the Inflammation of the Eye is now first published; and contains many facts, which, if not wholly new, are of importance. Dr. Underwood strongly recommends an attention to the distinction between the active and the atonic inflammation. But he allows that in practice it is not easily made: where the pain or the fever be not *considerable*, it may, we think, be safely treated as atonic. Pain from irritability only, or rather a complaint of the eyes, in a very irritable constitution, he attacks with the vapour of the *spiritus volatilis aromaticus* in boiling water, directed to the eye by a funnel; two drachms of the spirit are added to two ounces of the water. Where there is some degree of atonic ophthalmia, he advises the solid collyria, in the form of ointments, instead of the fluid ones; and thinks that sir Hans Sloane's ointment is chiefly serviceable from the stimulus of the powders. He recommends, in some cases, even the extract *faturni*; in others, the unguent. *citrinum*, either with or without cerate. We have come very near this practice, by combining the mercurial ointment with the unguentum *saturninum*, and applying it with a camel-hair pencil every night, between the eye-lids. We have used this application many years, with good success, in atonic ophthalmia, and in the *psorophthalmia*. Specks in the cornea are, he thinks, successfully destroyed by a few drops of the *aqua sappharina*. The effusion of blood in the aqueous humour we have not seen but in consequence of violent blows: Dr. Underwood mentions it as a vicarious discharge, or as a species of inflammation, from an internal cause.

The strictures on gangrene contain some very proper distinctions between that kind of the disease from atony, and that which proceeds from inflammation. In the atonic kind, he recommends the blue vitriol, of which one-eighth of a grain is given, four or six times a day, in a spoonful of spirituous cinnamon-water: it is not, indeed, recommended as an universal

verfal remedy, but as often ufeul, even when bark and opium have failed. In the gangrene, from wounds of the hand, in diffection, he recommends wine and bark. But we think the wine fhould be in moderate dofes, and the bark in large ones. In this way we have feen two cafes, which appeared at firft very threatening, fuccefsfully treated. The external remedies afford nothing new; their application is directed, by attending to the original diftinction refpecting the caufe of the difeafe. We cannot leave this edition, without again expreffing our approbation of Mr. Underwood's plan, and the general execution of his work.

Memoirs of Great Britain and Ireland, from the Battle off La Hogue till the Capture of the French and Spanifh Fleets at Vigo.
By Sir John Dalrymple, Bart. Vol. II. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

OF the firft volume of fir John Dalrymple's Memoirs, which commenced at a very important period of Britifh hiftory, an account was given in our Review for May, 1771. In the preface to that volume, the author informed the public, that the work was undertaken by the advice of the late right honourable Charles Yorke, who advifed him not to truft to printed books for materials, but to procure accels to original papers. Sir John accordingly exerted himfelf in procuring ufeful manufcripts in England, Scotland, and France. We regretted, however, that the work fhould not have been enriched with the evidence of thofe family-memoirs in London, of great authority, which the author was anxious to have feen; and we yet wifh that he would condefcend to the neceffary train of follicitation for that purpofe.

Befides the authority of original papers, fir John Dalrymple adopted feveral anecdotes tranfmitted by oral tradition, which he confidered as of fufficient authenticity when generally current, and relative to a period fo late and interefting as that which was the fubject of the Memoirs. We have already given our opinion of the latitude within which traditonal evidence may be fafely admitted in the compofing of hiftory; and we have no reafon to impeach the credibility of any of the oral documents adduced by fir John Dalrymple in fupport of his narrative.

In April 1773, we gave an account of the fecond volume of thefe Memoirs, which, according to the numeration ufed by the author in the volume now before us, muft be confidered as a part of the former. The authorities upon which it was founded were drawn from the moft fecret fources of information, the *Depos des Affaires Etrangeres*, to which, after great exertion

exertion of interest, and some journies to Paris, sir John Dalrymple procured access by a particular order of the French court. This was a sacred repository, into which no British subject had ever before been admitted; and the result was, that he discovered, particularly among the dispatches of Barillon, the French ambassador at the British court, such scenes of political intrigue, and unexampled corruption, as not only excited his own astonishment, but almost rendered men totally incredulous to the authenticity of the documents which he produced. It appeared that Charles the Second was a pensioner of France, that his ministers likewise were bribed, with the privacy of their sovereign, and that even the name of Algernon Sidney was enrolled in the list of parliamentary prostitutes. In the number of those whose minds revolted at the idea of such general venality, were some who so far transgressed the limits of liberality and candour, as to entertain suspicions injurious to the fidelity of the historian. For our own part, we regarded his personal veracity as inviolable; but we suggested a possibility of falsehood in the dispatches of Barillon, who having the discretionary expenditure of large sums, for the purpose of bribing the court and parliament of England, might impose upon his master, by retaining in his own hands the money which he said he had distributed among certain members of the legislature.

In the preface to the volume now under consideration, sir John Dalrymple acknowledges that the injurious suspicions above mentioned, joined to the uneasiness which he found his discoveries had created in families with which he lived in friendship, discouraged him from the prosecution of his Memoirs; he therefore resolved to leave the rest of his papers with his family, to publish, or not, as they should think fit, after his death; and some parts of them, which he had given in print to his friends for their opinion, he suppressed. Whatever indulgence may be due to the particular circumstances of sir John Dalrymple's connections, we cannot but express our disapprobation of admitting so incongruous a principle into historical narrative. It is the prerogative of a historian to relate the actions and characters of men with truth, for the information of posterity. *Ne quid falsi dicere audeat, ne quid veri non audeat*, should be the maxim of every such writer; nor can it ever be violated without sacrificing the most important and useful purposes of history.

We regret the more the reserve adopted by sir John Dalrymple, as there is much reason to imagine, that among the original papers to which he had access, there were such documents of political transactions and intrigue, as must have
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thrown great light on the period of history which forms the subject of the present volume, and have given it a degree of interest impossible to be instilled into any recital, however well composed, that is founded upon authorities already submitted to the public. Our regret on this account is farther increased, when we consider the abilities of this writer, who was qualified, to apply, with judgment and energy, the important discoveries, for such we shall suppose them, which he has obtained in the course of his research. In a word, we cannot easily be reconciled to the suppression of historical truth, the regard for which ought, in our opinion, to supersede every private consideration; and we must again express a desire that, on some future occasion, sir John Dalrymple will favour the public with those secret vouchers, which a blameable, however amiable, delicacy has hitherto induced him to withhold. Nor are we entirely without hope, that to perform a service of such importance to history, is yet the intention of the author. To those who may be inclined to wish the contrary, we would suggest the reflection, that the virtuous can feel no just reproach for the demerits of their ancestors; and to behold the disapprobation, though posthumous, which follows political depravity, is one of the strongest incitements to rectitude.

This volume commences at the year 1692, with a review of the war on the continent, the war of the sea, and the ministry. The treachery of the great in England is afterwards briefly mentioned in the following terms:

‘The evidence of lord Sunderland’s treachery (for the evidence of such extraordinary facts should be referred to) is to be found in a letter from the earl of Arran, his son-in-law, to king James; the treachery of Godolphin, in captain Lloyd’s report of his negotiations in England to king James; and of lord Marlborough, in his letter to king James, and general Sackfield’s letter inclosing it to lord Mellfort; all lately published by Mr. M’Pherson. The originals of the two last letters are not in existence in the Scots college at Paris, where the other two papers are. But the copies were found among the other official papers of Nairne, under-secretary of state to lord Mellfort, and one of them has an interlineation in Lord Mellfort’s hand-writing. And, in king James’s memoirs, I have seen a memorandum in his own hand-writing, that Lord Churchill had, on the 4th of May, given him information of the design upon Brest. I was told by the late principal Gordon, of the Scots college at Paris, that, during the hostilities between the duke of Marlborough and lord Oxford, near the end of the queen’s reign, lord Oxford, who had got intelligence of the duke’s letter, and pretended, at that time, to be in the interests of the exiled family, applied for, and got an order for the original; and that his making the duke know that his life was in his

his hands, was the cause of the duke's going into a voluntary exile to Brussels in the year 1712: and, indeed, so extraordinary a step as that exile, must have had an extraordinary cause. It is known too from the history of the times, that there was a private meeting between the duke and lord Oxford, at Mr. Thomas Harley's house, to which the duke came by a back door, immediately after which he left England. I have also heard from the late archbishop of York, grandson to the earl of Oxford, that he had been informed, that the duchess of Marlborough, after the death of those two persons, had contrived to get the letter from lord Oxford's papers, and destroyed it.

The transactions relative to the Darien company are intimately blended with the historical events of this reign. Sir John Dalrymple observes, it has been made a question, whether William behaved with his ordinary sincerity and steadiness in the assurances of favour which he gave more than once to the company during their distresses.

‘The following anecdote,’ says he, ‘makes it probable, that there was a struggle in his breast between the part which he was obliged to act to please his English and Dutch at the expence of his Scots subjects, and his own feelings. A provision ship of the first colony, in which were thirty gentlemen passengers, and some of them of noble birth, having been shipwrecked at Carthage, the Spaniards believing, or pretending to believe, that they were smugglers, cast them into a dungeon, and threatened them with death. The company deputed lord Basil Hamilton from Scotland, to implore king William's protection for the prisoners. The king, at first, refused to see him, because he had not appeared at court when he was last in London. But when that difficulty was removed by explanation, an expression fell from the king, which showed his sense of the generous conduct of another, although influenced by the English and Dutch East India companies, he could not resolve to imitate it in his own. For lord Basil's audience having been put off from time to time, but, at last, fixed to be in the council-chamber after a council was over, the king, who had forgot the appointment, was passing into another room, when lord Basil placed himself in the passage, and said, “That he came commissioned by a great body of his majesty's subjects to lay their misfortunes at his feet, that he had right to be heard, and would be heard:” The king returned, listened with patience, gave instant orders to apply to Spain for redress, and then turning to those near him, said, “This young man is too bold, if any man can be too bold in his country's cause.” I had this anecdote from the present earl of Selkirk, grandson to lord Basil.’

The character of William having been variously represented by historians, we shall lay before our readers the short account
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of it as drawn by sir John Dalrymple, who, notwithstanding a latent predilection for that monarch, appears to delineate him with fidelity.

‘The portrait of king William is easily drawn, because it consists of three broad lines, simplicity, utility, and just pride of character; three qualities that compose the character of Socrates, which whoever follows, will pass with success and honour through private life. But it is a portrait that should be much more studied, examined and imitated by men in public life, and above all by British princes; for in proportion as these last shall imitate king William, in the expansion of his mind to the love of religious toleration, that fairest flower of cultivated humanity; in his openness and sincerity to his subjects, in public and in private, his mercy to his enemies, his temper to his opposers, and the warmth, steadiness, and even partiality of his private friendships; in his fortitude against misfortune, moderation during prosperity, and readiness to take advantage of accident, and yet to give way to it; in his application to public business, without pretending singly to direct what can be done with difficulty, even by numbers; in his yielding to parties in a country full of party, in order to recover them, instead of combating, and thereby losing them for ever; in his scorning to court popularity by his manners, when conscious that he could make it follow him by his actions; in his employing men of talents in his service wherever he could find them, even when he liked neither their persons nor their principles; and even in his love of hunting, wine and good fellowship with his select friends, they will be glorious and happy. And, on the other hand, in proportion as they shall imitate the crooked politics of the first and third prince, or the violent politics of the second and fourth prince of the Stuart race, or the selfish and unfeeling indifference too common to those who are elevated above the rest of human kind, their reigns will be inglorious to them, and to their people unhappy.’

While sir John Dalrymple has denied us the pleasure of any new information in the historical part of the work, he has in some degree compensated this defect, by political reflections, which, in general, are just, and discover philosophical observation. But what constitutes the principal merit of this volume, is the interesting articles in the Notes and the Appendix, which have been professedly written with the view of pointing out the most vulnerable parts in the French and Spanish monarchies, that Britain might avail herself of them, had the war which seemed lately on the point of breaking forth been actually kindled.

The first that occurs relates to a military expedition, proposed by the field marshal earl of Stair, who thought that the shortest and safest way to conduct a French war, was by
marching

marching directly to Paris. This plan he is said to have urged on three different occasions, and he was an enthusiast in his opinion to the last moment of his life. It is certain, that a project which proceeded from so high an authority, merited a retribution extremely different from the displeasure which we are told he incurred of his sovereign; and it is no small evidence of the propriety of the plan, that the principles upon which it was formed were confirmed by the marquis de Feuquieres, a military critic of acknowledged penetration and judgment. However hazardous, therefore, such an enterprise may appear to the minds of those who are not suited to the comprehension of great achievements, we believe, that in the circumstances in which it was proposed by the earl of Stair, and under the direction of that consummate general, it would have led to victory and glory. Opportunities may again occur, in which the same plan will be adviseable; but the general who conducts it must be one who is eminently qualified by judgment, fortitude, and activity. It is proper to mention that, in the notes, we meet with some agreeable anecdotes of the earl of Stair.

Sir John Dalrymple has given such a minute and accurate description of Cadiz, and the means of attacking it with success, as deserves the attention of the public. After describing the situation of the place, he thus proceeds:

‘These circumstances have remained the same for two centuries past, during all which time the fleets of England, with a cruel satyr upon their admirals and admiralities, have passed and repassed Cadiz without ever once thinking to take advantage of them. But what was formerly not difficult, is become much easier now, since Mr. Millar’s invention and improvements upon the carronade gun, the largest of which, to throw ball of an hundred pounds weight above two miles, does not weigh a 24 pounder gun; and the small ones, such as the six pounders, are so light, that one of them with its carriage can be born upon a couple of poles by two men carrying their arms hung at the same time. Thirty or forty of those large carronades placed on the narrow neck of land to the eastward of Cadiz, would defend it against a host of enemies, and bar all sallies from the town, because the shot, when the guns are charged with cannister, falls in a sheet fourteen hundred feet in length, nearer or further off according to the different gravities of the parts of which it is composed, and therefore would mow down a column of troops, which in that narrow space could advance only in columns. The same carronades would reach Cadiz, and throwing balls of 100 pounds weight, to fall upon the flat roofs of houses six or seven stories high, would destroy all below them.’

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We cannot coincide in opinion with sir John Dalrymple in the subsequent extract.

‘ There is a popular cry at present in England, on which account the chance is three to one that it is unjust, against the empress of Russia, for introducing the system, that free bottoms make free cargoes in times of war. Strange! that princess deserves a statue in the Royal Exchange, among the monarchs of England, for what she has done. The nation which has most trade, must always suffer most from the pillage of trade; and therefore the English beyond all others. The trade of England in the first years of the reign of king William was almost annihilated by capture; and in the late war it suffered most grievously, because exposed to that pillage, from which the regulations of the empress, in the cause of humanity, of the merchants, who are the general and inoffensive friends of human kind, and of the free communication of the enjoyments of life to all amidst the horrors of war, will for the future protect it.’

Had the empress of Russia particularly favoured the trade of Great Britain, she might have merited the gratitude of the nation; but when she asserted the freedom of commerce, in violation of the laws of neutrality, by supplying our enemies with naval stores, we cannot consider her conduct in any other light than as inimical to the interests of this country. Sir John Dalrymple, in the ardour of philanthropy, overlooks the very necessary distinction between a trade conducted upon the principles of humanity, and that which tends to the encouragement and support of war. We are the more surprised to find him so much a citizen of the world, in this instance, as on other occasions, notwithstanding his liberality, and exemption from national prejudices, he discovers not only a laudable attachment, but extraordinary zeal, both for the interests and glory of Britain.

A great part of the Appendix is occupied with the account of an intended expedition into the South Seas, by private persons in the late war. It appears, that in the year 1779, Sir John Dalrymple proposed to three opulent and public-spirited merchants at Glasgow, a plan for disressing the Spanish trade in the South Seas, by means of privateers, with a little assistance from government. The proposal received the approbation of Lord George Germaine, to whom it was communicated by the author. From that time until the close of the war, the plan was the subject of much epistolary correspondence between sir John Dalrymple and several gentlemen conversant in naval affairs. It was admitted on all hands, that the project was devised with great judgment, and would probably be attended with the most advantageous consequences to those who

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should embark in the expedition. For a particular account of this interesting paper, we must refer our readers to the Appendix, with the author's reflections on it, and a few collateral subjects.

The next article in the Appendix treats of an incorporated union with Ireland, and of a federal union with America. Sir John Dalrymple endeavours to show, that nothing less than an incorporated union with Ireland, like that of England and Scotland, can preserve the British and Irish nations in perpetual amity; as the productions of the two countries being the same, the Irish husbandman, manufacturer, and trader, is the rival of the English husbandman, manufacturer, and trader; and each separate parliament will encourage the industry of its own country, and discourage that of the other.

In respect of a federal union with America, sir John Dalrymple is of opinion, that the Atlantic ocean between Great Britain and that continent removes all chance of animosity that might arise from the circumstances of their vicinity; and that, as Britain has not a single regiment in the dominions of the States, nor the disposal of a single office, nor even a party in the country, it is impossible that she should exert any military force, or undue influence, or sow divisions among them. 'The cause of division then being removed,' says our author, 'the chain of a federal union, stretched across the Atlantic, between the English and their still beloved countrymen, might be as eternal, as the ocean that seems to separate, but, in reality, tends indissolubly to unite them.'

The federal union between Great Britain and America, could be nothing else than an offensive and defensive alliance, combined with a commercial treaty; and the ocean that, in our author's opinion, tends indissolubly to unite them, is likewise open to an intercourse with other nations. Could the legate, or mediator, from whatever country he was chosen, enforce, with all his vigilance, a perpetual prohibition both of foreign emissaries, and domestic incendiaries? Could he ever, in the plenitude of his dictatorial authority, assert an uncontrollable dominion over the passions and caprices of mankind? An eternal union of nations not really incorporated, seems to be an Utopian idea; but we entirely agree with sir John Dalrymple, that the strictest possible connection between Great Britain and the American States, would tend equally to the interests and happiness of both countries, and such a connection ever ought to be promoted and maintained with the greatest cordiality.

The last article in the Appendix is a discourse on the union of nations, by Mr. Fletcher of Salton, written in the year

1706.

1706. It contains many just observations on the treaty of union then negotiating between England and Scotland. But, notwithstanding the great sagacity of the author, who was a determined enemy to that measure, time has long since evinced, that his strongest arguments against it were founded in ideal apprehension; a remarkable proof how much, in the government of nations, events are sometimes different from what might be expected upon the principles of political theory.

We have examined this volume under the successive impressions of dissatisfaction and pleasure: of the former, as it opens no new prospects into the reign of William the Third, when in the power of the historian; and of the latter, because it contains interesting plans for the exertion of the British arms in war, and the extension of commerce by means of national aggrandisement. We must, however observe, concerning our author's political projects, that while they discover boldness of conception, and strength of understanding, they are inspired with a glow of fancy, a hyperbolical confidence, that seem to bid defiance to time and accidents, under every administration of government.

The Life of Baron Frederic Trenck; containing his Adventures, his cruel and excessive Sufferings, during ten Years Imprisonment, at the Fortress of Magdeburg, by Command of the late King of Prussia; also, Anecdotes, historical, political, and personal. Translated from the German, by Thomas Holcroft. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed. Robinsons.

BARON Trenck, whose life is related in this work, was descended of a noble Prussian family. He received his education at Königsburg, before that university fell into disrepute, and was introduced at the age of eighteen to the court of the late king of Prussia, where his personal qualifications and talents could not fail to render him soon distinguished. He immediately caught the attention of that discerning monarch, and was rapidly preferred. Under such patronage, to what eminence he might have risen, it is difficult to say; but the career of his fortune was, in a short time, interrupted by the effect of those very accomplishments which had recommended him to the favour of the sovereign, when the princess A—a became likewise attached to him by the strongest ties of affection. This was a situation in which the unreserved and impetuous temper of young Trenck could not long preserve him from falling a sacrifice to his own imprudence and vanity. Proud, rash, inexperienced, and daring even to insolence, he was unable to restrain himself within the bounds of common discretion. When reproached, concerning the princess, by a lieutenant,

U 2 whom

whom he calls 'a public (meaning royal) Ganymède,' he fought with, and wounded the officer. This appears to have been the first offence he gave to his sovereign; who, resenting the insult, as well as the wound which his favourite had received, uttered his usual threat, '*Herr! der donner und das wetter wird ihm aufs hertz fahren—Nehm' er sich in acht* *.

The prophecy was but too effectually accomplished: Trenck was soon after put under arrest for a trifling neglect; and though, during the next campaign, he appeared to have regained the favour of the monarch, those who envied his fortune, and the splendor in which the munificence of the princess enabled him to live, instilled into the king a suspicion that he held a traitorous correspondence with his cousin, the famous Pandour Trenck, whose excessive cruelties furnished, at that time, subject of conversation to all Europe. To forward their design, a letter was fabricated, as coming from the Austrian Trenck, to the Prussian; and, though it contained nothing on which any specific charge could be founded, it served to confirm the suspicion in the mind of the king, who immediately ordered the supposed offender to be imprisoned in the fortress of Glatz, without giving the most distant intimation relative to the cause of this procedure. After this rupture, no two individuals, apparently, were less capable of reconciliation than the haughty and pertinacious Trenck and the inflexible Frederic. The former demanded a trial, according to the laws of the country; but without the power of obtaining it. The latter, who was implacable in proportion as he was resisted, deemed the appeals of Trenck to justice as so many proofs of his insolence; and, little accustomed to opposition, conceived an irreconcilable hatred to the man who was daring enough, by complaining, to impeach his royal authority. Trenck, however, whose actions all corresponded to the restlessness of his mind, after remaining about seventeen months in prison, effected his escape, in a very precipitate and extraordinary manner, in company with a lieutenant of the name of Schell. The estates of Trenck had been confiscated, the supplies from his mistress cut off, and he and his companion, without the smallest pecuniary resource, were obliged to undertake, through Poland, on foot, a journey of eight or nine hundred miles; the incidents on which are no less surprising than affecting. After obtaining aid from his mother, Trenck first went to Vienna, and next to Russia; where he was engaged

* 'Sir! the thunder and the storm shall rend your heart! Beware.' The translator has not given this expression sufficient force. It was the usual threat of the late king of Prussia, when very angry, and is now become proverbial among German, particularly Prussian officers.

in many extraordinary adventures, arising partly from circumstances, but chiefly from his own impetuosity. At Vienna he maintained a familiar intercourse with his cousin, the Pandour Trenck, and prince Charles of Lorraine; and, in Russia, with the count and countess of Bestuchef, lord Hyndford, the ambassador count Bernes, and many other persons, whose names and characters are well known in the history of those times.

After his escape from Glatz, Trenck remained at liberty upwards of seven years; during which interval, various attempts were made by the Prussian monarch once more to get him into his power. Trenck, inflamed with resentment, and not content with loudly complaining in foreign countries, of the injustice he had sustained, vigorously counteracted the views of his royal opponent; in effectuating which purpose, he particularly availed himself of an intrigue with the countess of Bestuchef.

It was a common artifice with the king of Prussia, to corrupt the servants of those courts which were inimical to his interests; so that by the treachery of the Austrian, and the activity of the Prussian emissaries, Trenck was again seized at Dantzic, the magistrates of which city durst not oppose the requisition of their neighbouring potentate. The unfortunate prisoner was conveyed to Berlin, and thence to Magdeburg, where he was cast into a dungeon which had been prepared for his reception. Being allowed only a pound and a half of mouldy ammunition bread, and a jug of water, in the day, he suffered incredible torments from hunger. In this situation he remained near a twelvemonth; when, attempting to break out, he was once more restored, by the means of an Austrian resident, to his powerful persecutor, by whose orders a new dungeon was built, in which were renewed all the sufferings of the last imprisonment. The walls of this horrid receptacle were so wet, that the miserable captive remained six months continually immersed in water, which trickled down from the arches. He was chained by the foot, had an iron rim round his body, others above his elbows, was handcuffed with an iron bar, which prevented him from bringing more than the ends of his fingers into contact; and had round his neck an iron collar, on which the whole weight of the chains depended. To prevent a dislocation, from this enormous incumbrance, he was obliged continually, while he lay on the bare earth, to support his chains with one hand. That no hope should remain of ever being released from his misery, a tombstone, with his name engraved on it, the indication of the destiny which he was to endure, lay constantly at his feet. To add to this accumulated distress, after he had been some years

in confinement, it is affirmed, that his implacable enemy, with the view of preventing all repose, gave orders that he should be called by the centinels, and be obliged to answer every quarter of an hour. This practice, unexampled for cruelty, is said to have been continued during four years.

Trenck was not released till nine months after the peace of Hubertsburg. He obtained his freedom partly by the mediation of the Austrian court, and partly by that of the princess and other powerful friends at Berlin; who, though they durst not petition the cholerick and obstinate Frederic, appear to have softened and prepared his mind to grant a pardon, by such insinuations and means as were in their power.

The limits of our Journal will not permit us to relate all the stratagems and attempts which were made by the prisoner to escape: suffice it to say, that they were at least as extraordinary as his sufferings; and these were such as nothing but the most invincible vigour, both of body and mind, could ever have enabled him to sustain. The incidents in his life are so wonderful, that were they not confirmed by undoubted evidence, they would be deemed utterly incredible.

In giving an account of a work which reflects so much on the severity of the late king of Prussia, it would be unjust not to observe, that Trenck's original offence was of a nature the most injurious to the character of his sovereign. But admitting that the allusion which offended the king was entirely false and malicious, it must be acknowledged that his resentment was carried beyond the bounds of humanity. It has, however, given rise to a series of adventures, no less extraordinary than interesting; and which, by Britons in particular, may be regarded as a foil to their glorious charter of liberty, that barrier against the outrages of a military government, and the violence of arbitrary power.

As a specimen of the translation, as well as of the manner of the author, we shall insert a short extract, containing the account of his release.

'Peace had been concluded nine months. I was forgotten. At last, however, when I supposed all hope lost, the 24th of December, and the day of freedom, came! At the hour of parade count Schlieben, lieutenant of the guards, arrived, and brought orders for my release!

'The sub-governor supposed me weaker in intellect than I really was, and would not too suddenly tell me these happy tidings. He knew not the presence of mind, the fortitude, which the various dangers I had seen had made habitual. Self-praise offends; yet never was I too much elated in prosperity, depressed in adversity; never timid or undetermined in the moment of danger; and, for the truth of this, I appeal to all who have

have known me personally, or been acquainted with those who have seen me in such situations.

‘My doors, for the last time, resounded! Several people entered; their countenances were more than usually cheerful, and the sub-governor at their head, at length, said, “This time, my dear Trenck, I am the joyful messenger of good news. Prince Ferdinand has prevailed on the king to let your irons be taken off.”—Accordingly, to work went the smith—“You shall also” continued he, “have a better apartment.” “I am free then,” said I, “and you are afraid to tell me so too suddenly. Speak! fear not! I can moderate my transports.”

“Then you are free!” was the reply.

‘The sub-governor first embraced me, and afterward his attendants.’

‘Once more at liberty, I walked about the fortifications, to accustom myself to light and air, and collected the money I had concealed in my dungeon, which amounted to about seventy ducats. To every man on guard I gave a ducat, to the centinels then on duty over me each three, and ten ducats to be divided among the relief-guard. I sent the officer on guard a present from Prague, and the remainder of my money I bestowed on the widow of the kind, the honest, the worthy Gefhardt.

‘The night was riotous, the guard made merry, and I passed most of it in their company. I was visited by all the generals of the garrison on Christmas morning, for I was not allowed to enter the town. Boots, uniform, all were ready by noon. I was dressed, viewed myself in the glass, and found pleasure; but the tumult of my own passions, the congratulations I received, and the vivacity of every thing round me, prevented my remembering incidents minutely.

‘How much room for reflection did this scene afford! My intrinsic worth then and twenty-four hours before, when in prison, was the same; yet, how wonderful an alteration in the carriage and countenance of those by whom I had been so strictly guarded! I was treated with friendship, distinction, attention, and flattery. And why? Because those fetters had dropt off which I had never justly borne. Oh world! what art thou? What, indeed, in despotic states! What is merit, what virtue, where arbitrary power disposes of the fate of men?

‘Evening came, and with it count Schlieben, a waggon, and four post-horses. After a very affecting farewell, we departed. Who could have persuaded me I should have shed tears at leaving Magdeburg? Yet tears I actually did shed. It seems equally strange that I lived here ten years, yet never saw the town.

‘I shall not weary the reader’s patience with the trivial incidents of our journey. The exact duration of my imprisonment at Magdeburg was nine years, five months, and some days; add to these the seventeen months imprisonment at Glatz, and the amount is eleven years. Thus did the prime of life, the brightest hours in the day of man, pass in imprisonment. Thus

was I robbed of time, which monarchs have not the power to restore; thus, too, was my body weakened, thus my health impaired, so that now in my decline of life, a second time, I suffer in the gloom, the damp, and the chains of the dungeon of Magdeburg.'

Concerning the original work, we must remark, that its beauties and defects are very prominent. The latter are, indeed, sometimes shaded, and at others corrected in the translation; and that chiefly by omitting repetitions, which are almost endless in the German. Not even the prisoner's sufferings in the dungeon of Magdeburg seem to prey so incessantly on his mind as the acts of injustice by the attorneys, lawyers, and judges of the courts of Vienna, the men in power, and we may add, the empress-queen, Maria Theresa. By these he was deprived of vast possessions in Hungary, to which he was entitled, as the heir of the famous Pandour Trenck. But, however interesting to himself, and however consonant to his own feelings his repetitions might be, they are tedious and irksome to the reader. We scarcely can regard the egotism and vanity which pervade the work, as part of its defects, since they are highly characteristic of the author; whom, though we are continually obliged to admire for his fortitude, love of freedom, and undaunted integrity, we are almost as continually led to condemn for self-sufficiency, arrogance, and the rash and imprudent manner in which he endeavoured to obtain justice, and by which he frequently defeated his purpose.

Impartiality obliges us to observe, that the manner in which he speaks of the English nation is highly illiberal, and derogatory to himself. That he was defrauded in London by a knot of villains, cannot justify him in affirming that 'the high esteemed English nation, for a thousand reasons, merits the contempt of Germans;' or for asserting that 'the proud and selfish Britons would treat other nations as they do their negroes, were they to fall under their dominion.' This is the language of passion and rancour, and without affecting the character of the English, is injurious to the judgment of the author. That he did not understand the laws of England, or that he should suppose, because he had heard these laws and the integrity of the English spoken of with so much applause, there were no dishonest men among them, was his misfortune and his folly. The best of laws will be abused, and the best of nations will give birth to villains. To characterise a people by the accidental abuse of the former, or the wicked acts of the latter, is very unworthy a mind capable of thinking so justly, so philosophically, as is, occasionally, that of the baron.

We shall now take a view of the reverse of the medal; we shall

shall speak of the beauties of the work. These are of a very masculine, singular, and original nature. The declamatory passages, with which he interrupts the narrative, so forcibly seize upon the imagination, that, even amidst its hurry and avidity for farther information, it willingly stops, and, accompanied by the baron, contemplates, with a kind of enthusiasm, the corporeal sufferings, the unspeakable anguish of mind, and the dreadful effects of despotic authority abused! We do not remember to have read a work that so strongly affects the passions of pity and indignation. To the reality of fact, it superadds the pathos of fiction. It is, likewise, a treasure to the historian; for, exclusive of anecdotes, it gives a strong picture of various persons, and particularly of the late king of Prussia, and his hated opponent, Maria Teresa, of inestimable worth to him whose business is to search for truth undisguised. It also contains numerous characteristic traits of the great northern courts of Prussia, Russia, and Austria; as well as of the inhabitants of those kingdoms.—Baron Trenck has added the lives of his kinsman, the Pandour Trenck, and his friend Schell, who effected his escape from Glatz. These are curious productions, and written in a style almost peculiar to the baron.

In the translation we have remarked some few errors of style, and some mistakes in the meaning of the original. *Saben uns ganz gleichgültig an*, is not ‘saluted us with indifference,’ but looked at, without seeming to notice us.’ *Backofen* is an oven, and not a bakehouse; *lederne hosen* means leather breeches, not spatterdashies; *eine rolle rauchtabak in der hand tragen* does not signify to smook a roll of tobacco, but, to carry a roll of tobacco proper for smooking. These errors we think sufficiently compensated by the vigour of the language, and the impassioned manner in which the translator has conceived and expressed the feelings of his author.

Memoirs of Frederick Baron Trenck. Written by himself. Translated from the German Original, by an Officer of the Royal Artillery. 2 Vols. 8vo. 6s. sewed. Egerton.

THE above is an imperfect translation of the work we have reviewed in the foregoing article, containing more than one half, but not two-thirds of the original. The parts omitted are of the utmost consequence, both to the history and the character of the baron, and leave the story unconnected, and half told. The translation is made by a young officer, who, it is presumed, is better qualified to wield the sword than the pen. Indeed, he modestly pleads, in his dedication, that he ‘attempted the translation merely as an exercise in the German

German language.' He ought, perhaps, to have reflected on the propriety of publishing such an *exercise*, if he is in any degree ambitious of literary reputation.

His errors are peculiar to himself, and numerous. He has paid so little attention to geography, that the English reader will find cities, and rivers, of which he never heard before, nor perhaps ever will again. Thorn, literally following the German, he calls Thoren; Thoran, Thorau; the Vistula the Weichsel; the Warta, the Waarte; &c. Many mistakes of the names of places and persons, for they are continual, seem however to be errors of the press. He is very liberal in the use of French words: thus he calls a soldier in the body guard of Frederic *a garde du corps*; a subterranean passage, *souterrain*; the gate of a city, the town-*porte*; and says the Pandour Trenck was sentenced *d'avoir la tête cassée*; and that, at the fire at Aix la Chapelle, Trenck formed an *espalier* with water pails. His English is sometimes rather remarkable; for, exclusive of inattention to grammar, instead of 'Gefhardt was then in the *feld*,' he writes, 'he was at that time in the *campaign*'—For 'he could not come till the guard was relieved, he could not come before the *relief*:'—'he would soon make my doors fly open, he would soon *shoot my locks*:'—Borck, he says, *appeared* in my prison *in the form of* a cruel, &c.'—'Smiths *laid* a monstrous chain *round* my neck:'—and, instead of informing the reader that Trenck was buried in his subterranean passage, by the falling of a large stone, his assertion is, that Trenck lay *impaled* in the earth. He likewise says, 'my design *misgave me*—enjoy a fresh air—*turned* me blind,' &c. &c.

Some few mistakes are made in the meaning of the original; but, in general, the translator has done justice to his author's conceptions. He appears never to have seen the third volume of the German; but, following a mutilated translation, in French, by baron Borck, has given an abstract which, in forty pages, comprises the events of between three and four hundred, in the original.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 224.)

WE descend from the inhabitants, and the ornaments of the earth, to the earth itself; and we must follow the guides who will afford us novelty and instruction, through pathless ways and even burning mountains: when we cannot chuse our direction, we must patiently obey.

It is well known, that the discoveries of captain Cook animated the zeal of the French; and that, about three years since, an expedition

pedition of a similar kind was suggested, in which the navigators were to tread in his steps, and add to his discoveries. In fact, in August 1785, Mess. de la Peyrouse and de Langle sailed from Brest, in the frigates *Buffole* and *Astrolabe*; and, as little information has been hitherto published of their progress, we shall collect, from the best authorities, what has hitherto been related in Europe, respecting it. The voyage was appointed for the improvement of geography, astronomy, natural history and philosophy, the history of customs and manners. For this purpose, two astronomers were selected; but one could not bear the sea, and returned: M. Dagelet, of the academy of sciences, went therefore alone; three naturalists were appointed, M. de la Martiniere, P. Receveur, and M. de la Fresne; two natural philosophers, Le Chevalier de Lamanon and M. Mongez junior. The *Buffole* carried 113 men: the officers were men of the best information, and the firmest resolution: the seamen preferred for this voyage were those acquainted with different professions: in this crew there were watch-makers, armourers, carpenters, &c. They were well supplied with marine watches, and M. Dagelet was particularly directed to make observations with the pendulum, to determine the differences in gravity, and to ascertain the true proportion of the equatorial to the polar diameter of the earth. He carried with him, for that purpose, the invariable pendulum, which M. Condamine employed in America, Africa, and Lapland.

They made some observations at Teneriffe, and left this island about the end of August 1785: they determined the position of the isle of Martinvaz, and of Trinity: the latter is $31^{\circ} 15''$ west longitude from Paris. They resided on the coast of the Brazils; and M. Dagelet, in a letter to M. de la Lande, gives a most flattering picture of the island of St. Catherine, in 28° of south latitude: they staid but a little while there, and made a few observations only: the time was pressing, and they feared that the season for doubling Cape Horn was already too far advanced. So far M. Dagelet's clock went well: that on board the *Astrolabe* varied a good deal: they looked for the island of Ascension, placed in the maps one hundred leagues to the west of Trinity; but could not find it. M. Dagelet had searched for it once before, and concludes that no such island exists. The whale fishers thought that the Trinity had been mistaken for it; but this is very improbable. An isolated spot in a vast ocean raised perhaps by a volcano, may have had an equally sudden destruction. Trinity is a volcanic rock, where there are three or four hundred Portuguese subsisted by the governor of Buenos Ayres.

The navigators doubled Cape Horn; but, from November 1785, nothing was heard from them till May 1787, though the letters were dated in September 1786, at Monterey, on the coast of California in $36^{\frac{1}{2}}^{\circ}$ north latitude. On the 13th of July they lost six officers, the first pilot, and fourteen men, in a port of North America, of which they had taken the plan, and were try-

trying the soundings. Three boats were sent, and two were dashed in pieces by the breakers, against the bar. In this interval they had been to the north; but the extent of their voyage is concealed. They give a very unfavourable account of California. It is a dry barren peninsula with little water: the attempts of the Spaniards to subdue the natives were ineffectual: the plans of the Jesuits to convert them were scarcely more so, though these subtle priests contrived to establish forty-three small villages in this peninsula. The known parts of it are three hundred leagues in length, and from ten to forty in breadth. It is probable that these vessels did not reach above sixty degrees of north latitude, not so far as the famous Straits, or even Gore's island. They visited Owhyee and the other islands of that group, and returned in the autumn of 1786, to reach India in February 1787; and have, in this voyage, determined the situation of more than fifty places on a coast almost wholly unknown; we suppose from California to the sixtieth degree of north latitude. They reached India in safety, on the first of January 1787; and M. Dufresne, one of the supercargoes, is returned from Macao, on account of his health: he says, that they procured some beautiful furs from the natives of Cook's river. The voyagers are returned to the North, and may be expected about the end of this year.

Of the discoveries of the voyagers in natural history, we have received some very exact accounts from M. de la Martiniere, in a letter, dated Macao, on the 9th of January 1787. From this letter, which we cannot translate in detail, we shall make extracts of some passages which appear most interesting.

Among the plants of Madeira, he mentions the *Dracœnia Draco*, as now very scarce. 'The idea,' says he, 'which we form of it, from the insignificant specimens in our hot-houses, is greatly inferior to what we feel when we examine it in its own country. I have seen at least three; each of whose trunks were from six to seven feet in height, and their diameter from four and a half to five feet. The principal branches, which were from twelve to fifteen, and of the size of a man, were sent off obliquely a little from the trunk; and, dividing into two lesser branches, rarely into three, rose to the height of from forty to fifty feet, including the length of the trunk.—The leaves were fixed to the extremity of the branches, placed alternately, forming a little parcel. The whole tree is so regular, that it seems to have been trimmed by the constant care of a gardener.' In the island of Teneriffe, from the port of Oratora to the last cone of the peak, M. de la Martiniere observed five different kinds of vegetation: this difference is owing, he thinks, to the greater or less decomposition of basalt, which necessarily return to the state of vegetable earth: he was not, therefore, surprised to see the plain of the Oratora entirely covered with vines and fruit-trees, since the rains and melted snows fertilised the earth, and fit it for vegetation.

The

The shrub styled *Spartium supranulium*, (Linnæi fol. Sup. 319.) discovered by M. Mason, is the last which is met with near the extremity of this mountain: it grows with so much strength, that it is not uncommon to meet with a collection of branches covering a space of eighty feet, and from seven to eight feet high. It bears a large quantity of very white fragrant flowers; and these attract bees to a height which appears too great for animals so weak. In reality, some remains of swarms of bees are found in the spiracula of the mountain; the insects are seemingly suffocated by the sulphureous vapours, to which they have been drawn by the warmth, and for protection against the winds.

'We breathed there, says M. de la Martinier, with great ease, except when we were exposed to the sulphureous fumes, which the various spiracula emitted in considerable quantities. At their edges we saw sulphur crystallised, in the form of needles, and of other very beautiful crystals, in great abundance. The volatile alkali seemed to have in that place its usual poignancy. In descending from the peak we took the road of Gouima, which gave me an opportunity of seeing many other little volcanos, and some shrubs which had not occurred in the other parts of the island, viz. the *cytissus proliferus*, *cistus Monspeliensis* & *villosus*, *erica arbores*, and the *pinus tæda*, in considerable quantity.'

M. de la Martiniere was not acquainted with the enquiries of M. Dombay, in Chili, on the subject of the *licli*. Feuillè relates, that under this tree the traveller falls asleep involuntarily, and afterwards feels considerable anxiety*. 'The history which this author has left us, vol. iii. p. 33.' says our natural historian, 'must be received with many restrictions. One day, in our pursuits, accompanied by a marine, we were joined by two Spanish peasants, who were eager to follow us and give us the common names of the plants which we met with: when we came under several *licli*, which shaded the roads, I said to them, There is the *licli*. They acquiesced, and styled it by the same name. I then made a sign to them, that it was dangerous to touch it: one of them, to encourage me, collected a handful of its leaves, which he bit into several pieces; at the same time he made signs, that if I slept under it I should find some inconvenience; and that I should feel some itching, which they could easily express, as their whole time had been employed in scratching. By their encouragement, I collected handfulls of the fruits and flowers. Is it not possible that the bad qualities of this tree may be owing to a very small insect of a reddish colour, which I had occasion to see? But this is conjecture only.'

The voyagers went from Chili to Easter islands, which are entirely volcanic, and where the inhabitants live on the ignama,

* The description and the reference to Feuillè prevent us from thinking it the *alstroemeria ligti*, and we cannot refer it to any other genus. The fourteenth edition of the *Systema Naturæ* is very deficient in synonyms and an index of trivial names.

bananas,

bananas, sugar canes, and potatoes, while shoals of fish swarm on their coast unmolested. Of the Sandwich islands, M. de la Martiniere only praises the boats, which are excellently well constructed, and beautifully painted. Their stuffs are made from the mulberry tree, and display patterns so various, and colours so beautiful, as would be creditable to the manufacturers of any country.

From China they purpose going to Manilla and Kamtschatka, where our botanist will continue his observations: he expects great treasures from New Holland; he will not, we suppose, collect any of the convicts from Botany bay.

In another memoir, our natural historian describes some insects which he has discovered in his voyage: 1. An insect very like the oniscus of Linnæus: it is crustaceous, of a dirty white colour, and was found fixed to the gills of a diodon. 2. An insect lodged in a little triangular prismatic house, of the colour and consistence of tender ice: its body is green, mixed with many bluish spots, and some of a gold colour: its neck terminates in a little blackish head composed of three little leaves, cocked in the form of a hat, and included within three fins: of these, two are large and sloping on the upper part; the other is small, in the form of a semicircle. It was taken on the north-west coast of Nootka, in a calm. 3. An insect which would resemble the glass of a watch, if a glass of this kind was hollowed to a point. The body is of a cartilaginous consistence, and on it there are three elevations, by means of which it fixes itself strongly to the bodies of different marine animals. It was frequently found on a species of diodon, which occurs very often between Nootka and California. 4. A species of pennatula or rather of lernæa, which appears to have some particular characters. This insect was taken on the north-east of Nootka.

This is the most important part of the information which we have received from the different accounts of the French voyagers. We think that we perceive many marks of studied concealment; but what we have related appears to be interesting, and what may be afterwards discovered will probably be more so. As we possess good means of information, we shall take the earliest opportunity of communicating it.

But while the voyagers are ranging over volcanic countries, we must not be inattentive to those of Europe. *Ætna* has been again unquiet, after about six years of rest. From the first to the tenth of last July, there were signs of an approaching eruption: on the eleventh, after a little calm, there was a subterraneous noise, like the sound of a drum in a close place, and it was followed by a copious burst of black smoke. It was then calm till the fifteenth, when the same prognostics recurred: on the seventeenth the subterraneous noise was heard again: the smoke was more abundant; slight shocks of an earthquake followed, and the lava flowed from behind one of the two little mountains which form the double head of *Ætna*. On the eighteenth, while the

the spectators were in anxious expectation of a more severe eruption, all was quiet, and continued so more than twelve hours: soon after they perceived some new shocks, accompanied with much noise, and the mountain threw out a thick smoke, which, as the wind was westerly, soon darkened the eastern horizon: two hours afterwards a shower of fine black brilliant sand descended: on the east side it was a storm of stones; and, at the foot of the mountain, a deluge of flashes of fire, of scoria and lava.

These appearances continued the whole day; at the setting of the sun the scene changed: a number of conical flames rose from the volcano; one on the north, another on the south, were very conspicuous, and rose and fell alternately. At three in the morning, the mountain appeared cleft, and the summit seemed a burning mass. The cones of light which arose from the crater were of an immense extent, particularly the two just mentioned: the two heads seemed to be cut away, and at their separation was a cone of flame, seemingly composed of many lesser cones: the flame seemed of the height of the mountain placed on the mountain; so that it was probably two miles high, on a base of a mile and a half in diameter. This cone was still covered with a very thick smoke, in which there appeared very brilliant flashes of lightning, a phenomenon which *Ætna* had not before afforded: at times, sounds like those from the explosion of a large cannon, were heard seemingly at a less distance than the mountain. From the cone, as from a fountain, a jet of many flaming volcanic matters were thrown, which were carried to the distance of six or seven miles: from the base of the cone a thick smoke arose, which, for a moment, obscured some parts of the flame, at the time when the rivers of lava broke out. This beautiful appearance continued three quarters of an hour. It began the next night with more force; but continued only half an hour: in the intervals, however, *Ætna* continued to throw out flames, smoke, stones ignited, and showers of sand. From the twentieth to the twenty second, the appearances gradually ceased. The stream of lava was carried towards Bronte and the plain of Lago.

After the eruption, Dr. Mirone, the relator, ascended the western side of *Ætna*, and found that point of the mountain covered with hardened lava, with scoria and stones. The travellers were annoyed by the smoke, by the showers of sand, mephitic vapours, and excessive heat. They saw that the lava which came from the western point divided into two branches, one of which was directed towards Libeccio, the other, as we have already said, towards the plain of Lago. The lava on the western head of the mountain, had from its various shapes been evidently in a state of fusion: from one of the spiracula, the odour was strongly that of liver of sulphur: the thermometer in descending was at three degrees of Reaumur's scale, (about forty degrees of Far.) while near the lava, in the plain of Lago, it was fifty-two degrees. (one hundred and forty of Far.) The lava extended

extended two miles ; its width was from two to three Sicilian cannae (from thirteen and three quarters English feet, to twenty one) and two cannae deep (thirteen feet three quarters). Some tender crystals and black dust were collected : the former were probably sal ammoniac ; and the black dust consisted of the same salt with fine sand. An analysis of the different volcanic matters furnished by *Ætna*, follow ; but it offers nothing very new or interesting.

Of the different volcanic productions, basaltic columns are the most curious and most difficult to explain. We have had occasion to mention the different facts and arguments, which seem to show, that they are really the consequence of fusion ; and perhaps the observations of Dr. Delabre and M. Besson, communicated to the Royal Academy of Sciences, may contribute to confirm it : the former found, by very careful observation, that decomposed basalt was very soon changed into globular masses, whether the original form was prismatic or of a more irregular kind. This fact, while it accounts for the frequent occurrence of rounded pieces of lava, seems to bring additional evidence for the volcanic origin of basalt. There is another state in which these rounded bodies appear : they are sometimes thrown out in this form at first from the craters ; and they acquire it either by rolling in the fused mass or by various successive coatings of the liquid matter. In this memoir, the author distinguishes very carefully the two kinds, and pursues the distinction in all the different forms which they assume, when farther decomposed. These memoirs furnish many curious facts, and a series of attentive observations on many different extinguished volcanos. The observations of M. Besson, on the different decompositions of lavas, and the cause of their changes, deserve very particular attention : though made on one spot, the distinguished volcano of Puy de la Veuille, in Auvergne, they may be generally extended, and will furnish strong arguments against those sceptical philosophers, who take an example from the hardest lavas, and calculate the time that earth may be formed from the softest. We have seen some beautiful coloured drawings of volcanic products by M. Besson, and think that they may be imitated with great success, in the method of tinted engravings. Indeed this art is as well adapted for the representation of mineral productions, as common coloured engravings are for conveying faithful and beautiful likenesses of beasts and birds. We are surprised that it has not yet been employed for this purpose.

Memoirs de l'Academie Royale des Sciences. (Concluded from p. 67.)

IN pursuing our account of the transactions of this very respectable society, we meet with a memoir of the abbé de Gua, whose title is, Different Measures, partly new, of spherical Areas and solid Angles, both triangular and polygonal, of which the Elements, in a sufficient number, are supposed to be known ; with remarks, tending to simplify the integers of many differential

ential equations already separated from unknown ones. These measures are in reality, only new in part, since the first person who attempted to measure solid angles was Albert Gerard, who boasted, that his method was entirely new, except, he adds with a peculiar reserve, it was known before the deluge. The invention, however, is attributed, in more than one English work, to Cavallieri a Jesuit, and professor at Bologna. The method occurred to the abbé de Gua, in consequence of some propositions in his spherical trigonometry; and it is undoubtedly, in some respects, different from that of Gerard: different solutions have also been given by James Bernoulli, M. Leonard Euler, and the abbé Bossut; our author's is plain, simple, and elegant. We are sorry that we can give no adequate idea of it, without the diagrams, and a more full explanation of the article on spherical trigonometry than is consistent with our limits.

The same author presents us with some new and useful properties of the tetraedron, or, as he calls it, an essay on tetraedometry. This science has the same relation to solid angles as trigonometry has to plane ones; and as, in the former essay, this system of solid mensuration is deduced from the properties of the plane surface. The utility of the science before us is conspicuous in many arts, where the mensuration of solid angles is of the utmost importance. But this memoir is intimately connected with the former ones; and of course, we can only announce its title and its object.

M. Berthollet's memoir, on the difference of radical vinegar and the acetous acid, is a very curious one. The radical vinegar is indeed more concentrated than distilled vinegar, in the proportion of 1,0404 to 1,0178; but when diluted to an equal strength, its taste is more sharp, and its smell more poignant. When more closely examined, it appeared that the radical vinegar had a greater attraction for alkalis, formed a more perfect combination with them, and resisted better the action of heat than distilled vinegar. Our author thinks that vinegar, when added to the copper, gives it some phlogiston, and receives from it some vital air, by which its acidity is increased: he proposes to make verdigrise more expeditiously by adding to the calx of copper, as it rises from mines, or is procured in the residua of different processes, to the acetous acid; and the radical acid may at any time be procured by the same means: the salt is then soon evaporated, and the acid separated by distillation.

The same author's method of procuring caustic alkali, pure, for it is usually contaminated with a little calcareous earth, some effervescing alkali, and occasionally with a little iron, is a very useful one. The caustic alkali was dissolved in spirit of wine, and distilled. The salt came over separate from the heterogeneous matters: it appeared quite pure in the common trials, but formed a little precipitation in a solution of barytes, in the muriatic acid, of an effervescing powder. If the distillation is carried farther, the solution of the purer part of the salt in the

spirit of wine, is separated from the solution in water. The oily part of the spirit of wine (our author calls it the resinous) is also separated by a decomposition of the spirit itself. In the purest state, as dissolved in spirit of wine, the alkali forms crystals, tintured a little by what the college, in their New Pharmacopœia, call oil of wine. From these experiments, he explains some appearances described by Meyer, in his account of the causticum pingue, the principle which he supposed lime to have acquired in the fire, by calcination, and some facts mentioned by Macquer, in the fifth volume of the *Miscellanea Taurinensia*. The alkali employed was the vegetable, and M. Berthollet thinks that his experiments will contribute to render different medicines more certain; which, though disguised by reveries of alchemy, or the names of substances employed in making them, are in reality only pure alkaline solutions in spirit of wine. Several deliquescent salts are made to crystallise in the same way. Terra foliata tartari and muriated zinc will not, however, form crystals by this method.

M. Lavoisier returns again to his own system, in the reflections on the increase of weight which sulphur and phosphorus acquire in burning, and on the cause to which it is to be attributed. Bergman had observed, in his Essay on Elective Attractions, that the weight acquired in burning sulphur and phosphorus was owing to the union of the matter of heat, rather than of the oxygenous principle, i. e. the basis of vital air, as Lavoisier had supposed (*Opuscul.* vol. iii. p. 427; and Dr. Beddoe's translation, p. 245.) Our author's answer is concise and clear, though perhaps not in every respect satisfactory. All the heat, says M. Lavoisier, is not combined with the residua, since some escapes in sensible heat and light. If then heat is heavy, let us weigh what escapes. But the difference of weight, when six grains of phosphorus were burned in a vessel hermetically sealed, was imperceptible. Again: our author, with M. de la Place, found that the heat disengaged from burning ninety-two grains of phosphorus was enough to melt a pound of ice: he froze therefore a pound of water in close vessels, and thawed it again; but found no loss or gain of weight: he consequently concludes that the heat in this more extensive trial has no weight: and that his first principle is true. To ascertain, however, the weight of heat, is an experiment that requires many precautions. In England, different conclusions have been formed from actual experiments, and at least it would be safer, at present, to leave the question to more careful enquiries. But whatever may be the result of these trials, our author's position is pretty well founded; and we think that, in these instances, the increase of weight is owing to the absorption of air, and perhaps of air deprived of its specific heat.

The supplement of M. de la Place's former memoir on the approximation of formulæ, which represent great numbers, is the next article of this volume. In the first article of the former

memoir, he gave a general method for reducing into series, that would converge quickly, the differential functions of factors, raised to very high powers. In the second, he reduced to integers of this kind, all the functions given by linear equations to the common differences, whether partial, finite, or infinitely little; and, in the third article, he gave an easy method of approximation to formulæ, whose powers were very great, and where the trouble of solution in the usual way would be very distressing: all these preliminary labours he now applies to some problems in the doctrine of chances, or to any event not depending on a known law: the theory, as our intelligent author observes, consists in reducing all the possible events, relative to any object, to a certain number of cases equally possible, and in determining the number of cases favourable to the event, whose probability we are in search of. The relation of this number to the possible cases will show the degree of probability: this simple principle is developed and expanded with great clearness and ingenuity.

M. Vicq-d'Azyr continues his enquiries into the structure of the brain of animals, compared with that of man. His fourth memoir is contained in this volume, and relates to the quadrupeds, birds, fish, reptiles, insects, and worms; with an account of the principal and striking differences between their brains and that of the human race; though his comparative account is summed up with great precision, and more conciseness than we could have expected, yet it would make this article too extensive and too large, in proportion to the others, to extract it: as we think it easy to make this abstract intelligible without the plates, we shall combine it with some future 'Intelligence,' if all the memoirs are not translated; but a work of this kind we should earnestly recommend.

We must now return to M. Lavoisier, who subjoins reflections on phlogiston, to explain more particularly his theory of combustion and calcination, published in 1777. In this memoir he gives the history of phlogiston from its origin, in the systems of Becher and Stahl, its extension by Baume and Macquer, to its decline, in consequence of his own experiments: this history is not quite complete; for, before him, Hales proved that, during combustion, much air was absorbed*; and, so far from its being a single unsupported conjecture, by an obscure author, it was brought to the test of experiment, and the quantity of air absorbed, in some degree ascertained. Our author then examines the inconsistencies in the different doctrines of the supporters of phlogiston, and points out great and numerous difficulties in them. In this review he does not act fairly; for he introduces difficulties not really connected with phlogiston, while there are undoubtedly many, even in the most approved systems, as well as in his own. After a few necessary distinctions, he proceeds to

* As Hales has been often overlooked on this subject, we beg leave to refer to the first vol. of his Statics, p. 170, 175, 130, and 231.

the phænomena of combustion. Of combustion, in the usual way, M. Lavoisier's sentiments are well known to our readers: the phænomena of burning charcoal, we have not had equal opportunities of explaining. This substance, instead of absorbing air, is supposed gives out a determinate principle; that principle which changes common to fixed air, and which we call phlogiston, though M. Lavoisier chuses to style it a coaly matter. In consequence of the discharge of this principle, the air parts with a portion of its heat, and, from the loss, its specific gravity is increased, and its bulk is less. In order, therefore, to produce the strongest heat in combustion, the burning body, and the medium in which it burns, must be in an aerial state, as they then contain the greatest quantity of specific heat. Secondly, When both substances by burning, are reduced to a concrete state. And, thirdly, When the effect is instantaneous. There is no instance in which all these circumstances concur.

Our author then explains the difference between ignition, inflammation, and detonation, which are terms, in his opinion, by no means synonymous, or convertible. Ignition is where the body is not aerial, and does not assume the state of air, by the operation. Inflammation occurs, where the burning body is in an aerial state, or capable of assuming it, in consequence of the changes produced by fire. Wood and unctuous oils admit of a double change in burning: the inflammable part is first separated by the heat, in an aerial state, and then is inflamed. Detonation is that operation which two concrete bodies give out at once, with an explosion, the matter of heat; and this matter our author thinks is furnished exclusively by nitre. These are the chief observations of M. Lavoisier, in which it is a leading principle, that the matter of heat occupying the interstices of bodies expands them; and that its escape leaves them more dense.

The next memoir is by the marquis de Condorcet, on the calculation of probabilities. It is the fourth part of a series of memoirs, whose object we formerly explained, viz. to determine the probabilities of future events, by the observation of the past.

The theorem by M. Charles, on the equations, in finite differences, is this—There are equations whose differences are finite which have two complete integers. The demonstration is strict and accurate.

The memoir by M. Lavoisier on the action of fire, animated by vital air, on the most refractory substances, is a very valuable one: the means of executing the experiments were by means of a blow-pipe, or an enameller's lamp, and very generally the body tried was put on burning charcoal. In using Tschirnhausen's burning-glass, the stand was a hard granite or porcelain, and the focus was shortened by interposing another lens. The order followed is that in the system of M. Daubenton.

Rock crystal was only softened (it has since been fused) while quartz was imperfectly melted on the surface; a fine very hard grit had only slight signs of being softened: a white quartz sand

and was pretty completely melted; and a grey quartz melted entirely. The chalcedony and the green jasper melted, though the latter continued in the fire above forty-eight minutes: in general the coloured stones were more fusible than the others, though when the colour is volatile, its escape diminishes the fusibility. The argillaceous stones may be softened to the consistence of paste; but by strong heat they become hard, so as to cut glass like a diamond, to be scarcely touched with a file; the purest are most refractory. Tschirnhausen's glass has less power than the blow-pipe with vital air. Calcareous earths are entirely in every instance refractory, when pure; when joined with acids, they are in some degree fusible. Barytes, in all its forms, is equally infusible, though somewhat inflammable: while the one points out its resemblance to lime, the other shows, with equal certainty, a similar nature to that of metals. Magnesia, like the two former, is entirely infusible.

All the precious stones are fusible, except those composed of the three classes of earths which are not capable of fusion. A very little flint destroys their refractory nature: volcanic matters are, in general, very fusible. The nature of compound stones may be very readily understood from simple ones: but we must add, that a very little calcareous earth gives quartz or clay a great degree of fusibility.

Of salts, the most fixed is phosphoric tartar: marine salt, the fixed alkalis, and borax, are wholly volatile without decomposition: vitriolic, metallic, and other salts, are decomposed by the charcoal. All metallic substances, except platina, are volatile in a fire raised by vital air: gold and silver are, however, without comparison, the most fixed. Gold, silver, platina, and mercury, are incombustible: the others burn with great rapidity. Iron burns with an ebullition, and the escape of many sparkles, as in a fire-work. Vital air, by dissipating the inferior metals, is an excellent method of cupelling silver or gold; but it cannot be made an exact one, since a little of the more precious metals themselves escape in the operation.

M. le Roy, in the following memoir, describes a new electrical machine, which he calls a true electrical pump, to exhaust the electrical matter from any body, and of course, to electrify it negatively. He had described one of this kind in 1772, and seems a little jealous, that a machine to produce either kind of electricity, at pleasure, should be called Mr. Nairne's, which term it has obtained from its being constructed by that artist. The present description is illustrated by a plate, and would be unintelligible without it.

The observations, on a total eclipse of the moon, on March 18, 1783, by Messrs. the duke of Rochefoucauld, the abbé Rochon, and Mechain, made at Passy, are very particular. We can, however, only observe, that the first immersion was at seven hours forty-one minutes and two seconds; and the end, eleven hours twenty-four minutes and ten seconds, true time. The

comparative observations of M. Darquier at Thoulouse, and M. Carouge at Paris, are added.

The observations on the total eclipse of the moon, on the 10th of September 1783, at Paris, by M. Mechain; at York, by Mr. Pigott; by the abbé Beauchamp at Bagdat; and at Laon, by Messrs. Cotte, Tournant and de Cambronne, next follow. The difference between the meridians of the royal observatory at Paris and Bagdat, appeared to be two hours forty-eight minutes and twenty seconds; that between the same place and York, thirteen minutes thirty-four seconds; and that between Paris and Laon, five minutes twenty-nine seconds; or by the triangles of France, five minutes ten seconds.

The observations on the occultations of some stars of the Pleiades, observed at Paris on the 29th of February 1783, and compared with observations at Drontheim, Budá, and Bagdat, are incapable of abridgment.

For the observations on the eclipses of the sun, on the 14th of June 1779, and the 17th of October 1781; with the corresponding observations at Vienna, Prague, Konsvinger, in Norway, we must also refer to the volume itself. They cannot be extracted with any advantage.

M. Mechain's memoir on the comet of 1783, and the determination of its situation, when first discovered on the 26th of November, is accompanied with Mr. Pigott's observations at York. It was observed for the last time by M. Mechain, on the 21st of December; and its progress, in that interval, is distinctly traced. Mr. Pigott saw it on the 19th of November, and followed it till the 3d of December. His observations, with Mr. Goodriche's, are particularly detailed in the Philosophical Transactions for 1784.

The manner of solving, by approximation, differential equations, and equations whose differences are partial, is explained at some length by M. Cousin; we are sorry that, from the extent of our article, and the subject having been treated in different volumes, that we can only announce this memoir. M. Cousin's next essay on the mathematical theory of the motion of the fluids, we must also, for obvious reasons, pass over without a remark.

M. de la Place's memoir on births, marriages, and deaths, in Paris, from 1771 to 1784, and in the whole kingdom of France, during 1781 and 1782, is very curious; but we can only select from it some detached facts. In the memoirs for 1771, M. Morand had published the lists at Paris, previous to those of M. de la Place. The births at Paris, annually on an average of 14 years are, 10121 males, 9677 females; the marriages 5023; deaths 10413 males, 8890 females; foundlings 3202 males, 3129 females;—the births in the whole kingdom, including Corsica, for 1781, were 970,406; the marriages 236,503; the religious professions 1400! the deaths 881,138. The excess of the births in 1782 was very much less than in the former year, owing to the prevalence of many epidemics.

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The next essay is on the means of knowing the population of a kingdom, by Messrs. du Sejour, the marquis de Condorcet, and de la Place. The method is, by affixing to M. Cassini's carte, the average-population of each village, town, or district mentioned in that carte. We greatly regret that it would lead us too far to explain this design more particularly: we hope to do it at some future period.

The next memoir is by M. Monge, on the method of finding the integers of equations, with ordinary differences, when they are raised to any power, and in the cases where the complete integrals are algebraic. That which follows, by the same author, is on the integration of equations, with finite differences, which are not linear.

M. Cornette, in the subsequent memoirs, examines the vitriolic and nitrous ammoniac: the union of the volatile salt with the vitriolic acid is far from being strong; and it is destroyed by fire; the vitriolic acid decomposes common sal ammoniac very imperfectly. The experiments on the nitrous ammoniac show, that this salt remains unchanged by a red heat; and that the volatile alkali alone is capable of burning. If additional phlogiston be combined, the nitrous acid still remains unconsumed; it is the volatile alkali which our author thinks is chiefly concerned in the detonation of salts; but in this respect he is contradicted by his subsequent experiments: though he allows that, for this purpose, it must be mixed with an acid. M. Cornette then examines the volatile alkali, to ascertain the state in which it contains phlogiston: it is, he thinks, in an oily rather than a dry state; but, by its assistance, he could neither make gunpowder, nor pulvis fulminans. Aqua regia, prepared by distilling nitrous acid from common sal ammoniac, was not subject to expansion, and could be kept more safely than that procured by mixture alone.

The volume concludes with some remarks, by M. Sabatier, on the fracture of the patella. The author produces many cases, to show that bandages are generally useless and sometimes hurtful; he requires his patients only to keep in such a position that the muscles may be wholly in a state of relaxation.

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The bishop of Cloyne and Mr. O'Leary were the leaders of those who engaged in the contest; which was vigorously supported by crowds who insisted under their respective banners. The bishop, in the Appendix to a pamphlet which he published on this occasion, adverts to Mr. O'Leary's Letters to the White Boys, and compliments his abilities as a writer at the expence of the sincerity of his intentions. This charge gave rise to *Mr. O'Leary's Defence*, which he divides into four sections; and, after appealing to his readers, whether any seditious tendency be discoverable in his writings, he lays his Letters to the White Boys before them, in an Appendix,

The local nature of the work prevents our analysing it regularly; but whether we consider the variety of subjects contained in this pamphlet; the author's manner of handling them, either as the historian of what he calls the exploits of shabby heroes (White Boys); or as a polemical writer; or as an orator who harangues the public; or as an advocate who pleads the cause of the distressed; or as a man of wit and humour, who can raise a laugh at the expence of his antagonist; in all and each we discover the man of parts and extensive reading. Like an experienced veteran, Mr. O'Leary keeps his post, or shifts his ground to advantage; and in every situation commands the attention of his readers. We recollect his controversy with Mr. Wesley, who calls him an *arch* and *lively* writer; and as to his style, the bishop of Cloyne acknowledges that he represents matters *strongly and eloquently*; and that, *Shakespear-like, he is well acquainted with the avenues to the human heart*. If these are the concessions of the antagonists of Mr. O'Leary, he must surely deserve the tribute of our applause.

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eye

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These Sketches, 'natural and moral, sacred to love and virtue,' are said to have been designed for the late lady viscountess Valentia; but of what use they can prove to any lady, gentleman, or plebeian, is more than we can comprehend; for the author's design is to us unintelligible. He appears, however, through the vale of obscurity, to be a man of virtue.

A Poem on the Inhumanity of the Slave Trade. By Ann Yearseley. 4to. 2s. Robinsons.

We have before observed, that slavery and the slave trade is a copious subject for argument and declamation, to the poet, divine, and philosopher; and we are not surprised to see the continual increase of publications concerning it. The last we considered, in our poetical department, was written by miss Hannah More, and it had much merit. In the present, Mrs. Yearseley starts forward as a kind of competitor, to bend the Ulyssean bow with her quondam guardian friend and patroness. She is not, however, in our opinion, so successful in this as in some of her other publications. She is frequently rather turgid than sublime, but her sentiments are liberal, and often expressed with peculiar energy.

Poems to the Rev. Messrs. Ramsay and Clarkson, &c. &c. By J. N. Puddicombe, M. A. 4to. 1s. Richardson.

Mr. Puddicombe has merit, but it is entirely of a different cast from Ann Yearseley's. His diction is uniformly elegant and harmonious; but we cannot discover any passage of peculiar excellence, to strike the mind, or fascinate the attention.

Poems

Poems chiefly on Slavery and Oppression, with Notes and Illustrations. By Hugh Mulligan. 4to. 5s. sewed. Lowndes.

The greater part of these poems, epistles, picturesque sketches of the seasons, songs, sonnets, odes, &c. have but little to recommend them, and as little to excite disapprobation. The four eclogues are rather more deserving attention. The first and fourth appeared in a periodical publication some years since, and we agree with the author in opinion that they 'furnished the hint to some publications which have since appeared.' At least, the West Indian Eclogues, which we reviewed in our last volume, p. 434, both in style and manner greatly resembled, or rather improved upon them. The scene of the first is laid in Virginia, the time morning, the other in Guinea, the time midnight; each contains some striking and appropriated images. The scene of the second is laid in Indostan, and the time, though we have no characteristic description to mark it, said to be mid-day. The two Rohilla princesses, who are the interlocutors, recall to our mind that eclogue of Collins, in which the two Georgians are introduced as flying from, and describing the ravages of the Tartars. The recollection is not to the advantage of the present work. The third dialogue is supposed to take place between two Irish herdsmen in the evening. Something characteristic is discernible in the following lines, spoken by an old man contrasting, as is usual, the virtue and happiness of former times with modern degeneracy.

'Oppression then withheld his heavy hand,
Nor bade the social virtues quit the land;
Boldly her rights then fair Hibernia claim'd,
And tyrant rulers shrunk, abash'd, ashamed.
Then ripen'd fruits the cheerful cottage grac'd,
And plenty thro' each smiling vale was trac'd.
Yon rushy lake had banks that well might please,
Where shepherd girls reclin'd at rural ease;
And to the rustic pipe at eve were seen,
Frolic and gay, to trip the daisy'd green.
This pastime o'er, the minstrels would relate,
Of Derg the wonders, or the warrior's fate,
And name the bard, whose magic harp and song
Pale ghosts could raise—their midnight spells prolong;
Who oft responsive to the sounding strings,
Echo'd the fall of Danes and Danish kings;
Or from the primrose dell, or pansy'd plain,
With sweetest touch could lure the fairy train.
Till call'd to rest the sage was circl'd round,
Each word was caught, nor lost the weakest sound;
All spoke their thoughts, they scorn'd to use disguise,
The tales believ'd, and held him wond'rous wise.
Thy youthful days, O innocence! were blest,
Ere dreadful war or tyrants broke our rest;

From

From camps return'd, no former friends I found,
 For desolation silent stalk'd around ;
 Thro' distant climes my sad companions roam
 In search of freedom, lost, alas ! at home.'

The lines we have quoted are no unfavourable specimen of this performance, which, though not entitled to unqualified applause, contains several bold and spirited passages.

DRAMATIC.

A Match for a Widow; or, the Frolics of Fancy. A comic Opera. In three Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Dublin, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

This is a Dublin edition of the *Widow's Vow*; but, unlike the editions which appear from the other side of St. George's channel, it is increased in bulk, and not diminished in elegance: in reality, *L'Heureuse Erreur* is lengthened to three acts, by an underplot united to the original one, with sufficient address, and decorated with music.—The plot of the episode is not, however, new; it is the tale of the Scholar, who conjures up a supper from the repository, in which he saw it crowded, on the coming of the husband. But the whole is sufficiently laughable; and, though the treaty of commerce with Ireland is not yet concluded, it may be received on the terms of reciprocity.

The only character which has any pretensions to novelty, is the native American; but it is not thoroughly discriminated, or at least the peculiarities are not very entertaining. In some respects, the caricature is below the region of farce, particularly where he says that he staved the barrel of beer, because it 'worked' on a Sunday. Of course, he is a fanatical Bostonian.

The Prince of Angola, a Tragedy, altered from the Play of Oroonoko; and adapted to the Circumstances of the present Times. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lowndes.

The authenticity, and pathetic incidents in the story of Oroonoko, as the author observes in his preface, make it a proper vehicle for the reflections and arguments which an advocate of the oppressed negroes would wish to urge in their favour. For this purpose, it appears in its present state. The underplot of Southern's tragedy is with propriety rejected, as it was indeed by Hawkesworth, in his alteration of it for representation in 1775. Many passages, however, retained by him, are here omitted; and we think with no sufficient reason. The passages substituted for them by no means atone for their omission. In his critical capacity, this gentleman certainly wields the desperate hook too rashly: and we do not think he always very accurately distinguishes between blemishes and beauties. 'More than one of the best scenes in Southern's play,' says he, 'is disgraced

graced by a burst of unnatural and risible bombast.' Such is Oroonoko's preface to his history:

'Thou God ador'd! thou ever-glorious Sun!

[*Kneeling and kissing the earth*

If she be yet on earth, send me a beam

Of thy all-seeing power to light me to her:

Or if thy sister goddess has preferr'd

Her beauty to the skies, to be a star,

O tell me where she shines, that I may stand

Whole nights, and gaze upon her!

'Critics have long complained that poets will needs convert Turks, Tartars, Africans, and Indians, into learned mythologists: how Oroonoko came to believe the doctrine of the apotheosis, will not be easily understood by those who know, that an African's highest religious mystery is the Mumbo Jumbo.

'But the most furious sally occurs in that scene where Aboan engages his prince in the conspiracy, by presenting the horrible prospect of an enslaved progeny: we expect to discover every feeling of a prince and a warrior, convulsed by this excruciating idea; we look for all the agitations of Ariosto's hero, in that beautiful and surpassing imitation,

Or quinci, or quindi il volta, or lo rassume,

Tutto in un luoco, e non lo ferma mai.

Qual d'acqua chiara il tremolante lume,

Dal Sol percossa, ò da notturni rai,

Per gli ampli tetti va con lungo salto,

A destra, ed a sinistra, a basso ed alto *.

Orland Furioso, C. 8. S. 71.

'But Southern's angry man, with high disdain of every natural emotion, springs off with an unexpected metaphor, and only returns to think of himself in the middle of his declamation: we lose sight of decency, when he bellows forth,

Ha! thou hast rous'd

The lion in his den, he stalks abroad,

And the wide forest trembles at his roar.

'We naturally apply Old Falstaff's adjuration, to this alarming blufferer; *Prithce speak a little like a man of this world.*'

This appears to us a piece of very ill-grounded criticism. Oroonoko's apostrophic address is undoubtedly extravagant; but we must consider it is put into the mouth of one who, like Zanga, was

'A soul made of fire, and offspring of the sun:'

and that an African should look upon that luminary as an object of adoration, is certainly neither unnatural nor improbable.

* * Atque animum nunc huc celerem, nunc dividit illic,
In partesque rapit varias, perque omnia versat.
Sicut aquæ tremulum labris ubi lumen ahenis
Sole percussum, aut radiantis imagine Lunæ,
Omnia pervolitat late loca; jamque sub auras
Erigitur, summique ferit laquearia tecti.'

VIRG. ÆN. VIII. V. 20.

W^e

We have no objection to the passage taken from Virgil by Ariosto; it is elegant, and poetically just. We have likewise a translation of it in Addison's Cato. Portius thus addresses his mistress.

‘Thus o’er the dying lamp th’ unsteady flame
Hangs quivering on a point, leaps off by fits,
And falls again, as loth to quit its hold.’

But what is there *excruciating* in this idea? How does it agitate or affect the mind? When Oroonoko's passion swells into metaphor, there is a grandeur and propriety in the figure, (such at least is our opinion) that strikes forcibly on our hearts: we are hurried away with the sublimity of the idea, which will not permit us to attend to the dogmas of frivolous and frigid criticism. Some of this writer's observations are undoubtedly just; but we cannot, on the whole, think very highly either of his critical taste, or dramatic abilities. But the goodness of his intention commands our respect: ‘Charity will cover a multitude of faults,’ and candour will excuse such venial defects as occur in this performance.

AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE.

Scriptural Researches on the Licitness of the Slave Trade, showing its Conformity with the Principles of Natural and Revealed Religion, delineated in the sacred Writings of the Word of God. By the Rev. R. Harris. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lowndes.

Audi alteram partem is a maxim to which candour induces us to attend, and a love of truth will teach us to revere. When we recommended an abolition of the importation of slaves, we were not aware that we opposed either the letter or the spirit of the Scriptures, and were much startled at finding ourselves surrounded by a host of foes, in the form of citations, and various passages from the Old and New Testament. Arguments of this kind will, at first, appear specious, and, if urged with art, may seem formidable;—a slight reflection will draw off the delusive covering, and disarm them of their danger. The data are drawn up with great address: let us take the fifth as a specimen.

‘That no person can be supposed to acknowledge in fact, that the Holy Scriptures are the infallible word of God, unless he acquiesces without reserve in every scriptural decision, however incomprehensible the reasons and motives of those decisions may be to him.’

This passage is somewhat remarkable, and will require a little attention. Is it necessary to follow every Jewish rite, commanded by the Lord under the Mosaic dispensation? Are the feast of the passover, the holiness of the seventh day, the ark and the covenant, of indispensable obligation at this time? The Jews had bond slaves: if the author pleases, slavery was allowed of in those times; but he will want farther arguments to show that it is now our duty to enslave the Africans, because Hagar was

was an Egyptian; or to misuse them because she was dealt hardly with by Sarah.—If a system once established, and not directly declared impious by the Old and New Testament, must not be overthrown, we shall have sufficient reason to blame the Reformation and the Revolution.

But, when the author comes to the decisions of our Saviour, and to consider the Christian dispensation, he is much at a loss. Slavery was clearly and pointedly abolished, by the liberal and benevolent precepts of the Gospel. 'Love your neighbour as yourself:—Do good unto *all* men:—Love even those who persecute you and despitefully use you.' Is this the language of the supporter of slavery; the precepts of the task-master? Perhaps it is from love that we must drag the peaceful African from his home: benevolence raises the whip; and kindness directs the stripe. If it be so, slavery is in the true spirit of the Gospel.

It is true, Christ told us that he came not to destroy the law, but to fulfil it. He came to fulfil the prophecies; to complete the Mosaic dispensation, by a more perfect revelation of the divine will. He came to *comfort* the afflicted, not to *add* to the afflictions inseparable from human nature: he came to heal their sickness, not to countenance a practice worse than the worst disease.—There is not the slightest hint of his countenancing cruelty, oppression, injustice, and tyranny: there is not the slightest suggestion that, in fulfilling the law, he supported the illiberality, the intolerance, and the persecuting spirit of the Jews. We are ashamed to dwell on what is so evident: if it be a political motive which has dictated those pages, let it rest on its own ground; much may be said for the practice in that view; but let not the fair page of Christianity be sullied by commendations of cruelty and oppression. Let the trade be once freed from those stigmas; let the African migrate voluntarily, and be treated as a man and a Christian, and we will join in the commendation of the method of employing negroes. As it is, we wish only to secure to them humane treatment, by enhancing their value. To return to Africa, if it were possible, would not, we know, be considered as a benefit.

Observations upon the African Slave Trade, and on the Situation of Negroes in the West Indies. By a Jamaica Planter. 8vo. 1s. Law.

The Jamaica planter joins to candour and liberality an extensive acquaintance with his subject. Subordination we admit of; but the inferior person is not to be treated with cruelty; and to transport our fellow-creatures, without their consent, is equally criminal; whether the soldier is taken from the plains of Germany, or the English recruit kidnapped to those of Indostan. Slavery is, however, but a name, if the privileges of mankind are preserved; if labour is not urged beyond the strength, and the bed of sickness be soothed by the necessary comforts.

comforts. The planter proposes many alleviations of the negro's misfortunes, which we should be glad to find were adopted :—since we have reason to believe, that it is not possible to procure an abolition of the importation.

Slavery no Oppression ; or some new Arguments and Opinions against the Idea of African Liberty. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes and Christie.

We wish it were not ; for then the contest would be only about words.—Our author thinks that we save the lives of the Africans, who, when taken in war, would be otherwise sacrificed to the vengeance of their conquerors ; that we preserve peace rather than excite war ; and that, at any rate, we make the indolent stupid African an active and enlightened slave, who may possess property, who considers his servitude as of little importance ; who enjoys moments of relaxation, and days when his labours are employed for his own emolument. This is a fair side of the picture, and contains much truth. Some lives are preserved ; but at the moment of preservation, when they are saved only to be subjected to the caprice, to the cruelty, to the avarice of some individual, whose character is yet unknown, we can scarcely say whether it can be styled a blessing. They become active ; but it is against their nature and their will : they are enlightened ; but it is sometimes to shew them the horrors of their situation. They may obtain property, and become fathers, in the shape of masters ; nor is their condition then deplorable. The great hinge of the argument is overlooked ; for it is wanted only to raise them above caprice : we have already said, that if their good treatment is no longer precarious, slavery is only a name. But this kind treatment is not yet secured ; and, in the West India islands, it is still a problem, whether it is most advantageous to work a negro down to an untimely grave, or, by obtaining less profit in a given time, to establish his health and strength. If this was no longer doubtful, much benefit would be secured, and opposition might, for a time, cease.

Hints for a Specific Plan for an Abolition of the Slave Trade, and for Relief of the Negroes in the British West Indies. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Our author is a warm and zealous advocate for the abolition of slavery ; but his plan, by aiming at too much, must defeat itself : his calculations too are not exact.

A Sermon intended to enforce the Reasonableness and Duty, on Christian, as well as political Principles, of the Abolition of the African Slave Trade. By the Rev. J. M. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Like skilful orators, we have preserved this reply to the last. We have heard his opponents with patience, and having almost exhausted the subject, cannot conclude better than with this rational and judicious discourse against the slave trade.—We strongly recommend it to its supporters, particularly to the author of the 'Scriptural Researches,' as a proper answer to what

what he has collected from St. Paul's Epistles. It cannot escape the most superficial reader, that St. Paul speaks of the state of society in which he lived, without particular praise or condemnation, except the converts were guilty of actual sin. His object was to preserve the church of Christ inviolate, not to oppose despotism, or its offspring slavery.

A Farewel Address to the Rev. Mr. James Ramsay: from James Tobin, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

We have already complained that this contest, in the late publications, became a personal one. This Farewell Address is not less so; and, like lord Peter, we bid it, very heartily, farewell.

MISCELLANEOUS SERMONS.

A Sermon preached in Whitehall Chapel, at the Consecration of the Right Rev. John Douglas, D. D. Lord Bishop of Carlisle, on Sunday, November 18, 1787. By Browne Grisdale, D. D. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

Dr. Grisdale begins with professing, that he means to apply his text ('Let your moderation be known unto all men,') to those 'who are appointed to places of rule and authority;' and seems to hint, that he means to give the 'word of exhortation' to the new bishop.

The moderation which Dr. Grisdale recommends is, very properly, that mildness and forbearance amidst the zeal of sectarists and the clamorous fervour of innovations, which have been the characteristics of our church. The preacher adduces the opinions of the most learned men in favour of its establishment and its conduct; he applauds the wisdom and moderation of Cranmer; he points out some passages which have occurred in late publications, and which are either unjust imputations, or improper suggestions. These passages he will probably hear of again; for some of our polemics are not of that truly apostolical character, to turn mildly the other cheek when one is smitten. On the whole, however, we think there is much good sense, and many just observations, in this discourse: we agree in general with Dr. Grisdale's opinions, though we cannot adopt his suspicions, that the progress of Socinianism will in the end lead to Popery, after it has brought on an indifference to every religion.

A Sermon preached in his Majesty's Chapel, Whitehall, at the Consecration of the Right Rev. Father in God, William Lord Bishop of Chester, on Sunday January 20, 1788. By Houshorne Radcliffe, D. D. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

This is a very learned and judicious discourse from Acts i. 1, 2. 'The former treatise have I made, O Theophilus, of all that Jesus began both to do and teach, until the day in which he was taken up, after that he, through the Holy Ghost, had given commandments unto the apostles whom he had chosen.'

VOL. LXV. April, 1788.

Y

Dr.

Dr. Radcliffe particularly alludes to the last words, and, among other things, supposes that the commandments of Christ, through the Holy Ghost, might allude to church-government. He gives some satisfactory reasons why they were delayed so long, and traces the origin of different orders of priests. On the whole, it appears that, in the early ages, there was a distinct station, analogous to that of the present bishops. This Sermon gives a very clear and exact view of the subject, which has been often controverted: it displays also great learning and extensive knowledge.

A Sermon on the Duty of Forgiveness, abridged from the late Rev. R. Needham, M. A. Together with a short Discourse on Prayer. By a Member of the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge. 12mo. 3d. Johnson.

These two little Sermons are intended for the use of the Sunday scholars. The first on forgiveness is taken from the Sermon of the late Mr. Needham on that subject; and the second appears to be the production of the editor, Mr. Charleworth. They are both religious and practical; well adapted to the purpose for which they are designed, creditable to their author, and advantageous to the institution.

HISTORICAL.

A Short Account of the Prince of Wales's Island, or Pulo Peenang, in the East Indies. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Stockdale.

This island is situated in about $5^{\circ} 30'$ of north latitude, and $98^{\circ} 40'$ east longitude; at the entrance of the streights of Malacca, and close to the coast of Malaya, near the part called Quedah; about a week's sail from the coast of Coromandel. It is between thirty and forty miles in circumference, and was given by the king of Quedah to captain Light, a gentleman in the India marine service, who has resided a long time amongst the Malays, and speaks their language perfectly. He had assisted the above prince in quelling some troubles in his dominions; in return for which service, the latter bestowed upon him in marriage, a princess of the blood, and with her this island, as a dowry.

The produce of Pulo Peenang, which captain Light has named the Prince of Wales's Island, consists in wood, cattle, hogs, poultry, canes, and rice where cultivated, with fruit and vegetables; all in the greatest abundance. It is supposed likewise to afford block-tin; but whether amber or gold-dust be amongst its productions, has not yet been ascertained.

The part of the island marked out by Captain Light for his first settlement, and at present containing a good number of inhabitants, is a flat sandy spot to the north-west, where the coast runs in a circular form, the opposite continent running also in a parallel direction for a considerable distance, and so close to the island as to form what may be called a river rather than a strait, on account of its narrowness. In this channel,

ships

ships of the largest burthen may lie with great safety; as the depth of water is from five to fifteen fathom; and there are in it several good bays, where vessels may be refitted.

From the situation of this island it is evidently a place of importance to the British possessions in the East Indies; particularly, if the French retain their footing at Trincomalee. The northern monsoon often sets in with a hurricane on the coast of Coromandel; and even if it sets in with moderation, it is often productive of tempestuous weather, at intervals, until the middle of December: so that it is held dangerous for any vessel to remain on the coast later than the 12th of October; or to return to it before the beginning of January. On account of this danger, our fleets always quit the coast of Coromandel (where there is no harbour to protect them) every year in the month of October; and are generally obliged to go round to Bombay, especially if they have occasion for refitting in time of war; a rendezvous rendered extremely disadvantageous, by its distance from the principal scene of action in the bay of Bengal.

This inconvenience, resulting from the want of a harbour on the coast of Coromandel, may, we are assured, be removed by the new establishment of Pulo Peenang, which will likewise afford shelter for our East-Indiamen that lose their passage to China; an object in many respects of the greatest importance, as they have hitherto been under the necessity of wintering either at Malacca or Batavia, where the expences have proved very exorbitant, and the health of our seamen been much impaired by the inclemency of the climate.

But an advantage of yet greater consequence to be derived from this settlement, is, that men of war may winter and refit here; for besides wood in abundance, there are on this island very large trees fit for masts; a circumstance of the greatest utility both to our merchantmen and king's ships.

The author of this pamphlet specifies likewise some commercial advantages which may be derived from the acquisition of the Prince of Wales's island. Indeed the occupation of it appears to be beneficial on so many accounts, that it highly merits the encouragement of those who direct the affairs of the East Indies; and it promises to repay their protection by peculiar advantages, both in times of war and peace.

Historical Memoir of the Last Year of the Life of Frederic II. King of Prussia. 8vo. 1s. Bell.

The academy of Berlin having been accustomed to celebrate the 24th of January, the birth-day of his late Prussian majesty, its restorer, the Count de Hertzberg imagined that he could not better discharge his duty as an academician than by reading before his auditory, on that occasion, an abridged account of the transactions of the preceding year, and of the administration of a sovereign, who for a long time has been considered as the model for princes. It appears from this Memoir, that the great Frederic continued to the last day of his life to give

that indefatigable attention to the affairs of government, for which, from the commencement of his reign, he had been so eminently conspicuous. The count informs us, concerning this extraordinary monarch, that during the last five weeks of his life, though much swollen and incommoded with the dropsy, so that he could not move without assistance from a chair in which he rested day and night, not being able to enjoy the comfort of a bed; and though it was evident he suffered dreadfully, he never betrayed the least symptom of uneasiness; but preserving always his serene and contented air, and without ever speaking of his condition or of death, he conversed with those about him on the ordinary topics of the day, in the most cordial and agreeable manner; on literature, ancient and modern history, rural affairs, and particularly gardening, to which he was greatly devoted, and which he cultivated incessantly.

N O V E L S.

The Memoirs of Miss Ann Sheldon, now Mrs. Aecker. Written by herself. 4 Vols. 12mo. 10s. Printed for the Authoress.

Whether the story is told by the 'squire or the knight; the bawd, or the lady herself, is of little consequence; the work is equally contemptible. It is also insipid, except to the retailers of scandal, the assistants to antiquated tea-tables. Why should the crimes of Mrs. Bellamy, or Constantia Phillips, the source of these miserable tales, add to the honest anguish of innocent Reviewers?

Edward and Harriet; or the Happy Recovery. A Sentimental Novel. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Allen.

These pages of trifling insipidity would deserve contempt only, if their loose morality did not render the offence capital. To consign them to oblivion is a mild punishment; they are already hastening to it. We must condemn them as one of the worst productions, in every view, that we have lately seen.—The Legendary Tale too! away with them—they fear our eyeballs.

Death's a Friend. By the Author of the Bastard. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Bew.

From the author's first publication we expected better things: but in style, contrivance, execution, and moral, this novel is truly contemptible. In one respect, it deserves a severer reproof, and may be styled detestable.

P O L I T I C A L.

Observations Preliminary to a proposed Amendment of the Poor Laws. By W. Young, Esq. F. R. S. and M. P. 1s. 6d. Robson and Clark.

The act of the forty-third of Elizabeth is the basis on which the various plans for the relief of the parochial poor have in general been founded. Mr. Young, in part, adopts this legislative provision; but with the addition of some particular im-

prove-

provements, which he mentions; and of a collateral bill for the establishing of associations towards erecting such a fund as we have above specified.

Observations on various Plans offered to the Public for the Relief of the Poor. By the rev. Joseph Townsend. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

Mr. Townsend is one of those who disapprove, and we think with good reason, of the general establishment of work-houses. His objections to this mode of relief seem to be founded upon extensive observation, than which nothing can, in such a case, prove more satisfactory.

Cursory Remarks on Mr. Gilbert's Last Bill, for the better Relief and Employment of the Poor. By H. Bate Dudley. 8vo. 1s. Debbett.

Mr. Gilbert, judging, perhaps, from his own humanity, concluded that his plan for the relief of the poor, would derive great advantage from the superintendence of it being vested in the principal gentlemen of the county. In this expectation, however, the author of the Remarks is of opinion that he would be disappointed; as it is with extreme reluctance that country gentlemen attach themselves to public business. In this we agree with the author, as we do in regard to several other points which he mentions.

Reports of the Special Provision Committee, appointed by the Court of Guardians in the City of Norwich. By Edward Rigby. 2s. Johnson.

From the various statements in these Reports, if there be no error in the calculation, the savings introduced by the late regulations in the diet of the workhouses at Norwich, are very considerable, and such as ought to recommend a similar practice in other places.

Hints respecting the Poor. By the Rev. T. Haweis, LL. B. Small 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

The scheme proposed in this pamphlet for the relief of the poor, is that of obliging the labouring people to contribute a certain proportion of their earnings weekly, towards establishing a fund for their future support, when rendered incapable of labour. The same plan has been formerly suggested, but hitherto without any effect.

A Political Index to the Histories of Great Britain and Ireland. By R. Beaton, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. in Boards. Robinsons.

We examined the first edition of this Index, in our LXII^d Volume, p. 467. The work is now greatly improved, much more correct, and of nearly double its original size, by the addition of new materials and supplementary lists. It is a book to be referred to rather than to be read, and should, in this station, accompany every History of England, since, in many respects, it is an almost indispensable appendage.

M I S C E L

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Letter to the Patrons and Trustees, &c. of Charity Schools. 8vo. 6d. Turner.

This very judicious author points out the necessity of an attention to the education of charity children, in many respects, which, in some foundations, are not regarded. It is written with much candour, and we sincerely recommend it to the consideration of those to whom it is addressed:

An Appeal to the Humane, on Behalf of the most deplorable Class of Society, the Climbing Boys employed by the Chimney Sweepers. By J. P. Andrews. Small 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The late benevolent Mr. Hanway had proposed a plan for regulating the treatment of chimney-sweepers boys; but not living to see it carried into execution, the humane attempt is now revived by Mr. Andrews, who seems to follow the steps of Mr. Hanway with a zeal that does honour to his heart. The proposed plan consists of several articles, calculated to secure to those unfortunate boys, a humane treatment from their masters; to enforce their instruction in the principles of religion, of which (a shame to be told in a Christian country!) they are left at present entirely ignorant; and to introduce a method of sweeping chimneys, by which those miserable operators might be relieved from the most offensive part of their labour. The nation has discovered a generous ardor for procuring an abolition of the slave-trade; while an oppression no less repugnant to the laws of humanity is tolerated in the case of the young chimney-sweepers. We hope, however, that the subject will attract the public attention; and for promoting so laudable a purpose, Mr. Andrews is entitled to every praise.

The Complete Art of Boxing, according to the Modern Method. By an Amateur of Eminence. 8vo. 2s. Follingsby.

Our author's directions and descriptions seem to be exact and technical; but, as we candidly own that there is not one of the Broughtonian school in our corps, we will not decide with confidence: we shall give his own promises, which occur in the introduction.

'We offer the following treatise (without vanity or deceit) as a complete tutor to all those who would wish to be acquainted with, or instructed in the modern practice of boxing, so that they may need no other guide than the rules here laid down to acquire a perfect knowledge of the art.'

But for descriptions of the brace, the throw, and the square; —the bar-movements, the close-in, and the cross-buttock grapple, we must refer to the work itself. We shall, however, select a short specimen of the language of this noble art, and the descriptive merit of its teacher.

'If

'If the guards of your adversary are very high, baulk him by two or three feints at his belly, but never strike home so low unless you come to his quarter, that is to say, under the short rib of the left side; for here, as well as at the pit of the stomach, you may unwind him, and by following your blow, sow up his talents; however, this manœuvre will lower his guard, and put you into a field of new acquisition; for one blow well told to the upper tire (the head), tells better than three below, for here lays the best seat of work, and will undoubtedly serve your purpose; for a lug, a temple, a jaw, an eye, or mouth-piece, often gives the word *Enough*, when two dozen lower baits would have proved ineffectual to accomplish it.'

The dietetic preparations for combat are also well described: they seem to be calculated to give strength, without filling the body too much, and of course to preserve the breath free and clear.

Of the History of Boxing we cannot say much that is advantageous: the language is in many instances erroneous, and the facts sometimes stated with such ludicrous mistakes, that we can scarcely think the author intended a real history: the best part of it is the very long quotation from Godfrey's description of the principal champions of Broughton's academy.

The Gardner's Universal Guide. By Andrew Ferguson. 8vo. 5s. Cooke.

This system of gardening is published under the name of Andrew Ferguson, gardner at Brentford. Whether any such person really exists, we know not; but it is evident that the complement has been executed many years ago.

Le Livre des Enfants, par une Grand'mere pour ses Petites Filles.
The First Part. 12mo. 1s. Boosey.

This is a useful little book, if French *must* be learned before the child can articulate English. If it be studied at a later period, these infantine lullabies are of little importance.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

WE are sorry to disagree with Dr. Wilson; but we thought that we were on safe ground, when we adopted his opinion of a conjectural idea, and transcribed what we could not comprehend. We have read our article again, and, rillery apart, think it more descriptive of the contents of his pamphlet than that which he has sent us as a pattern. Surely, in our account of new books, we must not enlarge on what different authors have said, before the author of the work which we examine was born.—In truth, it was a trifling uninstruative performance: we laughed at it, instead of opposing the opinions with serious argument,

gument. We are sorry that this misplaced mirth has given pain; for we aim only to warn mankind from mistaking dulness for wisdom, and novelty for improvement. While we condemn the author we would spare the man.

WE would willingly oblige our correspondent from Ottery St. Mary, whose translation of, and commentary on the third section of the eleventh book of Marcus Antoninus, have given us much satisfaction. But we have often observed, that this part of our work must be confined to the questions which arise on the conduct of it. In other views, the propriety of inserting specimens of an unpublished work is extremely questionable.

MR. Mavor has our good wishes for his success; but it would be highly improper to publish any account of his plan, except on our blue cover.

WE have received the letter from Battersea, and we hope than no inattention on our side will induce our correspondent to change his opinion.

MR. Young deserves also our thanks for his very obliging remarks: the delay of his first work was, for a time, owing to accident. Since we have taken it up, we wished to examine it with more attention than we could then bestow.—We have not been used to disguise our opinions; and we are confident, that though we should oppose, no candid author will be displeased, while our opposition is conducted with propriety, and founded, as we endeavour to found it, on reason.

WE had formerly a correspondent who styled himself 'No Chemist;' and he at last appeared to be a well informed one. We have now a correspondent, who styles himself 'A Chemist,' and complains that our Review contains too much chemistry; we suspect an equal misnomer.—But, as similar observations have been made, we shall remark that though we must often follow the public taste, we may be occasionally allowed to direct it: if we had not found English authors so erroneous, we should never have attempted to obtrude instruction, which it might be presumed they did not want. As we had so often occasion to blame, it was common justice to point out better sources of information. Authors are now improving in this respect; but, while improvements proceed also, they must be occasionally the subjects of our observation, that our Journal may hold the mirror up to science, and reflect, in a proportional size, its various features.



T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For M A Y, 1788.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXVII. For the Year 1787. Part II. 4to. 7s. 6d. L. Davis.

A Pologies by those whose toil is incessant, and increasing, must be endless: let us then resume our account of this volume, by premising, that our delay is neither owing to inattention, or to disrespect; it is owing rather to numerous authors, each pressing to be heard; to narrow, unexpanded limits.

Article XXI. An Experiment to determine the Effect of extirpating one Ovarium upon the Number of Young produced. By John Hunter, Esq. F.R.S.—This is a single experiment only; and it cannot be decisive, unless it be ascertained that greater difference is not observed in two perfect swine. The spayed sow, however, neither bred so long, nor brought so many pigs, in an equal number of farrows, as the perfect one. In the first eight litters, the numbers were as 76 to 87. The perfect animal in eight additional farrows, brought 76 pigs; so that, in the whole, she brought ten more than double the number produced by the mutilated one. If we examine the question by analogy, it will appear probable, that two ovaria are provided, because one may be diseased; and that one decays sooner than the other. This may account for the early cessation of breeding; but the difference in the number of young ones, in the former litters, is probably accidental, unless we suppose the general health of the sow affected by the operation.

Art. XXII. Experiments made to determine the positive and relative Quantities of Moisture absorbed from the Atmosphere by various substances, under similar circumstances. By Sir Benj. Thompson, F.R.S.—In these experiments, the quantity of fluid absorbed was greatest in the first instance, and lessened progressively in the following order: sheep's wool, beaver's fur, the fur of a Russian hare, eider down, silk, linen, and cotton wool. Raw silk and fine linen were more powerful absorbers than either material, when it had been previously

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manufactured. Sir Benjamin Thompson very properly attributes the different effects excited from these different substances, when worn next the skin, to their absorbing power; the one feels warm, because the moisture is immediately absorbed; the other cold and moist, since it remains uncombined with the substance in contact with the source of the fluid. The power of woollen, in promoting perspiration, depends on the same principle, rather than the warmth.

Art. XXIII. The Principles and Illustration of an advantageous Method of arranging the differences of logarithms, on Lines graduated for the purpose of Computation. By William Nicholson.—This is a series of computation, and of descriptions illustrated by diagrams. The scale is similar to Gunter's, or a circular one, compounded of Gunter's scale, and a sector; and this improvement promises to be convenient as well as useful.

Art. XXIV. Observations tending to shew that the Wolf, Jackall, and Dog, are all of the same species. By John Hunter, Esq. F. R. S.—Though Buffon contended that the wolf and the dog would not breed together, yet there are actual instances that the contrary is true, and that the progeny is prolific. Mr. Hunter has collected several of these instances; but we are not certain of the truth of his inferences, that they are of the same species. It is probable only, that they are of a similar kind, for the instances are taken from confined animals; and the final cause can have no influence in the argument, since the copulation would probably never have taken place in a state of nature, and of course the world could not readily have been peopled with monsters. The jackall is undoubtedly similar to both the wolf and dog: and if we can allow that 'the dog is a wolf tamed,' it may be admitted, that 'the jackall may probably be the dog returned to his wild state.'

Art. XXV. Experiments on the Congelation of the Vitriolic Acid. By James Keir, Esq. F. R. S.—Mr. Keir thinks, that vitriolic acid, of a certain strength, may be frozen by a degree of cold equal to about 45° of Fahrenheit's scale, and that this strength is 1780, at a medium, while water is supposed to be 1000. Acids of the strength of 1750 to 1814 freeze with greater cold; but, from 1846 to 1551, no congelation takes place in any degree of artificial cold. The acid, in freezing, remains some time fluid, like water; its heat is stationary; or, when cooled too much, the heat is also increased at the moment of concreting; but the ice is heavier than the strongest acid. As the strong oil of vitriol attracts water from the air, and in this operation produces heat, it is, indeed,

indeed, probable, that the freezing should be at that point where the power of attraction is so weak as not to excite heat. Indeed, the acid, of which the ice is composed, when separated and thawed, appears to be of the strength of easiest freezing; and our author's argument against this cause of the easiest freezing, is not conclusive.—Yet, on the whole, we think there may be some other cause of the acid freezing at this determined point, or near it. The congelation was first observed in the smoaking acid taken from martial vitriol; and we have now abundant reason to suspect, that acids drawn from metallic salts have peculiar properties: this consideration led us formerly to remark that, in count Lauraguais' experiment, the concretion might be owing to a combination of some other body. We must, however, observe, that Mr. Keir's experiments are confirmed by some late ones of M. Chaptal, a manufacturer of oil of vitriol, in France. His saleable oil is, however, 66, and the congelable oil 63: our saleable oil is 1846.—If, therefore, we say 66 : 63 :: 1846 : 1762, we shall find the strength of the congelable oil in France somewhat lower than our author found it. In M. Chaptal's experiments it was congealed at -3 to -4 of Fahrenheit, considerably *below* the freezing point. It would be too long to engage in a detail of his experiments: we hope to do it very soon, and that we may even find room for it in this month's Intelligence.

Art. XXVI. An Account of some new Experiments on the Production of artificial Cold. By Tho. Beddoes, M. D.—Dr. Beddoes describes the experiments of Mr. Walker, apothecary to the Ratcliff infirmary. By adding, successively, sal ammoniac, nitre, and Glauber's salts, while they held the water of crystallization, to water, this gentleman sunk the thermometer 46 degrees. By employing materials, previously cooled, the diminution of heat was more considerable: by adding cooled materials to cooled diluted spirit of wine, the thermometer was sunk to -4 . Sal ammoniac, added to diluted spirit of nitre, described by Mr. Cavendish, at -3 , sunk the thermometer to -15 . Nitrous acid, poured on Glauber's salt, (in crystals, we presume), produced nearly the effects which it would have had on pounded ice; while the cold is rendered still more intense, by adding sal ammoniac, in powder, to the mixture.—The proportion of the ingredients is the following: of concentrated nitrous acid 12 ounces, of water 6 ounces: these materials must be cooled to the temperature of the atmosphere; and to them must be added a pound and a half (averdupois) of Glauber's salt, and of sal ammoniac 12 ounces. In this way the thermometer was sunk full 60° ; and, in

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another instance, 68° . By dividing the experiment into different parts, and successively cooling the materials, Mr. Walker froze mercury, without a particle of ice and snow, when the heat of the air was at 45 ; a fact almost beyond the reach of belief. Oil of vitriol, diluted with an equal weight of water, joined with Glauber's salt, produces about 46° of cold. If therefore, in summer, the water from a deep well is at 52 , in this cheap and easy way it may be brought down to 12° ; and wine, placed in it, would be chilled. A curious fact occurred in these experiments: in trying a mixture of two parts of oil of vitriol, and one of water, with the Glauber's salt at the temperature of 35 , the mixture appeared to be frozen; and the thermometer was stationary. This must have happened from the crystallization of the salt, for the strength of the oil was below the point of easiest freezing. It was plain that some heat was produced, for the thermometer was stationary; and the heat, at the end of the experiment, not so great as was expected. The cold produced, Dr. Beddoes thinks, is in consequence of the water of crystallization from a solid becoming again fluid.

Art. XXVII. An Account of a Doubler of Electricity; or a Machine by which the least conceivable Quantity of positive or negative Electricity may be continually doubled, till it becomes perceptible by common Electrometers, or visible in Sparks. By the rev. Abraham Bennet, A.M.—This article contains an account of an ingenious method of rendering small quantities of electrical fluid, in the air, sensible. The small quantity, collected by a burning torch, a lanthorn, or even an insulated umbrella, by this doubler, became very sensible. A journal is added of the electrical state of the air, from the 23d of January to the 2d of March: in general, the electricity was positive, except in rain; it was then universally negative, if we except the rain which arises from the accumulation of water in mists, and is formed from the coalescence of its particles. As the drops depend on a very different cause in this state of the air from that which produces rain in the usual form, they cannot be expected to be followed by a change of electricity. The negative electricity seems to be connected with southerly winds, because they are connected with rain: when the rain occurred, as it did in two instances, with the wind from the north-west and the west, the electricity was still negative. We hope these observations will be pursued with care.

Art. XXVIII. Some Particulars relative to the Production of Borax. By William Blane, Esq.—

Art. XXIX. A Letter from Father Joseph da Ravato, Prefect of the Mission in Thibet, containing some Observations relative

relative to Borax.—These accounts seem to meet only in one point; that borax is a natural, not an artificial production. In the first, snow is said to be requisite to the operation, and the snow is mixed, for this purpose, with the hot water of the lake: in the second, the borax is said to be procured from rain: both accounts agree in the circumstance that salt mines are in the neighbourhood of the borax pits. The salt is covered with oil or butter, to prevent its deliquescence. It is brought from Jumlate, a kingdom in the northern mountains, thirty days journey north from Betowle, which is 200 miles N. E. of Lucknow. Lucknow is, however, about 600 miles N. W. of Calcutta; so that the real distance of the kingdom of Jumlate is increased by this mode of computation. The country cannot be found in the maps; yet, if it is in Thibet, it cannot exceed the 35th degree of north latitude. There are many pits of borax, to which the salt is brought by springs; the hot springs, in the first narrative, dissolve it probably in large quantities, and the snow may be necessary to cool the water, in order that the salt may crystallize; while, in the second account, if by rain water is understood the rain collected in falling from the neighbouring hills, the evaporation by the sun is sufficient to exhale the superfluous fluid. The 29th article is in Italian, but it is translated very accurately at the end. The history of borax is an object of commerce, and, as a chemical agent, is very curious and interesting, particularly as it lies scattered in various authors, and has never been collected.

Art. XXX. Sur les Gas Hépatiques: par Mons. Hassenfratz. On Hepatic Air: by M. Hassenfratz.—Mr. Kirwan taught us that hepatic air was only sulphur in an aerial state; but M. Hassenfratz found that he could hepatize many different kinds of air, and that the hepatic gas was only sulphurated air of different kinds. M. Mongez had already made sulphurated fixed air: M. Hassenfratz sulphurated also nitrous air, atmospherical mephitis, vital, and atmospherical air. What has been called hepatic gas was the inflammable air sulphurated.

Art. XXXI. Botanical Description of the Benjamin Tree of Sumatra. By Jonas Dryander, M. A.—It is somewhat remarkable, that this tree should have been so often mistaken; Ray looked for the origin of an East Indian drug in a Virginian plant: it was then a laurus. Linnæus thought it belonged to the croton; and the croton benzoe stood in one mantissa, and the thirteenth edition of the *Systema Vegetabilium*, p. 721. In the *Supplementum Plantarum*, it was a species of terminalia, ascertained only by the similar appearance

ance of the barks of these trees (434). Mr. Marsden gave a better account of it; but Houttuyn brought it back again to a laurus (Act. Harlem, vol. xxi. p. 265.) It is now pretty distinctly ascertained, from a dried specimen, to be a species of styrax. A good outline of its habit and appearance is subjoined in a plate.

Art. XXXII. An Account of an Experiment on Heat. By George Fordyce, M. D. F. R. S.—This is an experiment on the communication of heat. We do not well know for what purpose it was tried, or what good consequence will follow from it. The fact is, that iron will communicate heat not so fast, at first, as air; but afterwards faster, and in greater quantities. Surely it was well known, that air was a bad conductor of heat: Dr. Fordyce might have learned it from his own experiments in a heated room. In the *horizontal part* of the chimney of a reverberatory furnace he could not expect to find any very great heat.

Art. XXXIII. An Account of an Observation of the Right Ascension and Declination of Mercury out of the Meridian, near his greatest Elongation, Sept. 1786. By Mr. John Smeaton, F. R. S.—It is not easy to abridge a series of observations and calculations; the result was, that on the 23d of September, 1786, A. M. at $5^h 22' 35''$ mean time, Mercury's right ascension was $163^\circ 59' 21''$, and his declination $7^\circ 44' 25''$ north.

Art. XXXIV. A remarkable Case of numerous Births, with Observations. By Maxwell Garthshore, M. D. F. R. S. and A. S.—The case before us is a well authenticated one of five female children at a birth. The woman had been delivered of a single child before; and the husband had been in an infirm state for some years, and was, at the time of this prolific birth, dying in a confirmed phthisis; two of the children were born alive, and the whole number were born within fifty minutes. Dr. Garthshore adds some reflections on numerous births. In the British lying-in hospitals, the proportion of twins has been 91 births in 18,300 deliveries. In the Westminster dispensary, of 1897 women delivered, the proportion has been one in 80. But in the Dublin lying-in hospital, it has been one in 62; the average in these kingdoms is 1 in 78. The proportion of twins to single children, in Germany, is from about 1 in 65, to 1 in 70; in Paris, about one in 96. The general average is about one in 80. In this variety there is some order; but in triplets, quadruplets, and quintuplets, there is no consistency, all seems to be accidental. In one instance, at Paris, where a woman had three children, the husband was a painter, and had been paralytic two years previous to the birth,

birth, without any reason to suspect the wife. We congratulate Mr. Hull's patient on the lucky coincidence.

Art. XXXV. *Chloranthus*, a new Genus of Plants, described by Olof Swartz, M. D.—This is a new genus, and the trivial name of the individual is 'inconspicuus' from the smallness of the flower. It is a Chinese plant, neither beautiful nor useful: it may be arranged in the forty-eighth natural order, next to the viscum. The description is illustrated by a plate.

Art. XXXVI. On the Precession of the Equinoxes. By the rev. Samuel Vince, M. A. F. R. S.—Sir Isaac Newton, while he assigned the true cause of the precession of the equinoxes, was less exact in his calculation of the effect. The present investigation is neat and simple:—the precession is, however, $21'' 6''$ in a year, from calculation; but, as it must suppose the earth of an uniform density, and assumes the proportion of the equatorial and polar diameters as fixed, it must probably deviate somewhat from the fact.

Art. XXXVII. Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon, in Rutland, in 1786. By Thomas Barker, Esq. Also of the Rain at South Lambeth, in Surrey; and at Selbourn and Fyfield, Hampshire.—This register of the year 1786, is said to have been read in June 1786, by mistake we suppose, for 1787.—The range of the thermometer was from $89\frac{1}{2}$ to $11\frac{1}{2}$, a greater variation than commonly happens. The barometer varied from 30.05 inches to 29.01, for we must suppose the 20.01 in August to be meant for 29.01. Two errors in numerals, in a register of one page, is an unpardonable fault. The rain at Lyndon, in this year, was 27.289 inches; at South Lambeth 22.43; at Selbourn 39.57; at Fyfield 29.60; on an average 29.72.

Art. XXXVIII. Observations on the Structure and Oeconomy of Whales. By John Hunter, Esq. F. R. S.—Anatomical description is little suited either for an extract or an abridgment. We may observe, in general, that the very particular and extensive account of animals, which can seldom be the objects of the anatomist's attention, does the highest credit to Mr. Hunter, while the confused inaccuracy of the language disgraces the philosopher, and the collection in which his description appears. It is out of our power, as we have observed, to follow our author's steps; but we shall select a few passages, which we think are particularly curious. The species examined are the *delphinus phocaena*, or porpoise; the grampus; the *delphinus delphis*, or bottle-nosed whale; the *balæna rostrata*; the *balæna mysticetus*, or the whalebone-whale; the *physeter macrocephalus*, or the spermaceti whale;

and the monodon monoceros, or the narwhale. In general, the tail is flattened horizontally, to enable the fish to rise, in order to breathe; the flesh is very red, and of greater specific gravity than beef, so that the large quantities of fat are a necessary part of its œconomy. The bones are semitransparent, as in all fish; and those of the fins are somewhat similar to the bones of the superior extremities in man. Linnæus is not, therefore, so erroneous in classing whales with men, as has been imagined: they are at least the primates of the sea.

‘What is called spermaceti is found every where in the body in small quantity, mixed with the common fat of the animal, bearing a very small proportion to the other fat. In the head it is the reverse, for there the quantity of spermaceti is large when compared to that of the oil, although they are mixed, as in the other parts of the body.

‘As the spermaceti is found in the largest quantity in the head, and in what would appear, on a slight view, to be the cavity of the skull, from a peculiarity in the shape of that bone, it has been imagined by some to be the brain.

‘These two kinds of fat in the head are contained in cells, or cellular membrane, in the same manner as the fat in other animals; but besides the common cells there are larger ones, or ligamentous partitions going across, the better to support the vast load of oil, of which the bulk of the head is principally made up.

‘There are two places in the head where this oil lies; these are situated along its upper and lower part: between them pass the nostrils, and a vast number of tendons going to the nose and different parts of the head.

‘The purest spermaceti is contained in the smallest and least ligamentous cells: it lies above the nostril, all along the upper part of the head, immediately under the skin, and common adipose membrane. These cells resemble those which contain the common fat in the other parts of the body nearest the skin. That which lies above the roof of the mouth, or between it and the nostril, is more intermixed with a ligamentous cellular membrane, and lies in chambers whose partitions are perpendicular. These chambers are smaller the nearer to the nose; becoming larger and larger towards the back part of the head, where the spermaceti is more pure.

‘This spermaceti, when extracted cold, has a good deal the appearance of the internal structure of a water melon, and is found in rather solid lumps.’

The following remarks are curious in many respects.

‘Although this tribe cannot be said to ruminate, yet in the number of stomachs they come nearest to that order; but here I suspect that the order of digestion is in some degree inverted. In both the ruminants and this tribe, I think it must be allowed that the first stomach is a reservoir. In the ruminants the
precise

precise use of the second and third stomachs is perhaps not known; but digestion is certainly carried on in the fourth; while in this tribe, I imagine digestion is performed in the second, and the use of the third and fourth is not exactly ascertained.

‘The cœcum and colon do not assist in pointing out the nature of the food, and mode of digestion in this tribe. The porpoise, which has teeth, and four cavities to the stomach, has no cœcum, similar to some land animals, as the bear, badger, racoon, ferret, polecat, &c. neither has the bottle-nose a cœcum, which has only two small teeth in the lower jaw; and the piked whale, which has no teeth, has a cœcum, almost exactly like the lion, which has teeth and a very different kind of stomach.

‘The food of the whole of this tribe, I believe, is fish; probably each may have a particular kind, of which it is fondest, yet does not refuse a variety. In the stomach of the large bottle-nose, I found the beaks of some hundreds of cuttle-fish. In the grampus I found the tail of a porpoise; so that they eat their own genus. In the stomach of the piked whale, I found the bones of different fish, but particularly those of the dog-fish.’

The structure of many parts, particularly of the lymphatics, might probably be ascertained in animals so large, though it is uncertain in the human species. The aorta of a spermaceti whale is a foot in diameter; and this vessel, with the heart, fills a large tub. The nervous system appears pretty decidedly fibrous; the fibres pass *from* the ventricles, as from a centre, to the circumference; and the fibrous texture is conspicuous in the cortical part. In some kinds, particularly the porpoise, the brain is very large in proportion to the animal. The organ of smell is out of the direct road of the current of air in inspiration, and out of the current of water when the animal discharges it by spouting. As these fish have olfactory nerves, they certainly have the power of smelling; but through what medium it is exercised is uncertain. Mr. Hunter suspects that the sinus, on which the olfactory nerves are dispersed, contains air, and, as the water passes by it in the act of spouting, the reservoir of air is impregnated by its effluvia.

This account is illustrated by several plates; but the different parts which are described, are not particularly delineated.

Art. XXXIX. Some Observations on ancient Inks, with the Proposal of a new Method for recovering the Legibility of decayed Writings. By Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S. and F. A. S.—On examination, the ancient inks appear to have been made on the same principle as the modern ones. The method of restoring them most effectually, was to moisten the paper with a diluted mineral acid, and then to add a phlogisticated

gificated alkali, which gave the letters a bright blue colour. This method is subject to some inconveniencies; and it is less useful, because it seems to require, that the form of the letters should be previously known; of course it cannot be employed to render the letters of illegible manuscripts conspicuous. If the astringent principle of galls cannot be separated from the staining matter, we would recommend preparing the phlogisticated alkali from the Prussian blue, when it is very slightly coloured, and exposing the writing afterwards to the vitriolic acid, in the state of air.

The volume concludes with the usual list of donors and their presents. In the Appendix is a supplement to major-general Roy's mode of determining the relative situation of the royal observatories of Greenwich and Paris. It points out the source of some little inaccuracies in calculation of M. Bouguer, and a supplementary table for the degrees of the earth, is subjoined.

The Philosophical and Mathematical Commentaries of Proclus; surnamed Plato's Successor, on the first Book of Euclid's Elements. And his Life by Marinus. Translated from the Greek. With a preliminary Dissertation on the Platonic Doctrine of Ideas, &c. By Thomas Taylor, Vol. I. 4to, 15s. in Boards. Payne and Son.

OF Mr. Taylor's peculiar mode of thinking we have before taken notice; it appears more striking than ever in the present work, which is dedicated to 'the *sacred Majesty of Truth!*' If the sceptic should wish to know 'what is truth,' he will receive a very unexpected, and we apprehend, a very unsatisfactory answer. It is to be found, according to Mr. Taylor, in * judicial astrology, and the ancient Pagan theology. The reader may smile, but he very seriously assures us, in the catalogue which he gives of Proclus's writings, that had 'his Commentary on the Gods of Homer been preserved,

* This appears in a note annexed to a passage in the Life of Proclus (p. 30.), translated, so Mr. Taylor says, from that written by Marinus, one of his disciples. In commenting on the passage he tells us, that 'such is the admirable order and connection of things, that throughout the universe, one thing is signified by another, and wholes are after a manner contained in their parts.' The observation is annexed to a scheme of the situation of the stars when Proclus was born; no doubt, *clearly significant of his philosophic eminence!* We know not where Mr. Taylor derived this intelligence. The Life of Proclus, written by Marinus, and prefixed to his Commentaries on Plato's Theology, as published at Hamburg in 1518, is, indeed, rendered with accuracy and elegance; but nearly half of it, as it stands in this publication, the scheme of his nativity, among other things, is added either from Mr. Taylor's fancy, or some authority with which he does not think proper to acquaint us.

we should doubtless have been furnished with a defence of the Heathen religion which would have silenced the ignorant clamours of its opponents!

We recollect having read, in Brydone's Travels, an account of an old humorist, who was a staunch Whig, and resided at Rome. Being laughed at by some Jacobite gentlemen for pulling off his hat to the statue of Jupiter, he replied, that he observed they constantly did the same to the Pretender; that he wished to keep on good terms with Jupiter for the same reason as they did with him; apprehending that the former was more likely, in the course of time, to be restored to his ancient honours than the latter. Little, however, we trust, did he suspect that the æra was so speedily approaching, in which a man of learning and abilities would meditate a restoration of the Olympic deities, and lament the degeneracy of modern times, as ill adapted to so notable a project, and so pure a creed; for though the following note, which will give us a curious specimen of Mr. Taylor's peculiarity, expresses a disapprobation of the national mode of worship, as exercised by the ancients; yet the text, which he so highly praises, contains an account of Proclus's composing hymns on the divinities of Greece, and other nations, performing devotional rites in honour of them, and conforming to the most glaring absurdities of the heathen system.

'A genuine modern will doubtless consider the whole of Proclus's religious conduct as ridiculously superstitious. And so, indeed, at first sight, it appears; but he who has penetrated the depths of ancient wisdom, will find in it more than meets the vulgar ear. The religion of the Heathens has, indeed, for many centuries, been the object of ridicule and contempt: yet the author of the present work is not ashamed to own, that he is a perfect convert to it in every particular, so far as it was understood and illustrated by the Pythagoric and Platonic philosophers. Indeed the theology of the ancient, as well as of the modern vulgar, was no doubt full of absurdity; but that of the ancient philosophers, appears to be worthy of the highest commendations, and the most assiduous cultivation. However, the present prevailing opinions, forbid the defence of such a system; for this must be the business of a more enlightened and philosophic age. Besides, the author is not forgetful of Porphyry's destiny, whose polemical writings were suppressed by the decrees of emperors; and whose arguments in defence of his religion were so very futile and easy of solution, that, as St. Hierom informs us, in his preface on Daniel, Eusebius answered him in twenty-five, and Apollinaris in thirty volumes!

Such opinions deserve no serious confutation; they are too absurd to be dangerous.

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We might quote other passages of the same tendency as the foregoing; but the reader, we apprehend, will excuse us, if we proceed to give a summary account of what is contained in this very extraordinary performance.

We have first a dissertation on the Platonic doctrine of ideas, in which their nature is investigated, and reality supported. Plato was not, however, the inventor, though a strenuous assertor of ideas. Pythagoras, in his obscure manner, signified them by numbers; and Orpheus, prior to him, maintained their reality, and styled Jupiter, or the demiurgus of the world, 'the idea of all things.' The mystic qualities and attributes of the Pythagoric numbers (in the exact knowledge of which he supposed man's ultimate good to consist) are amply and curiously descanted on. For the farther unravelling this intricate maze, we are referred to 'Proclus's commentary on Plato's theology, and to the works of the great Plotinus, who will lead them into the penetralia of the most recondite wisdom.' These sublime truths are not, we are told, adapted, like modern publications, to the *meanest capacities*. The mode in which Plato expressed himself, occupied in abstract speculation on the subject, will possibly lead the reader to suspect that it is not comprehensible by any capacity.

'For a thing of this kind (says he) cannot be expressed by words, like other disciplines, but by a lasting familiarity and conjunction of life, with this divine object, a bright light on a sudden, as it were leaping from a fire, will illuminate the soul and there preserve and nourish its splendor.'

To Mr. Taylor, however, the matter appears quite clear and obvious.

'This bright light (says he) is no other than that of ideas themselves; which, when it is once enkindled, or rather rekindled in the soul, becomes the general standard, and criterion of truth. He who possesses this, is no longer the slave of opinion; puzzled with doubts; and lost in the uncertainties of conjecture. Here the fountain of evidence is alone to be found. — This is the true light, whose splendors can alone dispel the darkness of ignorance, and procure for the soul undecaying good, and substantial felicity. Of this I am certain, from my own experience; and happy is he who acquires this invaluable treasure. But let the reader beware of mixing the extravagancies of modern enthusiasm with this exalted illumination. For this light is alone brought into the mind by science, patient reflection, and unwearied meditation: it is not produced by any violent agitation of spirits, or extasy of imagination; for it is far superior to the energies of these: but it is tranquil and steady, intellectual and divine. Avicenna, the Arabian, was well acquainted with this light, as is evident from the beautiful description he gives of it, in the elegant introduction of Ebn

Tophail,

Tophail, to the Life of Hai Ebn Yokdhan. "When a man's desires (says he) are considerably elevated, and he is competently well exercised in these speculations, there will appear to him some small glimmerings of the truth, as it were flashes of lightning, very delightful, which just shine upon him, and then become extinct. Then the more he exercises himself, the oftener will he perceive them, till at last he will become so well acquainted with them, that they will occur to him spontaneously, without any exercise at all; and then as soon as he perceives any thing, he applies himself to the divine essence, so as to retain some impression of it; then something occurs to him on a sudden, whereby he begins to discern the truth in every thing; till through frequent exercise he at last attains to a perfect tranquillity; and that which used to appear to him only by fits and starts, becomes habitual, and that which was only a glimmering before, a constant light; and he obtains a constant and steady knowledge." He who desires to know more concerning this, and a still brighter light, that arising from an union with the supreme, must consult the eighth book of Plotinus's fifth Ennead, and the seventh and ninth of the sixth, and his book on the Beautiful, of which I have published a translation."

This section concludes with a comparison between the ancient and modern philosophy, or rather the Platonic and Lockian system of ideas, in which the latter receives no quarter.—The next dissertation treats of the *properties* of the *demonstrative syllogism*, and is chiefly founded on the first book of Aristotle's last Analytics. Of the Logic of Aristotle we have but a few books left, and had they been entirely lost the world might, as some has thought, have done just as well without them. Mr. Taylor, however, has displayed great knowledge and acuteness in elucidating his subject; but this dissertation, like most of the others contained in this volume, cannot easily be abridged or analysed, without doing it injustice.

In the third section the nature of the soul, according to the Platonic philosophy, is considered: and in the fourth we have a discourse on the true end of geometry. This may be looked upon as a kind of introductory preface to the work itself, which treats not only on geometry, but mathematics in general, and leads us from the definitions of Euclid to the very height and depth of Platonic wisdom—or, perhaps, of Platonic reveries.

The profundity of Proclus, and the typographical errors of the Greek edition, prove no obstacles to our adventurous translator. He assures us that 'his version is every where faithful, and sufficiently perspicuous to those who are conversant in the ancient philosophy.' Dr. Cudworth, we find, rashly declared, that 'Proclus had some peculiar fancies and whims of his own, and

and was indeed a confounder of the Platonic theology, and a mingler of much unintelligible stuff with it.' *This rouses Mr. Taylor's indignation :*

'I must confess (says he), and I am neither afraid, nor ashamed of the declaration, that I never found any thing in Proclus, but what by patient thought, accompanied with a sincere and vehement thirst after truth, I have been able to fathom. Had Dr. Cudworth been endued with these requisites, he would doubtless have had equal success; but without them, the sublimest truths will certainly appear to be *unintelligible stuff*. Besides this consideration is not to be omitted, that a modern priest makes a bad philosopher.'

May they ever be distinct characters, and the meekness of Christian knowledge be ever opposite to the ostentatious display of worldly wisdom, or *vain philosophy*!

To those who understand the *constitution* of the *Platonic figures*, and the *immaterial* and *intellectual theorems* of Pythagoras, we recommend this work. We confess that 'we have not drank sufficiently deep of the Platonic stream,' greatly to relish it. Mr. Taylor, indeed, possesses a spirit entirely congenial to his original author, and appears to understand him where he is intelligible; and where he is not so, his fancy supplies the deficiency—to himself at least. The generality of readers will not easily comprehend either Proclus or his commentator.

An Attempt to translate and explain the difficult Passages in the Song of Deborah, with the Assistance of Kennicott's Collations, Rossi's Versions, and Critical Conjecture. By the Rev. Stephen Weston, B. D. 4to. 2s. Payne and Son.

THE author wishes, perhaps, to be known as an Hebrew scholar, and a reader of the different commentators. We allow his claim; but, if he aims at the title of an Hebrew critic, it cannot be built on this performance, for little is new; and the novelties are sometimes trifling, and often doubtful. This celebrated chapter has called forth the erudition of many a German commentator, whose dust has been shaken off to fill the present pamphlet. The Song is indeed worthy of the labour bestowed on it, though much has been bestowed in vain.

If we examine the tenor and object of this eulogetic hymn, it is, we find, to praise the Lord for the deliverance of Israel; to contrast the benefits derived from this deliverance with the former distresses of the country, and to enumerate the steps which led to that happy event. In the latter part, particularly, Deborah assumes all the importance of a deliverer, and relates, with great exultation, the circumstances which led to the death of Sisera. We will now examine the criticism, on these principles,

principles, and put Schürer and Lette back on the shelf; nor will we once open Golius or Gjeuharius.

In the second verse, for 'the avenging of Israel,' Mr. Weston would read 'for the taking away of the veil that was in Israel.' The sense is the same, since in this Song, which is full of metaphor and allusion, the veil that overshadowed Israel must have been, as the translator is willing to allow, 'the terror of Sisera and Jabin.' The omission of the *vau*, in xiii. 20. of Ezekiel, seems to give some consistency to that unintelligible passage. The annotator, Mr. Weston, would read 'where-with you hunt the souls of the young;' yet, in its present state, the passage can scarcely be said to be elucidated. In the seventh verse, for we can only notice what seems to be important, he translates 'the leaders ceased in Israel;' and, indeed, has shown, that if our version had said the *principal* inhabitants, it would have been correct. In this state, our translation is as near to the original as his own, for the term leaders does not express the extent of the desolation; the word implies a more considerable destruction, and is but partially expressed by the refinement of the translator.

In the eighth verse of the old translation, it is said, 'They have chosen new gods: then was war in the gates;'—their idolatry was punished by invasion and desolation, while resistance was out of their power, for they were without arms*: 'was there a shield or spear seen among forty thousand in Israel?' But plain sense is not enough for a minute critic: let us attend to Mr. Weston.

'Of all the corruptions which design or accident have introduced into the Hebrew text, no one ever worked a greater change in the sense than the one I apprehend to have taken place in this verse. There is a very considerable variety of interpretation of these words, and yet no critic seems to have guessed at the true meaning, if there be any certainty in my conjecture. Kennicot gives the passage to Deborah, but as the thing appears to me, it belongs to Barak. Deborah tells us she, an inspired prophetess and judge in Israel, took the lead because the country was left without a general. Barak tells us that he was chosen immediately by God to conduct the war in his own country. Read

Barak. יבחר אלהים
 קדש ים

The Lord chose Kedesh of the West. Now we learn from the last chapter (c. iv. v. 5.) that Barak was called out of Kedesh; and that Barak called Zebulun and Naphtali to Kedesh, and went up from thence with his quota of men to mount Tabor.

* See chap. iii. and 4.

Kedesh of the west wants no explanation. Consult Jos. xix. 34. Exod. x. 19. xxvii. 12. Reland 697.'

Unfortunately, in the former chapter, it is not the Lord, but Deborah, who called Barak; and if the Lord commanded, it was that 10,000 men should draw towards Mount Tabor, not that Barak should lead them.—But to go on:

'The seventh and eighth verses are thus to be distributed:
Verse 7. Deborah.—The leaders in Israel ceased;

They ceased till I Deborah arose,
Till I arose a mother in Israel.

Verse 8. Barak.—The Lord chose Kedesh of the west;
Then when war was at the gates,
Was there a shield or a spear seen,
Among forty thousand in Israel.

'The reason of this is evident from the history in the last chapter (c. iv.) Barak was gone to mount Tabor with all the troops he could collect, and all the arms. This mode of interpretation, if it be admitted, will confirm the history in the preceding chapter, and give a certain sense to what was before vague and undetermined.'

This is a little extraordinary: when Barak went towards mount Tabor, war was *not* at the gates; and it is more so, that because 10,000 men were sent away, 40,000 should have no arms. Did not the annotator know, that while the Israelites were enslaved, they were disarmed? Were they not disarmed by the Philistines? (Sam. i. xiii. 19.) Were not their efforts and their deliverance at different times, exerted and perfected by the rudest weapons; a common knife, which Ehud himself made (Judges iii. 16), an ox goad (iit. 31.) with which Shamgar slew 600 Philistines? Yet we learn, from the verse in Samuel above mentioned, that at this time, not only the instruments were made, but even ground, by men whose occupation these employments exclusively were. We are indeed told, in the former chapter, that the host of Sisera fell on the edge of the sword; but the swords must have been few, when of 50,000 fighting men, 10,000 only could have been in any degree armed.

Instead of 'ye who sit in judgment *על מדין* Mr. Weston would read *על מדין*. The emendation may be admitted, though without any real advantage: we think it injures the sense, since the different classes are better discriminated in our version.

Our translation, in the next verse, by a bold, but happy interpolation, reads, '*They that are delivered* from the noise of the archers, &c.' carrying on the allusion from the nobles and the magistrates to the shepherds, who drew water securely. Mr. Weston, after Schurrer, repeats the last word, and translates,
'Declare

‘Declare the praise of the Lord’

About the voice of the archers at the watering-places.’

The preposition will undoubtedly bear this interpretation; but the sense is neither clear or connected, from Mr. Weston’s translation; and we should prefer the translation of the Bible, which is not without arguments to support it.

‘They fought from heaven; the stars in their courses fought against Sisera.’ This is the usual hyperbolical style, and means that all nature combined with the Israelites. Mr. Weston’s emendation is of little importance: in his opposition to Lette, he seems to think, that no army can be conquered in the day-light. Military men, we believe, think otherwise,

‘The river Kishon swept them away,’

‘As their destruction was the river Kishon:’—This is a neat, and, we think, a correct emendation.

‘In a lordly dish she brought him *cream*.’

• **חֵמָה** thick milk, or cream. A **חֵמָה** Arabicè Spissum fait Lac. Cf. Simonis lexicon.’ When we looked at the place where this Attempt was published, we were not at a loss to conceive the meaning of this passage, which we suppose was suggested while the author indulged himself in one of the luxuries of Devonshire, clotted cream. But we, who are at a distance from such repasts, must prefer the old interpretation, though not entirely that of our translation. The word means, undoubtedly, thick milk; but it is *new* milk, from which the cream has not been separated.

We shall add but one remark more: the interpretation of the word **חֵמָה** is most extraordinary. Is this a word which a judge of Israel would put into the mouth of Sisera’s mother, and her ‘wise ladies,’ at least with this interpretation? He is not, however, singular. A German commentator has not scrupled to translate it in the plainest terms (Crit. Sacr. vol. ii. p. 2022.) as plain as Horace uses, in the lines quoted by Mr. Weston,

‘Nam fuit ante Helenam, &c,

But Horace, he says, meant the expression figuratively, as well as Barak, and he modestly throws an oriental veil over the word, so that Horace himself would not know it again. We wish that the author had taken Uncle Toby’s advice,—
‘wrapt it up and said nothing about it.’ His judgment would have then done him as much credit as the most recondite knowledge of the subject can now possibly afford him.

Vol. LXV. May, 1788.

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On the first opening of this work, we began to wonder at the extent of the author's reading and learning: as we proceeded, we found that he was only to be wondered at from a distant view. He must not be approached; no rude hand must remove the *oriental veil*; for under it we shall find nothing but what is common and well known. We mention this to account for our freedom with him: when our veneration lessened, a little displeasure took its place. But extremes are always wrong; and, while we cease to venerate, we should pay our tribute of applause to the extent of Mr. Weston's reading, and his stock of oriental literature.

The New Pharmacopæia of the Royal College of Physicians of London. Translated into English, with Notes, Indexes of new Names, Preparations, &c. &c. By Thomas Healde, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Longman.

AS we have given a pretty copious account of what the New Dispensatory contains, we now proceed to consider its merits, and the labours of the translator. To translate a work of so little difficulty as a system of prescriptions, which Dr. Healde assisted in forming, can confer but inconsiderable honour. Accuracy will scarcely deserve praise, while error is unpardonable. Of positive errors we cannot accuse our author. Perhaps his style might have been more neat, if he had not so studiously kept in the prints of the original. The notes contain some short pharmaceutical directions, or some explanation of the conduct of the committee appointed to reform the Dispensatory. They might have been more numerous, with advantage, as much information is still wanted, respecting the conduct of some of the processes, or the designs of the College. Yet we ought to be grateful for what they have condescended to reveal.

After a very careful examination of this work, we must allow it a considerable share of commendation. It is a neat, a simple, and, in many respects, a judicious set of formulæ. Fastidious criticism may, indeed, find much to blame; but the candid good-natured enquirer, who is aware of the great difficulty of the work, will forget little errors, when compared with numerous excellencies. The language, as will already have appeared, is that which Bergman borrowed from Morveau: the arrangement is very (perhaps too) strictly pharmaceutical; and the new formulæ are some of the most efficacious which private practice has adopted. We shall mention, however, some circumstances, in which we suspect the College have been too hasty, probably inconsiderate; and some sub-

stances which they have omitted: but we must examine the work in its order.

In the list of *materia medica* we cannot blame the College for not adding the Linnæan names of those medicines which have not been ascertained; but, as they have referred, for the botanical name of the lesser cardamoms, to Sonnerat's voyage, they might have referred to Ives, or to Rumphius, for the *columba*. It is, also, a little remarkable, if the species of *amomum* was so clearly characterised by Sonnerat, to induce the cautious College to refer to him, that Murray, in his 14th edition of the *Species Plantarum*, does not mention it.—The College's caution is peculiarly conspicuous in not putting down the botanical names of the *cascarilla*, the *gutta gamba*, *ipécacuanha*, *sanguis-draconis*, and *terebinthina*. A common reader might suppose that these plants were as much unknown as those which produce the kino, gum ammoniac, and sagapenum. If they would not allow of the pretensions of the genera *croton*, *cambogia*, *psycotria*, *pterocarpus*, *pistacia*, or *pinus*, yet the characters of the authors who have decided on these subjects should have induced them to set down what they had observed, even if it had been distinguished by a note of interrogation. We believe that few genera are better ascertained than these neglected ones.—In the qualities of the medicine employed, there are some errors: kino is put down as a resin, though in its synonym it is styled a gum. The College, who ascertained it to be a resin, should have enquired into its nature. We found, that a tincture from it, in proof-spirit, would not turn milky on adding any proportion of water; so that, at best, it must have the largest proportion of gum. The galbanum they have called a gum resin; but we have invariably found, that rectified spirit would dissolve the whole, except impurities, while the proof-spirit, which the College employs, left a considerable residuum; the greatest part must, therefore, have been resin, and their formula for the tincture of galbanum is unnecessarily extravagant.

On the superfluities of the list of *materia medica* we shall make no remark: the excess will be attended with no great injury; and we have not observed any extraordinary defects. The *hydsyamus* might perhaps have made an useful addition. But, while we mention plants of this class, it may be of importance to mention, that the *helleboraster*, if not carefully managed, may be injurious. There are two kinds of leaves of different strength, at once on the shrub; and if used in decoction, as is usual, deleterious effects are sometimes produced, by not attending to the leaf which is gathered. The safest way would have been to have ordered the younger and

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elder leaves to be mixed, dried, powdered together, and kept closely stopped in a phial. Other medicines may be properly kept in the same state, and the same manner.

In the preparation of simples there is one considerable error, viz. in preparing chalk, which, as it is a medicine often employed for young children, should have been guarded with an anxious caution. There is no rule for chusing the chalk; and this earth generally contains flints, and a little muriatic acid. If it were washed carefully after powdering, and the lightest parts only preserved for levigation, it would be a much safer medicine.

The conserves are in general well chosen, and properly prepared: we regret only, that the conserve of mint is omitted. We have often found it useful: the wormwood will scarcely supply its place. The inspissated juice of the elder berries might have been omitted, with little disadvantage to the work, or to the world: the inspissated juices which are added, will at least contribute to the elegance of prescriptions, if not to efficacy.

The new extracts are a considerable improvement, if we except the extract of broom-tops, a medicine which once owed its reputation to its alkali, when burned, and which ignorance alone could attribute to the plant in any other form. We have tried it in all its shapes, and find that, except in its ashes, there is no virtue. An extract of bark is undoubtedly useful; but two extracts are an useless superfluity: yet they remain in spite of what chemistry and experience have dictated. The subject lies in a small compass. The medical virtues of bark exist in a gummy resin; to extract it, either boiling water or proof-spirit are sufficient; if, in the first instance, the liquor is strained very hot.

In the list of oils we find an instance of the College's too strict adherence to their pharmaceutical arrangement. They, in effect, produce æther before it is expressly named; and the aromatic oil, their *ol. vini*, occurs at the end of a process, while there is no object for the beginning: this is sacrificing a natural method to a fancied order; but the fault is an immaterial one. The class of salts we have already praised; but we ought to add, that they are evidently defective from the omission of the *acidum tartari*. The distilled vinegar might have been thought too weak, if there had not been a stronger acid, which may occasionally be employed to strengthen it. We think that we should have preferred the terms of *potassa* and *soda* for the fixed alkalis, as they admit of being declined, and are therefore more properly Latin; and if, instead of *aqua*, the solution of any salt had been called *lixivium*, it would have avoided

avoided the ambiguity which may arise from the similar appellation of distilled waters, and have been more strictly chemical.

In modern practice, the metallic preparations are of considerable importance, and they have been much attended to by the college. They have done many things well; but not uniformly so. In the solutions of metals in acids there is a rule, which is pretty general, that the metal must be in different degrees calcined before it can be dissolved in the muriatic or vegetable acids. When dissolved in the other acids, and precipitated from them by the volatile or fixed alkalis, they are nearer or farther from a metallic state, and of course adapted for solution in different menstrua. This principle is not so closely followed as it ought to have been. Antimonium calcinatum, a calx of at least doubtful efficacy, should have been omitted. In particular situations it may become emetic by exposure to the air; but this fact renders it more uncertain. Dr. Healde contends for its efficacy; but, as he has not the clearest method of explaining himself, we shall extract his own words. Does he mean that the calx of 1741 is the same which he finds to be emetic at *present*; or because it happened to be so in 1741, it must be so now?

‘The translator hopes to be excused if he says, that he prepared the calx *lots* himself in 1741;—that he has ever since used it,—often designedly to excite nausea,—and continues deceived, if, when genuine, it is inefficacious. It is generally given in small doses, to promote a diaphoresis, from ten grains to a scruple.’

We ought to value this information, for on the subject of metallic preparations he is very cautious of saying any thing.—But when the College speak of a red heat, and burning the white matter *about* half an hour, we will defy any chemist to make it twice exactly of the same strength, and it might have been emetic in 1741, and useless in any other year. The crocus of antimony is a very uncertain preparation, and undoubtedly an improper one to make emetic tartar. We are told that chemists are not agreed about the *best* way; must therefore a *bad* one be retained? In fact, they *are* agreed, that to make it with the pulv. algaroth. is better than any other yet discovered; and, since it is now known, that butter of antimony can be made by distilling muriatic acid from manganese, into a receiver, in which crude antimony has been previously put, we combine a considerable degree of certainty with ease and cheapness. This process is explained in the History of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, prefixed to their Transactions, a work which contains much valuable information. Before we quit the subject of emetic tartar, we would

recommend powdering the crystals, and mixing them together; we know that different crystals, from the same process, are of unequal strength. The vinum antimonii, improperly separated, for the sake of strict pharmaceutical accuracy, from the other antimonials, is a very uncertain preparation, as the strength of white wine is not always the same: it is in the usual doses generally useless. Of the solution of emetic tartar in wine we cannot also speak favourably: of ten ounces two are of water: if the water is added hot, as the prescription seems to imply, the mixture will be in a few days sour; if cold, there will always be some deposition. In fact, formulæ of this kind belong to extemporaneous prescription. The ferrum tartarizatum is a preparation so rude and unchemical, that it disgraces the work. There are states in which iron may be dissolved by the acid of tartar; and if a preparation of this kind be wanted, it should have been employed. We believe, however, that it is wholly unnecessary, since the great advantage which arises from the solution of any metal in vegetable acid, is the rendering it more mild. But iron, even in the vitriolic acid, is not acrid. The wines and tinctures of iron are weak medicines: in strict accuracy, the ferrum muriatum should have been among the preparations of iron.

The mercurials afford a fruitful subject for remark: in general, however, the formulæ are sufficiently neat and accurate. We can mention only the most important ones. The corrosive sublimate, whose preparation we transcribed in our last Number, is that of Bolduc, with a little variation in the proportions, which we suspect renders it more mild. It undoubtedly should be prepared by our chemists, though there is in reality little reason to suspect its being sophisticated by arsenic. The reason for retaining calomel, with mercurius muriatus mitis, the calomel of Scheele, we shall transcribe from the translator, who, on this subject, is unusually clear.

'This is the mercurius dulcis præcipitatus of the Pharm. Lond. fol. 1721, p. 145.—adopted by the Edinburgh, 1744; under the name of Merc. præcip. albus,—and, after that, by the Swedish Dispensatory, under the name of mercurius dulcis. As it has been supposed by many to be a new invention of Mr. Scheele, and been recommended as an easy and cheap substitute for calomel, it has grown pretty much into use; but the testimonies, before the committee, of its good effects not being consonant with each other, the college chose not to receive it instead of a medicine of such established character as calomel, and introduced this for future trial. It is given in doses similar to those of calomel.'

We have little to add to what we formerly said, on the subject of the other metals; yet we cannot help mentioning

two

two important omissions; the cuprum ammoniacale, and Plummer's pill, medicines of considerable efficacy, and very improper to be left to extemporaneous prescription. The blue vitriol will not supply the former; and no medicine in this volume will perform the office of the latter. 'The ancients were miserably occupied by the fear and the correction of poisons,' say the author and translator of the preface; but this miserable occupation is not lost, and we may quote from this new and improved edition, where intrepid and 'masculine' sentiments are said to prevail, the terrors of sophistication by arsenic, the omission of copper, and the great caution relating to the saccharum saturni *.- A precipitate, by the volatile alkali may, perhaps, be thought wanting. We have never seen any great advantage from the use of Plenck's powder: on the contrary, it has appeared an inconvenient medicine; but, while it is often given, it should have found a place in the New Pharmacopœia. If a powder of this kind were precipitated by the volatile alkali from a solution of mercury, in the nitrous acid, as in the pulv. cinereus of the Edinburgh Dispensatory, it might have been a very proper medicine for the College's adoption.

Of distilled waters there are more than enough; but we ought to commend the terms and the accuracy with which they are employed in the distinction of what used to be called simple and spirituous. The spiritus distillati include every thing which rises in distillation, combined with alcohol. But many of the formulæ might have been expunged. We wish the affectation of using the singular number only had been avoided: decoct. rosæ is the decoction of *one* rose.

The decoctions also are too numerous, since many of them are the objects of extemporaneous prescriptions. Among the infusions is aq. calcis, added, perhaps, with pharmaceutical propriety, but in other views improperly. In reality, there should have been a class of terrea, where every preparation of earths, or which owe their activity to earth, might have been inserted: this class, in a pharmaceutical light, would not have been more improper than the salina and metallica. If the College would be strict, they should have been uniformly so. We are sorry to find the infus. senz limoniatum wanting; an infusion of aloes, in lime-water, an useful preparation, might also have found its way into this edition.

* The translator, however, takes violent emetics: he took, 50 years ago, the corrosive sublimate for this purpose, and speaks, from his own experience, of the effects of turpeth mineral.

The tinctures are managed with sufficient clearness, and there is no want of various articles of this kind. The occurrence, however, of tinct. fuliginis, in the last edition, reminds us of taking leave of this useful medicine; we do it with regret: an extract of soot we have often used with great advantage, and think that many other tinctures might have been rejected with less injury. The tinct. flor. martialium and saturnina, we have used with beneficial effects. So far as the latter is a chalybeate, it may be supplied by the tinct. ferri muriati; but we are convinced, that it also contains lead; on that account, we suppose it useful: on that account the College may have rejected it—Doctors differ! The tinctures of columba, and of cascarilla, are useful additions.

The mixtures afford little room to remark: they contain some valuable preparations; but this class is made up with so little care, that Hoffman's anodyne liquor is near to lac ammoniac. ; and the compound spirit of ammonia, is joined with chalk, julep, and almond milk: nothing better could, indeed, be expected from a title so general, and so little discriminated. The syrups are unreasonably multiplied; we forgot to mention, in our last article, the syrups of mulberries, raspberries, and black currants. Among the oxymels, that of the meadow-saffron is a very useful addition.

Of the powders we can say little besides what occurs in our last article: they sometimes supply the place of pills and electuaries, forms to which our College seem to have an unreasonable aversion. What is, however, included under these titles are very proper, and furnish no opportunity for criticism. The improvement of the old philonium was, in some degree, done before by the college of Edinburgh, and we think done better. A confectio japonica is probably wanting, we mean a medicine of a similar kind to that which occurs under this title in the last Edinburgh Dispensatory. The externals are sufficiently exact. The College seem not to have provided practitioners sufficiently with sedative ones, unclogged with wax; but perhaps these may be supplied by extemporaneous prescription. As we have not given many specimens of Dr. Healde's remarks, we shall add two, that on the emplastrum cantharidis, and on the emplastrum ladani. We point out the last chiefly to observe, that as the committee had prepared a narrative, it certainly should have been published, or at least more important extracts made from it.

* Complaints have been often, and for a long time justly, made of the failure of blisters,—not perhaps always from a defect of the former formula. This and another composition were

at

at the same time applied by one of the committee on himself: this was found to answer perfectly well, and with less pain than the other. That this, however, or any other composition should constantly succeed, the apothecary must be careful that the flies be good,—fresh powdered,—that powder very fine,—and that the plaster be neither made in too great quantity at once, nor spread with a spatula too much heated.

'This is the empl. stomachicum of the former Dispensatory. The committee thereon apprehended that no such plaster could be effectual without some volatile substances;—that, to produce any considerable effects, the application must be frequently renewed;—and that this, being but moderately adhesive, might, without offending the skin, be taken off as often as should be judged necessary. See their Narrative.'

We cannot conclude without expressing our approbation of the New Pharmacopœia in general. Difference of opinion will always occur; and, in a work like this, some complaisance is due even to the errors of our fellow-labourers. Other observers may point out more faults than we have done, or may think that some of these are superfluous. We have given only the honest result of a careful enquiry, without wishing to raise the credit of our perspicacity, by multiplying faults, or court favour by concealing them. Our end is sufficiently answered, if it leads practitioners to reflect on some points which they have not attended to, or furnish a hint to the College in their next edition.

An Essay on the Malignant, Ulcerated Sore Throat; containing Reflections on its Causes and fatal Effects in 1787. With a remarkable Case, accompanied with large purple Spots all over the Body, a Mortification of the Leg, &c. &c. By William Rowley, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Nourse,

THE Essay before us is the production of an excentric, though ingenious practitioner, to whom we are indebted for fancies and for improvements. In this work he is extremely tedious, and we began to suspect that he felt the fatal influence of narrative old age. The introduction contains an account of Dr. Rowley's life, education, and experience: it is diffuse, without the least interest. In the ensuing pages he returns to the same subject in different forms, and details the same precept in words but little varied. The sixth and latter part of the ninth sections, in pages 12th and 14th, are nearly the same. The second and fourth causes of putrid complaints differ but in words; and, in the latter, as well as in other parts of the Essay, mephitic air is blamed for effects which, we suspect, it never produced. If any kind of air, independent of the mis-

miasmata which it conveys, is injurious, it is phlogificated air. The choke-damp, which is styled mephitic, is generally either phlogificated or inflammable air: in some cases, it is an union of both. Besides little inaccuracies of this kind; which are very common, there are many errors, from indefinite language. Dr. Rowley tells us, that he has ascertained the real *causes* of many diseases by dissection; but those who are best acquainted with dissections and with practice have generally found that, in opening dead bodies, they have seen only effects, or effects with difficulty distinguished from causes. Again, in page 6th, from the comparative view of diseases 'it appears that the *rains* began sooner.' We believe no diseases can discover the quantity of rain: it may be guessed at, perhaps, if the temperature of the air be also known. In page 13th, he speaks of the laxity of the blood producing a laxity of the arteries; but nothing is more evident, from the celerity of the changes, that both are produced by the same causes. One instance more:

'Fixed air is prevalent in the bottom of mines, and called *choke-damp*.

'It arises from liquors in a state of fermentation, and occupies *their surface*, called, by the former chemists, *gas*, and, indeed, lately *gasses*, by a very ingenious philosopher.'

The case which is first related, was very highly putrid, and managed with care and effect. The success was such as Dr. Rowley deserved, from his spirit and decision; but the views and designs, the ratio symptomatum, and the powers of remedies, are spun out to an unmerciful length. Poor Nature too, is abused without mercy, because she will not cure diseases which, before the bodily effects are produced, undermine the vital power. It is true, that she must be trusted little in putrid complaints, and in some chronic ones; yet she often performs miracles. There is no subject, perhaps, which requires a nicer, and a more accurate discussion, than what the powers of nature are, and how far they may be trusted; but this discussion must not be reserved for the rash hand of Dr. Rowley.

It is easy to enumerate the methods of our author, so far as they may not be generally practised, for none are new. He gives bark and cordials early, and as freely as the violence of the disease seems to require. He uses gargles of mineral acids and bark. He thinks blistering of at least doubtful efficacy: to say the best of epispastics is, in his opinion, that they do no harm. He gives the aceseent purgatives, with senna, and condemns the salts. Purgings, however, he uses with great moderation, and emetics he thinks injurious. Fresh air and cleanliness are, as may be expected, important objects. In all these opinions

opinions we agree with him ; but we have not commonly pushed the bark so far ; and have been afraid of using it in the angina maligna trachealis. So far as we have employed it, we think it has done harm ; but, in that disease, with this exception, we can fully confirm our author's observation, that bark does not increase the dyspnoea of putrid diseases. His criticisms on the practice of other authors are just, but, in some instances, too severe. The temporary phrenitis, which he describes, we have often seen as the first symptom of putrid complaints, and seen it very transitory. It was once removed by a large glass of strong negus, with nutmeg. The spices and aromatics, as local applications in ulcerated sore throat, our author has not sufficiently attended to. As a specimen of his best manner, we shall select his account of the phrenitis maligna. We shall select it as a counter-balance to our criticisms on his faults.

‘ 1. The patients are seized with a species of delirium without fever.

‘ 2. They talk wildly, expressing false fears, and describing false images of the mind.

‘ 3. No heat, thirst, discoloration of the tongue, cold shiverings, or any other febrile symptoms appear.

‘ 4. Sometimes they are melancholy ; at others so obstreperous as to require three or four persons to hold them.

‘ 5. The pulse is never, or rarely, quick, but, on the contrary, is depressed, and slower than usual ; some have beat so slow as forty in a minute.

‘ Bleeding shewed the blood not to be in an inflamed, but lax state ; and, if repeated, did manifest injury.

‘ Evacuations of vomiting, sweating, and purging, answered no purpose, except to lower the patients, and prolong the disease.

‘ The disorder appeared so similar to a maniacal affection, which is a delirium without fever, that the straight waistcoat was, in some instances, proposed, or the removal of patients to a mad house.

‘ It differed, however, from the true inflammatory phrenitis, being destitute of fever ; and from madness, because it has happened to numbers, and terminated in a few days.

‘ From many circumstances, it appeared of the putrid kind, absorbed from putrid *miasmata*, and determined to the brain and its membranes.

‘ The remedies, which have cured the cases I have seen, are, camphor in large doses, and, after a proper laxative, the *cortex Peruvianus*.

Dr. Rowley promises many other publications. We hope that he will not be so diffuse as in the present Essay. The leaves of a luxuriant tree either prevent or hide the fruit.

The

The History of Funguses, growing about Halifax. With Forty-four Copperplates; on which are engraved fifty-one Species of Agarics. 3 Vols. Vol. I. By James Bolton. 4to. 2l. 2s. coloured, 1l. 7s. plain. White and Son.

MR. Bolton's first volume contains fifty-one species of agaricus, and we find that at least nineteen more remain, for after plate 70th, where the agarics are concluded, we are told there will be a methodical Index of all the species of this genus. This would at once lead us to conclude, that our author has raised many varieties to a higher rank; for Linnæus had enumerated only twenty-eight species; Murray, with all the improvements that could add to the 14th edition, thirty-nine; and Hudson fifty-one. Hudson indeed occasionally divides the species too minutely; and in this instance he has done so, though one of his varieties is considered by Murray as a distinct species. Linnæus has remarked that he mentions but few species of the fungi, to avoid varieties, which are more numerous in this class than are usually supposed, though it may be alledged that it is not easy to distinguish between species and varieties in plants, which cannot be preserved, or in general raised from seed.

Of the fifty-one fungi described by Mr. Bolton, we can find but sixteen in Hudson; but we cannot properly compare these authors, unless we were certain of the exactness of the references, or had all the species before us. Our author apologises for the defect of some references; and where we suspect defects, it is not easy to say, whether the name in Hudson is omitted, or that the plant in question may not be a variety of some future species. It is not indeed probable, that all the fungi of England may be found in the neighbourhood of Halifax. We must therefore omit all critical examination, and give an account of what Mr. Bolton has done.

The Introduction contains a general account of the different genera, and the objects of attention in the discrimination of the various species. These descriptions are illustrated by references to the frontispiece, where, with some fancy, the different genera are hung in a festoon. The species described from Hudson in this first volume, are the Androsaceus, Clavus, Candidus, Campanulatus, Cinnamoneus Deliciosus, Denticulatus, Extinctorius Fascicularis, Fimetarius, Integer, Lactifluus, Muscarius, Procerus, Piperatus, Umbelliferus. The thirty-five other trival names it would be useless to transcribe, without a farther description of each than our limits will allow. We shall select a specimen of our author's manner, and it shall be what he supposes to be a new species.

Agar-

* *AGARICUS stipitatus, pileo lamellis et stipite albido, tota planta coriacea.*

* NOVEL AGARIC.

* The root is a little hard tubercle, the size of a small pea, of a brownish colour, and furnished with a great number of fine short capillary greyish fibres: there is no volva.

* The stem is round, cylindrical the thickness of a duck's quill, three inches high, of a dead white colour, and of a solid, firm, tough, elastic substance, but easily splits from end to end, in white, springy, shining filaments: there is no curtain.

* The gills are disposed in three series, rather broad than otherwise, remotely placed, white, and of a tough and pliable substance.

* The pileus at first convex, afterwards becomes horizontal and depressed in the centre, with a cavity resembling a navel; it is from one to two inches diameter, of a white colour, a smooth surface, and a tough elastic substance. The plant is of a slow growth, and abides for weeks; in decay the colour changes from white to a yellowish brown, after which it melts in a brown liquor.

* Grows in close plantations, particularly those of fir or larch, from July to October. It abounds in the plantations about Fixby-Hall, the seat of T. Thornhill, Esq; the rich and extensive plantations around that rural and beautiful villa, have afforded me several curious and undescribed species of British Fungi.

We have selected this description partly for the sake of the concluding paragraph, and to remark that new mushrooms, which occur in extensive plantations of foreign trees, may be truly suspected of not being indigenous. There are some others found in hot-houses, which are equally suspicious, and perhaps our seemingly native plants may be in this way increased, without our having a right to claim the treasure as our own.

This work is illustrated by forty-four plates; and the second volume will contain twenty-six more; for, as we have remarked, the Agarics conclude at plate 70. It will contain also the genera of Boletus, Hydnum, and Phallus. The third volume comprehends the seven remaining genera; and, as the objects are small, the plates will be less numerous. This work seems to be executed with the author's usual accuracy: the plates are clear and expressive, rather than elegant; and the language is properly adapted to the work.

The Observer: being a Collection of Moral, Literary, and Familiar Essays. Vol. IV. 8vo. 3s. in Boards. Dilly.

WE have examined the different parts of this collection, in our LIXth Volume, p. 297, and in the LXIId, p.

93. and have found great reason for commending its style, the information contained in it, the various entertainment plentifully dispersed, as well as the moral tendency of the whole. Mr. Cumberland, like the industrious ant,

'Ore trahit quocunque potest atque addit acervo,'

for this is not the last volume, and may be the fruitful parent of many more. Its merits are not inferior, in general, to those of its predecessors, though we found, or thought we found, the language polished with less care, the sentences sometimes not so happily turned as they appeared to be before. But as we have looked carefully for examples of little negligences, with no great success, we would not accuse our author of inattention: yet sometimes we may, perhaps, feel what we cannot describe, and be sensible of a difference on the whole, though it may not be readily pointed out in particular parts.

The subjects of this volume are chiefly a continuation of the Grecian literary history; it comprehends an account of the authors of the middle comedy, with some remains, collected with no little labour, and translated with great neatness and accuracy.—The stories are well told: the character of Ned Drowsy, in some respects, perhaps, too artificially described, is, however, delineated with great skill, and the changes which love, almighty love, produces, developed with accuracy. Mr. Cumberland also appears as a polemic with good success. His observations on Dr. Priestley's opinions deserve attention, and his answer to David Levi is highly satisfactory. But we need not examine works of this miscellaneous kind in detail. As we have not yet given any account of the Grecian dramatists from our author, we shall, in this article, give some specimens of the volume, from the Numbers which relate to that subject.

From this collection, we feel the most lively regret at the loss of the works of these dramatists: there are, in the different extracts, much comic humour, with animated descriptions of men and manners; many judicious reflections, and well-drawn morals.

Our poet (Alexis, one of the earliest writers of the middle comedy must have been in an ill-humour with the sex, when he wrote this comedy, or else the Athenian wives must have been mere Xantippes to deserve what follows,—

*'Nor house, nor coffers, nor whatever else
Is dear and precious, should be watch'd so closely,
As the whom you call wife. Sad lot is our's,
Who barter life and all it's free delights,
To be the slaves of woman, and are paid
Her bridal portion in the luckless coin
Of sorrow and vexation. A man's wrath
Is milk and-honey to a woman's rage:*

He

He can be much offended and forgive,
She never pardons those she most offends;
What she should do she slights, what she should not
Hotly pursues; false to each virtuous point,
And only in her wickedness sincere.

'Who but a lunatic would wed and be
Wilfully wretched? better to endure
The shame of poverty and all its taunts
Rather than this. The reprobate, on whom
The Censor set his brand, is justly doom'd
Unfit to govern others, but the wretch
Who weds, no longer can command himself,
Nor hath his woe a period but in death.'

Alexis, in his riddling description of love, greatly resembles Shakspeare, who tortures one poor word a thousand ways: he does not, however, speak with great respect of that passion, and, in general, the authors of the middle comedy are not very complaisant to the fair sex. It is the æra of polished refinement that pays the ladies the respect due to them, and sometimes makes them least deserving of it. The following tender and pathetic sentiments are of a different kind, and highly beautiful: they are the production of Clemens, an author also of the middle comedy.

'Let the earth cover and protect it's dead!
And let man's breath thither return in peace
From whence it came; his spirit to the skies,
His body to the clay of which 'twas form'd,
Imparted to him as a loan for life,
Which he and all must render back again
To earth, the common mother of mankind.'

'Wound not the soul of a departed man!
'Tis impious cruelty; let justice strike
The living, but in mercy spare the dead.
And why pursue a shadow that is past?
Why slander the deaf earth, that cannot hear,
The dumb that cannot utter? When the soul
No longer takes account of human wrongs,
Nor joys nor sorrows touch the mouldering heart,
As well you may give feeling to the tomb,
As what it covers—both alike defy you.'

As a specimen of the comic cast, we will select the following description of a lexiaphanic servant, who speaks, as we suspect, from Homer. Lucian has much of this kind of wit, but the original must be looked for in Straton.

'I've harbour'd a he-sphinx and not a cook,
For by the gods he talk'd to me in riddles
And coin'd new words that pose me to interpret.
No sooner had he enter'd on his office,

Than

The Observer.

Than, eyeing me from head to foot, he cries—
How many mortals hast thou bid to supper!
Mortals! quoth I, what tell you me of mortals?
Let Jove decide on their mortality;
You're crazy sure; none by that name are bidden.
No table-usher? no one to officiate
As master of the courses?—No such person;
Moschion and Niceratus and Philinus,
These are my guests and friends, and amongst these
You'll find no table-decker as I take it.

Gods! is it possible? cried he: most certain
I patiently replied; he swell'd and huff'd,
As if forsooth I had done him heinous wrong,
And robb'd him of his proper dignity;
Ridiculous conceit!—What offering mak'st thou
To Erichthon? he demanded: none—
Shall not the wide-horn'd ox be sell'd? cries he;
I sacrifice no ox—nor yet a wether?
Not I, by Jove; a simple sheep perhaps:
And what's a wether but a sheep? cries he.
I'm a plain man, my friend, and therefore speak
Plain language:—What! I speak as Homer does;
And sure a cook may use like privilege
And more than a blind poet—not with me;
I'll have no kitchen-Homers in my house;
So pray discharge yourself!—this said, we parted.'

We shall transcribe but one short passage more, which we think carries its own apology with it. It is a description of the manner of Demosthenes, from Timocles.

' Bid me say any thing rather than this;
But on this theme Demosthenes himself
Shall sooner check the torrent of his speech
Than I—Demosthenes! that angry orator,
That bold Briareus, whose tremendous throat,
Charg'd to the teeth with battering-rams and spears,
Beats down opposers; brief in speech was he,
But, crost in argument, his threat'ning eyes
Flash'd fire, whilst thunder vollied from his lips.'

There is a discovery of some curiosity in this volume, which will probably be new to many of our readers, that Ben Jonson, in one of his love-songs, which is full of forced conceits, was entirely indebted to the sophist Philostratus. The song is the ninth in the collection, styl'd the Forest, and will be readily recollected from the first line,

' Drink to me only with thine eyes.'

The literal translation from Philostratus's third letter is—
' Drink to me with thine eyes only; or, if thou wilt, putting the cup to thy lips, fill it with kisses, and so bestow it on me.'

In

In many respects he is very complaisant to Ben Jonson; he examines the *Fox* with critical accuracy, traces its author often in classic ground, and, after noticing its principal imperfections, concludes that, critically speaking, the *Fox* is nearest to perfection of any one drama, comic or tragic, which the English stage is at this day in possession of. Perhaps the classical dust, which so plentifully covers this antiquated play, may have blinded Mr. Cumberland a little: we must, indeed, own, that no play of Jonson shows a stronger and more vigorous conception, more happy contrivances, and bolder as well as more characteristic language; but it cannot be concealed that, in the characters as well as the language, he was little more than a copyist. The *Hæredipeta* was almost new to the English stage; and he gave the Parasites English words: to make the person they flattered over-reach them, was not a novelty either in Greece or Rome.

The supposed Grecian manuscript, which gives an account of ancient paintings, but which is designed to describe Mr. Boydell's design of illustrating Shakspeare, is well conducted; and the similarity of some of Shakspeare's situations to those which may have occurred in the lost plays of Sophocles and Euripides, displays much imagination and knowledge. Mr. Cumberland, we may suppose, did not design to deceive: he has left the secret too much disclosed for that purpose, and that Number will not long deceive any reader of Shakspeare. It would have succeeded better if he had not mentioned the *Areopagus*.—On the whole, we shall not regret to find this volume succeeded by more of the same kind. We would, however, recommend, at the conclusion of the work (longe absit) that a copious index be added: particular facts of importance are scattered with so much uncertainty, that the utility of these volumes will be greatly lessened if this appendage be neglected.

Idées sur la Météorologie par I. A. De Luc. Continued from p. 135.

IN our Review of the first part of this work we mentioned the author's opinion, that all bodies of the class of vapours consisted of a lighter yielding matter, and a heavy one, dissolved in, or intimately combined with it. Fire, which he considers as a vapour, has light for its yielding or expansive principle, and the more solid ingredient he calls the matter of fire. This principle must be kept in view through the whole work, particularly in the third Chapter, to which we are proceeding, and which treats of the electric fluid as a vapour: the first section is on the analogies and differences

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between the electric fluid and watery vapours. This fluid, as a vapour, must consist of the two matters which distinguish other vapours, the fluide déferent, which he calls the fluide déferent électrique, and the grosser material, which he styles the electric matter. This description at first puzzled us considerably: if the former were what we have called the electrical fluid, and the latter the electric body, we could see some foundation for the explanation; but if it were so, the analogies would be often fanciful, and generally inaccurate. If it were not, our author seemed to have divided a fluid, which appears simple, into two imaginary ingredients, to reduce it under a class whose foundation, with respect to its composition, is itself imaginary. It is necessary, however, to pursue M. de Luc, in his explanation of electrical appearances; and we must also adopt his language.

The difference between conductors and non-conductors, he observes, is this: in the former, the electric fluid plays on the surface, while it is absorbed in the substance of the latter. Excitement consists only in the agitation of the electric fluid, and one body, by accident, catches more of it than another. In reality it is only visible when taken from the substance of the one, and scattered over the surface of the other: its escape from the latter is influenced by various circumstances, which we cannot enumerate. The phenomenon of the magic plate is explained by an experiment, which applies but imperfectly to it. If a plate of glass be moistened with water, and to one side some water in a state of vapour be added, the vapour will be decomposed, the newly-formed water will be added to what was there before, and the heat penetrating through the glass, will reduce the water on the other side to a state of vapour: of course the opposite sides will be in different states, the first will be warmed by the escape of the latent heat, and the other will be cooled by the evaporation; but, as the heat on one side contributes to the changes on the other, they will by degrees come to an equilibrium. The same events take place in charging the magical plate of glass; if, for the vapour, we substitute the electrical fluid, and for the heat, its yielding ingredient. The same explanation is also adapted to the Leyden vial; but the whole is incumbered with many difficulties; and must be admitted with great caution, even if the composition of the electrical fluid should be allowed, or if it shall hereafter be proved.

In the same way, though scarcely more satisfactorily, are explained the phenomena of M. Volta's electrophorus, of which the construction we must suppose well known. When the waxen side is rubbed, negative electricity is produced. — The place of the

the electrical fluid is, however, supplied by the yielding fluid on the other side, which leaves the heavier part less capable of resisting the electricity of the earth; so that some portion of electrical fluid is supplied from that source. These opposite changes are bounded by the limits of the negative electricity; and these different states are permanent, because the side which is rubbed receives with difficulty the quantity of fluid which it had lost, and because the expansion which the electrical fluid on the under side receives, by the increased quantity of yielding fluid, prevents any alteration. The particular circumstances of the experiment are detailed and explained, in a manner equally hypothetical. The condenser of electricity, is, in our author's opinion, an instrument, whose nature is very different from that of the electrophorus: its object, as we have already observed, is to make small quantities of electricity sensible. Our author describes M. Volta's instrument, which is generally known, and explains it particularly, but in a manner that we cannot abridge.

The next section is on electric influences, and relates to difference of opinion, between lord Stanhope and M. Volta. The fact occurs in lord Stanhope's Treatise on Electricity. If to the prime conductor of an electrical machine, another long insulated conductor be presented, and placed on the same line with it, during the time of its influence, the extremity of the second conductor nearest to the first, is in a negative state; the most distant extremity is positive; and there is an intermediate portion, where the state of the conductor is unaltered. M. de Luc thinks the different opinions on this subject may be reconciled by supposing these two philosophers to consider it in different lights. Lord Stanhope speaks of the density of the electric fluid, which of course is less on the negative than the positive sides, while M. Volta considers only its expansive force, which remains unchanged. The experiments which relate to this subject, and which we cannot transcribe, fill the remainder of this section; and they seem to show pretty clearly, that the changes in the density are not attended with proportional changes, in the expansive force, during the action of the influences. It may be, however, proper to observe, that our author points out the analogy between different vapours, in their action on the instruments designed to measure their degrees. Thus, while the electrometer is rather the measure of the expansive force than of the density of the electrical fluid, the thermometer, he has endeavoured to show, is the same of heat, and the manometer with respect to watery vapours. But, since the theory of these fluids is on so uncertain a footing, we cannot depend much on this analogy.

The seventh section is on electrical motions; and as the terms attraction and repulsion have been considered not as facts, but as implying the cause of the facts, M. de Luc employs the terms of tendency to approach or separate. The first law of electrical motion, which our author considers as a fundamental one, is, that when bodies at liberty are electrified they move only in proportion to the quantity of electrical matter, that is, in the ratio of the densities of the electrical fluid, and not of the degrees of its expansive force. The yielding fluid, though it influences the distribution of the heavier fluid, yet passes too freely through bodies to affect their motion. From this source M. de Luc proceeds to explain the particular motions, and to apply what is established by experiment to this general law. From numerous experiments he thinks he has reason to conclude, that the motions depend really on the quantity of the electric fluid, and not on the yielding fluid. In this enquiry, though the experiments are curious, and in some respects useful, he seems not to have advanced one step. His hypothetical yielding fluid has no share in electrical motions; so that it is like a man of straw brought in only to be destroyed. He next proceeds to explain how the air contributes to determine the laws observed in this respect in sensible bodies. The general law is found to be the following: when the air which surrounds a body at liberty more nearly agrees, in its electric state, with one of the sides of this body than with the other, the body moves to that air which differs in the greatest degree from it. M. de Luc employs large bodies in these experiments, in preference to small ones, and discovers their state of electricity by the application of electrometers. He next proceeds to describe this instrument, so often mentioned, and so generally employed. After a pretty long enquiry what an electrometer ought to be, and which our author designed that his should be, he describes it with a minute accuracy. Indeed there are not only electrometers for great degrees of electricity, but for small ones, in our author's words megameters and micrometers, since, in various views, the instrument which can measure small degrees of electricity would be a very inadequate standard for the greater accumulations. The best construction of a megameter is not very clearly ascertained; but when properly made, one very important use of the instrument is pointed out, viz. to ascertain the necessary proportion between the size of the prime conductor, and the power of the machine; for when the former is too small, the electric fluid escapes by starts, and gives sudden vibrations to the electrometer. There is a very obvious distinction in the use of these instruments, between the size and length of the spark, and the quan-

quantity of electricity, since much depends on the situation of the conductors, and the manner in which the sparks are drawn ; but we cannot enlarge on this subject without describing M. de Luc's instrument, which is constructed with much accuracy and ingenuity ; and this is out of our power, as the description depends entirely on the plate. The descriptions also of some other electrical apparatus, which should with more propriety have been placed in the former part of the work, are equally incapable of illustration without the engravings.

M. de Luc dwells, with melancholy reflections, on the great defects in this science, the abilities requisite to supply them, and the little prospect which, from his declining years, he possesses of being able to pursue experimental philosophy to any great extent. He tells us, however, and we hear it with pleasure, that he does not mean to leave the subject. He has left us a plan of his electrical projects, which show the extent of his knowledge, and the justness of many of his views ; yet we know not that we could give an adequate idea of them in our present limits ; and those who would wish to follow this path, would undoubtedly prefer the original information : to others, they can be only interesting when the events are known.

The electrical figures of professor Lichtenberg are not well known, though they were described, we believe, in the Göttingen Transactions in 1779 : if a non-conducting substance is covered with powdered resin, shaken through a cloth, and then electrified, it is scattered in regular figures, and assumes the form of stars of concentric circles, &c. The parts of the surface which the resin has left seem to be in a negative state, and the other parts where it is accumulated in a positive one. If one part of the non-conducting substance be electrified, the figures are more determinate, and different in the two kinds of electricity. The dust becomes negative by the friction through the meshes of the cloth. But it appears, on farther enquiry, that it is not only necessary for the uncovered part to be in a negative state, but that this state must not be too much affected by the opposite side ; since in glass, the plate generally used, the two surfaces are so near that they influence each other, and, instead of the state of one surface, the sum and difference of the states of both surfaces should be enquired into. M. de Luc explains the particular figures, from these principles, and finds in the variety of forms, which the powder assumes, some support of his former doctrines : indeed these figures seem to show pretty clearly, that in non-conducting bodies the electrical fluid is adherent, and sometimes obstinately retained. These experiments also contribute to

prove that the passage of the electrical fluid is by starts and intermissions.

In the 13th section, on the various conducting powers of different vacua, our author observes that the electric fluid does not exist in space not occupied by other bodies, but is rather an appendage to different bodies, of at least no greater subtilty than the various aerial fluids; nor is it ever in a separate state, but in its passage from one body to another. A perfect vacuum, he thinks, is a non-conductor; and he offers various reasons, in our opinion convincing ones, to show that the apparent conducting power depends on the watery vapour, which in many vacua takes the place of air: in the most perfect Torricellian vacuum, made by boiling the mercury in the tube, there is no conducting power. He explains more particularly the experiment on this subject, mentioned by Dr. Priestley, in his first volume of Experiments on Air, part second, and shows that the luminous appearance which Dr. Priestley does not particularly mention, arises from the glass, which, in some peculiar circumstances, permits the electric fluid to pass along its surface.

In the Section on the decomposition of the electric fluid we expected some account of the fluide déferent; but we were disappointed. M. de Luc considers the electric fluid as decomposed in passing from one body to another, and that its light escapes. But the nature of light is uncertain: there is great reason to think that it is only a peculiar modification of the matter of fire, for light gives phlogiston, and phlogistic properties may be taken away, by keeping the substance in a dark place; but independent of any disputed hypothesis, the light which escapes on the passage of the electrical matter from one body to another, cannot arise from a decomposition of this matter, because the body of a non-conducting one is electrified; and from that newly-electrified body all the phenomena of electricity may be produced. In reality, light seems an accessory principle to the electric fluid, either arising from the friction by which it is excited, or by that which is occasioned by its rapid progress. It is a principle of the fluid while in action; but seemingly in that state only. Our author's hint, that the fluide déferent may be the matter of heat united to light, must, therefore, fall to the ground. From the experiments now carrying on by the Royal Society, in order to form the nitrous acid from electricity, we may expect some information of the real constitution of this fluid.

The last chapter contains general considerations on the expandible fluids, which may be arranged among the vapours. These reflections are very judicious. As we see heat only in its
free

free state, and find that it produces great effects when latent only, and an ingredient in the composition of bodies, we may expect that many changes, many phenomena, may arise from a similar alteration in the state of the electrical fluid. These undoubtedly it should be our business to study. M. de Luc adds some just remarks against too great fondness for analogy, which may be applied to himself and his own work. They are designed to oppose some of the fancied analogies between electricity and magnetism.

The Appendix relates first to M. Saussure, and to his last volume of *Journeys on the Alps*. The reflections are interesting; but they cannot form the subject of our present enquiry. To M. Trembley's criticisms, whose memoir on the method of determining the heights of mountains by means of the barometer, is subjoined to M. Saussure's work, our author gives some answer; but on this dispute it is unnecessary to enlarge. Another subject of the Appendix is an answer to some objections of his friends, and observations on one of the experiments of M. Saussure. In answer to these objections, Dr. Black's claim to the discovery of latent heat is completely ascertained. The last part of the Appendix relates to Dr. Crawford, whose Letters are here printed, and contain one of his later experiments; but as his new edition is now in our hands, we shall examine it with care.

As we have told M. de Luc our opinion very freely, we shall not add any thing by way of a general character. He is a sagacious and enterprising philosopher; and his success has been hitherto considerable. His present work deserves much attention, though the manner is unpleasing, and his style often too diffuse.—His second volume, which is published, we mean to take up very soon.

A Voyage to the River Sierra-Leone, on the Coast of Africa.
By John Matthews, Lieutenant in the Royal Navy. 8vo.
4s. in Boards. White and Son.

THE author of these Letters sets out with a description of the sea-coast of Africa, from the river Rionoonas, the northern boundary, to cape St. Anne, on the south side of the bay of Sherbro; an extent of sixty-five leagues, stretching nearly north and south, and indented with many rivers and creeks. The sea-coast, except the peninsula of Sierra Leone, which is very high and mountainous, is generally a low swamp, covered with lofty straight mangroves. Towards the habitable and cultivated parts, the country is a boggy plain, covered with a thin sward, on which grow a few straggling stunted trees of the ebony kind, without any sort

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of underwood. These plains are overflowed by the sea twice a year, at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and deposit a mud from which the natives extract salt by a simple process.

The palm tree, which furnishes the natives with both wine and oil, flourishes in great plenty and perfection. The woods and mountains, as well as the Savannahs, are well stored with wild beasts and game. There are likewise elephants, buffaloes, wild hogs amazingly fierce and large, deer of various kinds, with musk cats, and a great variety of other animals, which the natives use for food; and monkeys of so many species that it would require a volume to describe them.

After giving an account of the natural history of the country, Mr. Matthews proceeds to relate such particulars as he has been able to collect, of the religion, laws, government, and wars of the natives, with their customs and ceremonies. We are told that it is hardly possible for an European to form an adequate idea of the religion of the pagan inhabitants of this country; for they have no order of priests, nor any fixed object of adoration which might be termed a national worship. Every man fashions his own divinities according to his fancy; and the imagination can scarcely conceive what uncouth and ridiculous figures they adore.

They profess to believe in a God, who they say dwells above them, and made and governs all things; but they have no idea of returning him thanks for a benefit; or by submission and prayer, of endeavouring to deprecate his wrath. They make offerings indeed to their devils and genii, who they suppose are the executive ministers of the Deity. They have likewise images of wood from eight to twelve inches long, painted black, which are their lares, or household Gods; but they seem to pay very little attention to any of them, except when they think they stand in need of their assistance.

The Mandingoes, who profess the Mahometan religion, are in outward appearance strict followers of the precepts of the Coran, which was introduced among them by the Arabs of Foplahs. Many of the Arab priests or faquirs travel not only across the country from the banks of the Nile, but likewise from Morocco to Abyssinia, and are every where supported by the charity of the nations through which they pass. These travelling mendicants never eat or sleep in a house during their peregrination.

Their government and laws appear to have been originally of the patriarchal kind; but at present the prevailing form in these parts of Africa is a kind of mixed monarchy, elective, and extremely limited. The ensigns of authority of the kings of Sherbro are an elephant's tail carried before them;

or

or if it be sent by a messenger, it has the same obedience paid to it as to the sign-manual.—Our author appears to be well-informed, and many parts of the narrative are interesting; but for a detail of them, we must necessarily refer our readers to the work, as our attention is required to a variety of publications, of more immediate importance.

The African slave-trade forms a part of the subject of Mr. Matthews's observations. According to the best information he has been able to procure, great numbers of the slaves are prisoners taken in war; but many are sold for witchcraft, and other real or imputed crimes. Death and slavery, we are told, are in this country the punishments for almost every offence. The abolition of slavery being at present a topic much agitated, we shall extract a few of this author's observations on the subject.

'The nations who inhabit the interior parts of Africa, east of Sierra-Leone, profess the Mahometan religion; and, following the means prescribed by their prophet, are perpetually at war with the surrounding nations who refuse to embrace their religious doctrines (and I have before shewn the zeal with which the Mandingoes inculcate their faith.)

'The prisoners made in these religious wars furnish a great part of the slaves which are sold to the Europeans; and would, I have reason to believe, from the concurring testimony of many of the most intelligent natives, be put to death if they had not the means of disposing of them.

'That death would be the fate of their prisoners, the example of the inhabitants of Madagascar, is sufficient proof; for since the Portuguese have declined dealing with them they put all their prisoners to death.

'It is also given as a reason for the abolishing this traffic; that the distinctions of crimes are multiplied, and every transgression punished with slavery, in consequence of their intercourse with Europeans.

'Upon this head I shall observe, that the crimes of murder, poison, witchcraft, adultery, and theft, are always considered as capital, and have been punished with either death or slavery from time immemorial.

'That the punishment of death, for the commission of these crimes, is remitted by their becoming slaves, I believe, in many instances, to be the case; yet, surely no one would adduce this circumstance as a proof of its inhumanity. Lesser offences, whether they respect the religious ceremonies, or particular customs of the country, are punished by fine; which, if the defendant is not able to pay, he becomes the slave of the plaintiff till redeemed; nor can he be redeemed without the prosecutor's consent.'

Mr,

Mr. Matthews concludes with some observations on the impolicy of abolishing the slave-trade, and contends that the abolition of the practice would add nothing to the happiness of the natives of Africa.

Sketches of Society and Manners in Portugal. In a Series of Letters from Arthur William Costigan, Esq. late a Captain of the Irish Brigade in the Service of Spain, to his Brother in London. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Vernor.

A View of society and manners in a foreign country, not generally well known, is always an interesting subject; and we, therefore, sat down with much expectation to the perusal of the work now before us. We soon perceived that Mr. Costigan was a man of sense, that he was acquainted with the world, and had all the qualifications of an agreeable companion; so that if his travels should not afford us such pleasure as we had anticipated, we were inclined to ascribe the defect rather to the barrenness of the subject than to any particular fault in the author. After reading the whole of the two volumes, we are confirmed in the favourable opinion which we originally formed of Mr. Costigan, with respect to his capacity both for observation and sentiment. Yet, with every disposition to be pleased, we cannot say that we really have received any great degree of gratification from these Letters. One principal cause of this disappointment seems to be, that the author performs his tour in Portugal in company with some British subjects; the history of whom, with the characters of some other persons, either of Britain or Ireland, constitutes the most conspicuous part of the narrative. We shall proceed, however, to trace the traveller's progress through the scenes which appear the most remarkable.

At Evora, the Liberalitas Julia of the Romans, the travellers visit the Carthusian convent, called Scala Coeli, or the Ladder of Heaven, to which they were conducted by Dr. Butler, an Irishman, who had been thirty years president of the Irish college in that city. Of the ignorance of the recluses of St. Bruno, near this town, we meet with a remarkable instance in the reverend librarian, who believed that a copy of Homer's *Iliad* was an old Hebrew or Arabic book.

At Elvas the travellers are invited to dine with the governor, to whom they brought letters of recommendation. As this incident affords an opportunity of presenting our readers with an account of a Portuguese entertainment, we shall readily embrace it.

The conversation was now carried on entirely in French, in which Lord Freeman and myself were as ready as in our own language:

language: our young priest understands it also very well, but from want of practice, was not so ready in speaking it, and was therefore greatly pleased with the opportunity of improving in his pronunciation, as he quickly did, and was much encouraged by the familiarity and wonderful openness of Valéré's manner, which perfectly delighted us all; for he talked away at a great rate on a variety of topics, told us of his intrigues when a volatile young fellow, of his fighting, of his drinking and rioting: In the mean time a message came from the governor, desiring the favour of the major-general's company to dine with him (for Valéré has that rank in the service), on which he started up and exclaimed,—*A ça, Messieurs; il est temps de nous peigner, call your servants and dress quickly, Allons; for we shall have another message from old square-toes, calling us to dinner, before we are ready.*

‘We arrived however in time, and dinner was then serving up; the governor's lady was the only woman at table, and had much more the appearance of his grand-daughter, than of his wife; she was wrapped up in her long baize cloak, but her hair was done up prettily with flowers and topaz combs, and a few diamond sprigs, without any cap; the governor was also in his cloak, and there had been some fresh powder thrown upon his antient wire wig, since the morning: he took his place on the lady's right-hand, desiring Valéré to sit on her left; lord Freeman sat next Valéré, and a prodigious fat man, in an officer's uniform, with the cross of Malta at his breast, sat next the governor; his name was Don João, and the company gave him the title of excellency: he did not say a word the whole time of dinner, but he ate and drank very successfully and with great apparent satisfaction, and laughed immoderately, when the governor or lady happened to say what they wished to be taken for a witty thing, his eyes quite disappearing on such occasions, and his prominent belly heaving and being affected with strong convulsive motions. The rest of the company, which was numerous, took their places according to their ranks; the carving knight at the lower end of the table, served the company round, who were stiff and ceremonious, neither was the aid of the cheering glass called in, to exhilarate the guests; but it seemed as if the water, of which they took deep draughts, produced the same effect: his excellency Don John, in particular, swilled down a three-pint tumbler, brimful of the crystal liquor, at a draught, and made lord Freeman stare. At last, the governor called for a wine-glass, into which was poured about a thimbleful of that liquor, and he drank to our healths; we took the opportunity, as well as Valéré, to return the compliment, but had our glasses better filled, and this we repeated twice more to the healths of the lady and of Don John. One of the priests, who seemed to be a wag, called for wine repeatedly, on which the lady began to rally him, and told him, he drank like a *mauregato* or an Englishman; here the

the governor calling for another drop of wine, drank to the king of England's health, putting the glass to his lips, but did not taste the liquor either time; the priest drank again, and talked, and it soon appeared he was the established wit of the company; the lady simpered, and Don John continued to laugh, as the French stile it, *à gorge déployée*, or with all his might.

Such are the entertainments among the people of fashion in Portugal. In respect of the peasants, the only foreign luxury they are yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when their purse can reach it, they purchase a dried Newfoundland cod-fish; but this, we are told, is a delicacy which they can seldom aspire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a salted pilchard, or a head of garlick, to give that bread a flavour, compose their standing dish; and if they can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf which they themselves fatten, to regale their wretched family at Christmas or Easter, it is the utmost of their happiness, in regard to the article of diet.

Our author gives a very unfavourable account of the juridical dispensation at Porto, which is the seat of the tribunal of the high court of justice for the city, and all the northern provinces of the kingdom. There is no such thing as a jail-delivery at this place; but, in almost all suits and litigations, sentences are obtained in favour of that party which can muster the most powerful *empenhos*, or bribes; preserving only the exterior forms and appearance of justice. In criminal processes, when the fact is ascertained, the sentence is seldom or never put in execution. Even when capitally convicted, the prisoner may, by a repetition of the *empenho*, procure an eternal prorogation of the execution of the sentence.

We shall next entertain our readers with a description of his Portuguese majesty, in the year 1779, and that of two of his ministers, as drawn by the traveller, who had seen the court at a baptism in the chapel royal.

‘Soon after we had taken our posts, the royal family appeared in their balcony, nearly opposite to where we were. The queen is a decent, fresh-looking woman; but as for king Peter, our tawny king of Spain, with his monstrous nose, is quite an Adonis, when compared to him: he has very hard features, joined to a foolish look, and wears a very ill-combed wig, generally to one side; and though he never tastes wine, yet, to my mind, he has altogether very much the appearance of a stupid old guzzling Englishman, about two-thirds drunk. High mass struck up as soon as the queen appeared, with a sermon suited to the occasion; and as the whole performance took up a good deal of time, we had sufficient opportunities of conversing, and making our observations.’

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‘The fat purfy Jewish-looking man you see the other paying so much court to, is the premier of the day, M——s of A—g—a, without whom nothing is done. He is inspector of the royal treasury, and holds the purse-strings, director of the dock-yards and of the marine, and has been all along the great confident of king Peter, when he was the infant Don Pedro. This circumstance, together with that of his being the avowed antagonist of the late minister, was the means of advancing him to his present employments. His principal merit consists in an inexhaustible fund of address, low cunning, and dissimulation; neither his talents nor integrity are once to be put in comparison with those of his predecessor, nor has he the smallest share of his firmness and resolution. His whole business seems to be temporising, which, joined to his natural cunning, may be sufficient to answer all the limited political views of this petty kingdom, which are only confined to self-preservation. However, the late peace he made with Spain, would any where else be reckoned infamous; but as the nation has no share in the government, they care nothing about it, provided they are allowed to trudge on in their old way. In regard to money matters, he is as great a scrub as any in the nation, which may be one good reason for his being put at the head of the treasury, where he starves every thing and every body, but himself and family; for as he was before exceedingly poor, he may now be truly said to make his *choux gras*; and indeed in this, his predecessor in office set him but too glaring an example.

‘I have observed (said Freeman) a thinner-looking man in the middle, with a small book in his hands, extremely intent upon the service, with his eyes rivetted on the altar and celebrating priests, and who seems to be perfectly serious in his devotions. That person (said the doctor) is he whom our envoy transacts most of his business with; he is secretary of war, and of the despatch of affairs with the foreign ministers; his name is Ay—s de S——â, a good-natured, easy, simple man, the symbol of indolence, and blind attachment to all the superstition of religion, which is indeed the whole of religion in this country. He thinks he is seriously doing something when he hears mass, and blesses himself a hundred times, with the little book of the office, which he devoutly carries with him every where, carefully preserved in a neat pocket-case. Although secretary of the war department, nobody who knows him, does him the injustice to suppose he is better acquainted with the art of war, and the direction of an army, than with any thing else, except saying his prayers, accompanying the sacrament, kissing the sleeve or scapulary of every dirty friar he meets, and having a particular concern for, and care of the private interests of poor little self.’

The political state of Portugal, according to Mr. Coffigan, is at present extremely low. He thinks, and certainly with justice,

justice, that the kingdom is more indebted for its security from Spain, to the jealousy of other European powers, than to any strength of its own; and he seems of opinion, it would be for the general advantage of the country, that it were actually annexed to the Spanish crown.

Though we have not the smallest doubt that the narrative in these Letters is perfectly genuine, and there is nothing in the whole that appears in any degree romantic, yet it is conducted more in the manner of a novel than any book of travels which we remember to have hitherto perused. The histories of lord Freeman and Donna Lucretia, with those of colonel Priquet and miss Welding; are copiously interspersed in this epistolary correspondence; and it concludes almost immediately with the marriage of those worthy parties.

We heartily wish Mr. Costigan much happiness in his native country, Ireland, to which, after an absence of many years, it seems, he is at length retiring. His twentieth letter has not escaped our observation: 'mais certainement nous donnerons un decret.' We have accordingly given our opinion; but we hope with more impartiality than either Fanchon or Dr. Tamponet.

Elements of Algebra. To which is prefixed, A choice Collection of Arithmetical Questions; with their Solutions. By J. Mole. 8vo. 6s. Robinsons.

ALGEBRA is one of those sciences whose extension and improvement are boundless. A new treatise on this science might be considered as superfluous, were not its excellence and extensive utility so well known. As the improvement of knowledge is gradual, and arises from repeated accumulations, the most trivial means which may contribute to so desirable an end, ought not to be rejected; and the writer who thinks his observations on any science capable of extending its bounds, or of removing the obstacles which may have retarded the progress of learners, in tracks already explored, is justified in communicating them to the public.

The author of this new treatise professes that it is designed merely as an introduction to the science, and to render it attainable without the assistance of a preceptor; an end it is well adapted to answer, and to be an useful assistant in schools: that the elegance of brevity has, therefore, commonly been made to give place to perspicuity; and that a care to be understood has ever been the first in view.— Though it be confessed that several good works have been published professedly on the same plan, it must also be acknowledged that many things still remain, in the writings of the higher class of authors, which often retard the success of
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of unassisted endeavours: and there may perhaps be a necessity of presenting truth in various lights, adapted to the perceptions of different capacities.

The author does not profess to deliver, in this small compass, all that is to be found in the diffuse works of more voluminous writers: it appears, however, to us, that it contains the most essential principles of the science, and that it is as comprehensive as its plan and limits would permit. Neither does he aim at gaining a reputation for profoundness, by leaving a great deal to be guessed at by the reader, as is often the case, to his great mortification.

The volume commences with a select collection of arithmetical questions, or such as relate to, and are resolved by numbers only; by way of introduction and preparation for the science of algebra itself; the solutions to which questions are sometimes accompanied with explanatory notes, to excite and encourage young arithmeticians. The algebra then begins with notation, and is continued gradually and orderly on through addition, subtraction, &c. &c. to the resolution of simple and quadratic equations; and all these rules illustrated by many problems and examples of calculation, applied and resolved in a neat and instructive way.

Among the problems which produce quadratic equations, arise many which are really biquadratics; but by a peculiar combination of several terms together, they are resolved by quadratics only.

Next succeed the resolution of cubic and biquadratic equations, in a very full and explicit manner. To the general solution of the cubic equations some remarks are added, to show how and when a cubic equation can be resolved by completing the cube, in imitation of the resolution of quadratics by completing the square.

The biquadratics are also fully and ably treated, and resolved by methods that are easy and new, or uncommon. This resolution is sometimes effected by means of cubics, sometimes by means of quadratics only, and sometimes by completing the imperfect biquadratic: and ample directions are given to know when a biquadratic can be so completed, and when resolved by quadratics; with instructions how best to perform these operations.

Having exhausted all the particular modes of treating affected equations of different degrees, the author then proceeds to the more general ones of converging series, or logarithms, &c. by which all the higher sorts of equations are resolved, whether they be reduced to simple terms, or involved in intricate and complex surds, or exponential or logarithmic expressions.

pressions. And among these are contained several new rules or improvements; particularly, in exponentials, where the given numbers are too large for the extent of the logarithmic tables; and by introducing a method of substituting for the variable exponents, by which the roots of two or more equations, containing as many unknown quantities, may be determined to any assigned degree of accuracy.

We observe throughout this work a remarkable neatness and distinctness, which must render the perusal easy and satisfactory. The demonstration of the rules of multiplication are uncommonly so, respecting the signs *plus* and *minus*. In short, the principles are laid down in the clearest manner, and exercised in the solution of a great variety of problems; many of which are new, and well adapted, both from their nature and the manner of solution, to improve and amuse the reader. In the others, which have been published before, the operations are more easy to trace, as they are resolved by extremely simple equations.

The Pharos. A Collection of Periodical Essays. By the Author of Constance. 2 vols. 12mo. 6s. Hookham.

THIS collection of papers deserves our commendation. The author does not engage in abstruse discussions, or soar on the wings of fancy. Without the charms of pointed wit, or the attractions of learning, her light-house (for that is the meaning of *Pharos*) illuminates various subjects which relate to life and manners; to decorum, and the different branches of the (*petits moraux*) minute morality. Her language is in general neat and correct; her opinions just; and her little histories told advantageously. These volumes may be ranked near the *Idler*, though perhaps the literary pride of 'creation's lords,' would not suffer the humble *Constance* to stand by the Giant *Johnson*. She is inferior to the *Idler*, in pointed disquisition and strength of mind: she is superior in taste and in delicacy; in her knowledge of polite manners, and the minuter avenues of the human heart.

We shall first transcribe our fair author's remarks on Solitude.

'Solitude is, by many persons, considered as tinged with the dark shadows of sickness.—I had rather be ill than alone, is a trite sentiment; and indeed to those who have assiduously shunned it, its approach must be a disease, but this is our own fault. It is in the power of every body, blessed with the common comforts of life, to be as happy when left to the company of their own hearts, as when surrounded by all their friends and acquaintance; and if we have any faith in the dictum of the learned and sagacious sir Thomas Browne, who says, "He who must needs have company, must have sometimes had company."

pany"—we shall be inclined to think solitude occasionally necessary to our peace and enjoyment.

'I own my opinion and my doctrine antiquated: when I look round the microcosm of our metropolis, I am almost a convert to the general opinion, that solitude is a grievance insupportable. To human nature, in its simple state, it can present nothing displeasing, but to the children of this generation it must, on more accounts than I chuse to name, be a most hideous monster.—With the same spirit that actuated Marc Antony against Cicero, it is proscribed, it is hunted, but where shall an Herennius be found to give it the fatal blow. The decapitation of Cicero satisfied the revenge of his opponents, and relieved their fears of his return; but this enemy can never be crushed: it is a Hydra; every head leaves its substitutes and avengers.

'As then this unwelcome guest must be a guest, it is our policy to render her propitious towards us. Let us receive her with smiles, and she will smile on us; and, for the respect we shew her by preparing for her reception, she will abundantly reward us. There is but one method of doing this or of supporting the additional languor of ill health, and that is by convincing ourselves of the utility of early mental cultivation, and acting consistently with this conviction. In solitude it will dispose us to seek amusement amongst the lettered dead, and to furnish our minds with useful knowledge; it will be the means of accumulating a fund of delight which nothing can diminish; it will make our own ideas always new company to us, and diffuse over our tempers that complacency which is equally necessary to our enjoying, in their full force, the salutary blessing of solitude, or the attractive charms of society.'

Let us take one short specimen more, which relates to a mode of conduct often disgusting, and seldom successful. It contains the concluding reflections of a fashionable beauty, doomed, as such beauties often are, to celibacy.

'A friend of mine once asked a lady, whose good fortune in disposing of her daughters has been eminent to a degree of wonder, how she *contrived* to marry them so well—to which she replied—By not contriving at all about it—and, indeed, I believe her success was promoted by this absence of anxiety. She made her daughters desirable companions, and she trusted to Providence for the event; but where the conduct of a parent manifests extreme solicitude on this head, it excites the contempt of the libertine, and puts sober men on their guard. As there are few cases where wedlock is absolutely necessary to the comfort of a *virtuous* daughter, it certainly must raise unfavourable suspicions when a father is by implication offering her to every man he sees. I protest I should suppose either that the lady's reputation needed a *salvo*, or that the old gentleman feared a gazetting.'

VOL. LXV. May, 1788.

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We cannot conclude, without expressing our satisfaction with the entertainment which we have received from these papers. There is a simplicity in the remarks, which is very attractive; there is a naïveté in the narratives, that gives them the semblance of reality. The digressive story-teller has never been more happily delineated. In a few instances, however, the language is incorrect; and the metaphors injudicious, not justly conducted, or properly applied. But the instances are few, and diminish very little the reader's pleasure.

A Comparative Statement of the two Bills for the better Government of the British Possessions in India, brought into Parliament by Mr. Fox and Mr. Pitt. With explanatory Observations. By R. B. Sheridan, Esq. The second Edition. 4to. 1s. Debrett.

FOR upwards of four years these two celebrated bills have been the Shiboleth of parties in this country. They contain, respectively, those important principles of Indian government which occasioned the sudden fall of the last administration, and procured to the present that general confidence of the people with which it seems to be still distinguished. In examining a controversy so much warped with political prejudices, we shall exhibit the arguments advanced on each side of the question, and give our opinion as the force of abstract and unbiassed reason shall appear to us to determine.

Mr. Sheridan introduces the Comparative Statement with a letter to a gentleman in Staffordshire; but as this contains nothing else than indirect encomiums, of no importance to the subsequent comparison, we shall proceed to the statement, where the first paragraph that demands any particular attention, is the following:

‘ Mr. Fox’s bill established no fourth estate, nor gave any one power to the directors therein named, which did not before exist in the company; but, on the contrary, did limit and restrain the said directors, so appointed by parliament, in various particulars in which the company’s directors were not before restrained.

‘ Mr. Fox’s bill, so far from placing the directors, named by parliament, above the executive government of the country,

‘ Mr. Pitt’s bill *has* established a fourth, or new estate, or department of government, with powers infinitely exceeding those possessed by the court of directors or court of proprietors at the time when the said board of controul was established.

‘ Mr. Pitt’s bill *has expressly repealed* all the provisions in the said acts, which gave to his majesty any right, power, or

country, and out of the reach of its inspection and controul, did expressly and distinctly place them under the same obligation to communicate their transactions to his majesty's ministers for the time being, and did expressly and distinctly make them subordinate and amenable to his majesty's pleasure, and to the directions of his ministers, in the same manner, and upon the same footing, and "under the same limitations and restrictions,"

as the regulating act of 1773, and the act of 1781, and various other acts, had placed the court of directors, chosen, and appointed by the company.'

or authority, to interfere in any matter or concern of the British government in India, and has made the board of controul wholly *independent* in the exercise of their offices of *the general executive government* of the country; they being neither bound to abide by his majesty's will and pleasure, or even to communicate with his majesty upon any one measure or matter relating to India, of any sort whatever.'

That Mr. Fox's bill trenched upon the prerogative of the crown, is a charge of great weight in the general estimation of that transaction; and this important circumstance Mr. Sheridan labours with all his ingenuity to disprove, in the observations annexed to the Statement. 'If, says he, a *parliamentary* nomination of persons to be concerned in the government of India, was *an attack upon the constitution*, the constitution had sustained and survived a similar attack in the regulating act of 1773, and in the subsequent bills which repeated those *parliamentary* appointments. If the employing the patronage of the company, without the king's authority, was *an invasion of his prerogative*, it was of a prerogative never heard of; for the crown had never had the grant of a single office, civil or military, belonging to the service of the East India company.' In the former part of this extract Mr. Sheridan confounds subordinate regulations with the supreme jurisdiction of India, which have no similarity to each other. In respect of the latter clause, we agree with Mr. Sheridan, that the patronage of the East India company was no part of the royal prerogative; but it does not thence follow, that the annexing of that patronage to any delegates constituted by parliament, was not an invasion of the royal prerogative. It was, indeed, an indirect, but a most important invasion; because it transferred to particular agents, who derived their authority from parliament, a political influence, attached by the constitution to the executive power alone.

The essential difference between the two bills which form the subject of the Comparative Statement is, in our opinion, extremely obvious, and may be comprised in a single observa-

tion. By Mr. Fox's bill, a board of Indian government was created, objectionable, not to say dangerous, by its unlimited power, and totally independent of the crown; while Mr. Pitt's, on the contrary, by assigning the nomination of the commissioners, and their continuance in office, to the crown, preserved the responsibility, without virtually extending the duration of ministers, and reconciled the efficiency of Indian government with the safety of the British constitution.

The next paragraph in the comparative statement is likewise worthy of notice.

'Earl Fitzwilliam, and the other directors under Mr. Fox's bill, could neither have had transactions with any of the country powers in the East Indies, nor have directed hostilities against, nor have concluded treaties with, any state or power, but subject to the orders of his majesty; and his royal will and pleasure, signified to them by the secretary of state, they were bound by law to obey.'

'Mr. Dundas, with any two more commissioners, may transact matters of any sort with the country powers; may treat with, or ally with, or declare war against, or make peace with all or any of the powers or princes of India; may levy armies there to any extent, and command the whole revenues of all our possessions for their support, without taking his majesty's pleasure upon any of these subjects in any shape, and without acting in his name, or under his authority; and these things he may do against the will of the directors, and without the knowledge of parliament; so that in truth, *the present board of controul have, under Mr. Pitt's bill, separated and usurped those* VERY IMPERIAL PREROGATIVES FROM THE CROWN, *which were* FALSELY said to have been given to the new board of directors under Mr. Fox's bill.'

The powers which Mr. Sheridan ascribes to the Indian commissioners are such as no legislature, in the possession of its rational faculties, can ever be supposed to convey. If we rightly conceive the constitution of the Board of Controul, the members of it, should they abuse their authority, are not only liable to dismissal from office, but to an impeachment.

In the last paragraph of his Statement Mr. Sheridan affirms, that 'neither against the board of controul acting on purposes of exclusive power and ambition, nor against the crown acting in collusion with the board of controul, and covertly directing its measures, and its influence, is there any provision made for the danger which may arise to the constitution.' We are surprised to find Mr. Sheridan make any remark so inconsistent with the knowledge of the British constitution. It is a salutary maxim, and has been long established in this country, that 'the king can do no wrong.' To argue

for the contrary, therefore, is not only inadmissible, but gives too much countenance to a principal imputation, which the author seems desirous to remove; we mean, an injurious design against the royal prerogative. The same objection which Mr. Sheridan makes in this case, might be urged with equal force against all the ministers of the executive power in Great Britain. It is impossible that their conduct can be universally prescribed by positive regulations; but for every abuse of their delegated power, it is well known that they are amenable to the tribunal of their country.

Observations upon Mr. Sheridan's Pamphlet. In a Letter from Major Scott to Sir Richard Hill, Baronet. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

MAJOR Scott, after some severe animadversions on the claim of 'general principles,' which Mr. Sheridan arrogates to the party with which he acts in concert, proceeds to give a historical detail of the conduct of that party during the administration of lord North, and subsequent to that unfortunate period. This preliminary part of the pamphlet contains many facts and observations, which are placed by the author in a strong light. His account of Mr. Fox's bill is particularly concise:

'I perfectly agree with Mr. Sheridan, (says he) that Mr. Fox's bill is plain and perspicuous: an infant may understand it. I know no leading feature in the bill, except this, that all the power, all the patronage, and all the management of the East-India Company, both at home and abroad, should be taken from those who then held it, and should be transferred in trust for the proper owners, to seven directors nominated by Mr. Fox, not subject to removal at the pleasure of the king. Were we to reason for seven years upon the bill, we can make neither more nor less of it.'

In delineating the consequences of Mr. Fox's bill, major Scott appears in the character of a calculator rather than that of a political writer; but he produces such facts as *seem* to authorise his affirming that Mr. Fox must have repealed both his principal and subsidiary bills, in so far as they concerned the government of India, in six months, or India would have been the greatest clog to Great Britain that she had ever experienced. The facts upon which this conclusion is founded, being little known to the public, it may be proper to enumerate them briefly, after exhibiting the following paragraph:

'A clause in his own (Mr. Fox's) bill provided that full and complete justice should be done to every prince in India who had been injured by the East India company. Couple this clause with Mr. Burke's declarations, with an article which he

brought into the house of commons against Mr. Hastings, and it will be impossible not to allow, that the emperor Shaw Allum has a claim upon us for twenty-six lacks of Sicca rupees annually for seventeen years, and to the provinces of Corah, Currah, and Allahabad.'

According to this doctrine, major Scott observes, that the emperor is entitled to all the principal, and to interest at 10 per cent. The principal of the tribute alone, to this day, is nearly five millions sterling; and with Indian interest would now amount to fifteen millions sterling, exclusive of the provinces above mentioned, which would constitute a debt of as much more.

By another clause, all presents received for the company, and carried to their account, since the regulation act of 1773, were to be returned. These amount to 263,000 l.

By a clause which restored Cheit Sing to Benares, an additional debt was incurred. If his restoration was just, says this author, it was also an act of justice to repay him the treasures that he carried off and has expended; at least one million sterling; to repay him what was taken at Bedjyjur, 240,000 l. to give him the difference for six years between 24 and 40 lacks of rupees, above a million sterling more.

The author next observes, that, upon the same principle, we were bound in honour to repay to the Begum the fifty-five lacks which were taken from her with the consent of Mr. Hastings; and to refrain from pressing the Nabob Vizier for the balance which he then owed to us, about 75 lacks. These two sums amount to 1,400,000 l.

Major Scott affirms, that if Mr. Fox's bill had passed; if Mr. Fox was really sincere, and meant with good faith to carry the provisions of his clauses into full effect, and to adhere to the principles which he had laid down in his speeches, he must have borrowed 35,763,000 l.; since that is the exact sum due from the East India company, in Bengal only, to the princes of Indostan, or acquired by modes so strongly reprobated by Mr. Fox's bill.

Besides this enormous debt which the nation would have incurred, the author observes, that by the total prohibition of monopolies enacted by the same bills, the company would have lost a revenue of 800,000 l. a year, which to this day would be three millions sterling: that the clause which enacted that all the lands in Bengal should be managed by zemindars, was calculated to throw the whole government of the country into a confusion not to be described, and would have been attended with a loss of revenue not to be estimated; and that the clause restricting the government of Bengal from increasing their revenues, in any possible circumstances, was an imposition so absurd as perhaps was never imposed in any country upon earth. After enumerating these facts, major Scott thus

thus proceeds: 'Is it possible for me, sir Richard, to place in a stronger point of view the folly of these speculatists, than by analysing their own clauses? I have stated to you, without exaggeration, what would have been the consequences had they passed into a law.'

After having laid before our readers the most important parts of major Scott's Observations, we shall add, that he has taken a wide view of the public transactions of late years. He combats Mr. Sheridan more with facts than arguments; and is an acute and intelligent disputant on the subject of Indian politics.

Upon the whole, we may observe, that when authors, actuated by political prejudices and party-views, are opposed to each other, their writings ought to be perused with great caution. If Mr. Sheridan be considered as entertaining an interested partiality for the former administration, it ought to be remembered, that major Scott is not destitute of prepossessions, which, perhaps, neither he nor any of his friends are willing to acknowledge.

The History of the Antiquities of the Town and Church of Southwell, in the County of Nottingham. By W. Dickinson Rastall, A. M. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. in Boards. Robinsons.

IN the introduction to this work Mr. Rastall informs us, that the materials of which it consists were collected from a number of voluminous books in public libraries; and it was undertaken for the gratification of some gentlemen who had a local attachment to the town which forms the subject of the history. The work is divided into six chapters: in the first Mr. Rastall examines the *Itinerarium Antonini*. He endeavours to prove that the station there called *Ad Pontem* is the modern Southwell, and not Ponton, or Paunton, as has been thought by Camden, and other learned antiquaries. The author adduces some reasons why Newark cannot be the *Ad Pontem* of the Romans; and, in the course of the enquiry, he gives a short historical account of that town and its castle. Mr. Rastall having described the state of Southwell, during the time of the Romans, traces its existence under the government of the Saxons, by whom it was called *Tiovulfigacester*; and concerning the etymology of this name he offers some curious conjectures, supporting his opinions by the consideration of some coins found in the neighbourhood.

The next object of his researches is the church of Southwell, the foundation of which is ascribed to Paulinus, about the year 627. Concerning this edifice the author makes a variety of remarks, which will afford pleasure to the antiquary.

In the succeeding chapter the author describes minutely

the constitution of the church, the account of which will be useful to those who look for preferment at that place. In the third, he delivers a narrative of the benefactors and patrons of the church; and in the fourth, we meet with the lives of all the archbishops of York, from Paulinus the first to the present archbishop, Dr. Markham, who is the eighty-second that has held that dignity since the consecration of Paulinus in 625.

The fifth chapter contains an account of some antiquities in Southwell and its neighbourhood; these are, monuments in the church, wells, chapels, hospitals, colleges, nunneries, &c. coins; Roman, Saxon, and Danish encampments; with various other articles.

The sixth chapter is appropriated to the modern history of Southwell, which the author illustrates by different sources of information, chiefly a manuscript, the production of Mr. Savage, who had long resided at Southwell.—The concluding article of the volume contains the pedigrees of some of the principal families of Southwell and its environs.

Mr. Rastall appears to have exerted much industry in collecting the materials for this work; and, though the style of the narrative might have been rendered more polished and perspicuous, we cannot but allow him a great share of merit, for the extent of his enquiries, and the information which he has communicated. We must not omit to observe, that this history is accompanied with elegant engravings.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued, from p. 311.)

IN this department of our work we cannot direct: we must follow the steps of others; and while we confine it to subjects of science, those sciences must oftenest occur which are most successfully cultivated on the continent. This must be our apology for resuming the subject of chemistry, though it might not have required one, if it be recollected that we have almost wandered round the whole circle before we return to it: we ought rather to apologise for the lateness of some of our information.

If the acids are the most extensively useful bodies, and occur in the greatest number, we should of course begin with them, and we do it more willingly, because, in our present Number, we have referred to some experiments which we may now explain more particularly. They relate to the congelation of oil of vitriol. To M. Chaptal it occurred by accident from natural cold: the state of air when they were frozen is not mentioned; but they were beginning to melt only at + 70, which, if Reaumur's thermometer be meant, corresponds to about 47. The crystals were unctuous from the melting acid, and they felt warmer than the
neigh-

neighbouring bodies. The form was that of a prism of six sides, flattened and terminated by a pyramid of six sides; but the pyramid appeared on one end only; on the other the crystal was lost in the general mass. The pyramid resulted from an assemblage of six isosceles triangles. The oil, when the crystal was melted, was of a yellowish black: its density has been already mentioned. On redistilling it in a proper apparatus, no peculiar gas came over. M. Chaptal repeated his experiments, and found that the highly concentrated acid did not freeze; that the density of that which he thought froze most easily, was to the oil of the usual strength for sale, as from 63 and 65 to 66; and the necessary degree of cold—*z*, about 19 of Fahrenheit. This fact has no relation to the crystallization of the oil mentioned by Meyer: his crystallized oil was volatile, smoking, and odorous. The duke d'Ayen had already frozen oil of vitriol; and M. Morveau repeated the experiment in 1782 with success. The degree of concentration of *their* oil is not mentioned; but our author, with some justice, observes that strong oil lowered with water is not the same with oil produced of a given strength by rectification. In the latter there is always some colour: and it will not dissolve indigo, so as to carry the colour into stuff, while the stronger oil diluted to that strength succeeds, it is said, very well. Oil once melted will not crystallize with the same degree of cold. We hope this subject will be examined farther, for it is not yet properly elucidated.

The desire of some farther elucidation was scarcely written, before we received the information we wished for, from M. Morè; at least an explanation which is very probable; and we would not dismiss the subject without mentioning it. The author, who is a considerable manufacturer of oil of vitriol at Hadimont, near Vervier, in the duchy of Limbourg, has remarked this phenomenon, and attributes it to the addition of nitrous air. The acid of vitriol is usually separated from sulphur, by burning in close vessels; and the air is supplied, by adding to the sulphur a little nitre. He found, that by mixing the acid, capable of being congealed, with water, or employing it for other purposes, that orange-coloured fumes, and the smell of the true nitrous acid, were very evident. If this gas was destroyed, no degree of cold would congeal the acid, whatever was its degree of concentration; and the congelation was generally observed immediately after the process by which the acid was formed. If these remarks are compared with M. Chaptal's experiments, they will be found to derive no little support from them. We cannot now enlarge on the subject; but it will be obvious, that many other experiments are wanting to confirm M. Morè's opinion, and some farther enquiries to explain the operation of this gas. Is it probable, that it attracts the water of the acid, and, in consequence of its union, suffers its saline parts to concrete? To this opinion there are many strong objections; but it is not our present business to form theories.

The

The acid of phosphorus is a body of considerable utility, in the analysis of minerals; and we think it an object of sufficient importance, to transcribe, from the Turin Transactions, the method of purifying it with ease and simplicity. The common way of reducing it to phosphorus, and again separating the phlogiston, is tedious and expensive. Take four parts of oil of vitriol, and six of bones calcined to whiteness; proceed as in the old process, and leave the whole to digest some time. Filtrate and edulcorate the residuum, and subject the liquor to evaporation till it has acquired the specific gravity of 1262 to 1000. Then add some aerated volatile alkali till it is saturated, which will entirely separate any earthy mixture. When the precipitation is finished, and the precipitate washed, the remains must be exposed to a pretty strong fire, which will carry off the volatile alkali, and the acid vitrifies in the form of a very pure glass, which joined to phlogiston easily becomes phosphorus. The alkali saturating this excess of acid, which is necessary to hold the calx in solution, the earthy salt must be precipitated. This salt is the true bony earth; and though composed of calcareous earth and vitriolic acid, the earth is not discovered by the saccharine acid, even when united with a fixed alkali, to give additional force by a double elective attraction. This is a fact worth recording, if true; and it arises, in our author's opinion, from the salt being capable of solution in every acid. This happens, it is said, when calcareous earth is dissolved by the excess of any acid, except the acids of vinegar and of spar. The phosphoric acid purified in this manner crystallizes easily, and takes the form of quadrangular prisms, terminated by pyramids equally quadrangular. In preparing phosphorus, M. Schiller prefers Scheele's method.—He dissolves bones in the nitrous acid, precipitates the earth by the vitriolic, and distils off the nitrous. If the acid is well purified, when mixed with charcoal and distilled, it produces good phosphorus; but M. Schiller pretends that this phosphorus shines without heat; that it may be bruised in the hands and rubbed on the face without injury; that it consumes on wood without giving signs of combustion; but that when heated, it burns with a noise.

Our readers may recollect that in a former Number, Vol. LXIV. p. 463, we gave some account of Mess. Westrumb and Hermstadt's experiments, which showed that the acids of tartar and sugar differed only by their impurity from vinegar; and that the last was most completely dephlogisticated, and the first contained the greatest portion of phlogiston. M. Hermstadt has pursued the subject, according to his promise, and in a late memoir has shown that the acid of apples, *acide malique* of the New Nomenclature, is only an imperfect vinegar. He finds that it ought to hold the middle place between the oxalic acid (the saccharine) and vinegar. It has too little phlogiston to assume the form of the first, and too much to deserve the appellation of vinegar. It is by a slow fermentation, he thinks, that the acid of tartar becomes the

the acid of apples in the fruits which contain it : there is, however, another difference : these acids contain the matter of heat in a greater proportion as their phlogiston is in a less. The caloric has a strong attraction to the oxygen ; and this new acid is the oxalic oxygenated acid, and its compounds oxygenated oxylats, an early proof of confusion produced in the new language, by one inconsiderable discovery.

It was one of our arguments also against a particular part of the New Nomenclature, that it gave the rank and the office of acids to bodies that were not so. We particularly mentioned the Prussian blue, and it is now necessary to give some authority for our assertion. We alluded to M. Bertholet, who has lately read a Memoir to the Academy of Sciences, in which he examines this substance with much attention, he concludes that it is composed of carbone (charcoal or phlogiston), hydrogen (inflammable air), and azote (impure or phlogistified air) ; and that it is not an acid. M. Hassenfratz, in a Miscellaneous Memoir, has taken notice of the colouring matter of Prussian blue. He found that all Prussian blues contained phosphorated iron ; that fossil charcoal might be advantageously employed in preparing it, since a substance of this kind from the mines of Fresne, near Valenciennes, produced the blue precipitate in greater proportion than calcined ox blood ; that all the matters usually melted with alkali, for the purpose of making this preparation contain either phosphoric acid or its base ; and that this substance can be produced without any phosphoric acid, which will act as a re-agent to discover whether different kinds of iron really contain it. M. Westrumb makes some opposition to this Memoir ; but the whole amounts to this, that the phosphoric acid is produced by burning the coal. M. Hassenfratz was sufficiently guarded, by saying that the charcoal contained the acid or its base. If, therefore, the Prussian blue, at any time contains marks of acidity, they are probably to be attributed to the acid of phosphorus.

A colouring matter of another kind, has also of late been particularly examined by M. Haussman ; we mean indigo. His Memoir, which we do not find has been read to any learned society, may be very useful to dyers. The colouring principle of indigo has not been sufficiently examined, and the action of different chemical dissolvents on it, has not been ascertained so as to render the result of the different processes certain. The colour, when unchanged, depends, in M. Haussman's opinion, on phlogiston. The Memoir is divided into three parts : in the first, indigo is treated with acids ; and he shows that it is the vitriolic acid only, in a peculiar state of concentration, which is proper to adapt this substance for the use of the dyers : every other acid either destroys it effectually or produces no change on it. We have just remarked, from another author, that somewhat besides the degree of concentration is required ; for the browner oil, of the same strength with the stronger diluted oil, is not equally powerful. Our author does not mention the particular degree of concentration,

centration, but refers the whole to a previous experiment, and cautions us against depending too much on these experiments in miniature, since the result is often very different from what occurs in the larger quantities. With the nitrous acid he procured tartar from indigo, and sometimes the acid of sugar. We now know the reason of this variety. In the second part he examines the action of alkalis, and finds that either the fixed or caustic alkalis separately produce no effect, and no solution of the colouring matter takes place, except when to the alkali, quite free of air, some metallic composition is added, as red or yellow arsenic, antimony, &c.—This is the state of blue when used with a pencil. When some of this blue was put in contact with pure air, and shaken often, $\frac{7}{8}$ of the air was absorbed, and the remainder was phlogisticated. Part of the alkali remained caustic, and part combined 'with the acid of sulphur, which was generated,' and formed vitriolated alkali. The arsenic remained in the state of a white calx. We give this fact without any explanation: our author's system, and that of his friend, a follower of Lavoisier, are evidently incomplete and erroneous. The fact itself, to an enquiring mind, will suggest some observations which may be of use in the practice of penciling. The third section treats of the solution of indigo for the use of blue vats, by means of a precipitate of iron partly phlogisticated, and powdered regulus of antimony, joined to caustic alkali or quick lime. These metallic substances when calcined, as well as the aerated alkalis, exert no power on indigo. Our author does not proceed far in the explanation of the different appearances; and indeed till we have a more complete analysis of this substance in its original state, we can make no satisfactory advances in accounting for the different changes. One thing is certain, that indigo must contain a large proportion of pure air: M. Hauffman is not a follower of Lavoisier; and there are many inaccuracies in the chemical part of this Memoir.

This celebrated heretic, we mean it not opprobriously, pursues his fugitive principle, vital air, in different bodies, and has lately read a memoir on its combination with spirit of wine, oil, and different combustibles. The substance is, however, the oxygen, the acidifying principle, or the vital air deprived of the matter of heat. It is a fact well known, that the water collected from 16 ounces of spirit of wine, amounts sometimes to 18 ounces: oil increases in weight nearly in the same proportion. These circumstances M. Lavoisier particularly enquires into; and his method of trying the result is, to burn them in a lamp of Argand's construction, to which a chimney is adapted, on the inside of the glass cylinder, whose extremity is joined to a refrigerator, with a worm tube. To burn spirit of wine in vital air, a different apparatus was required; but of this we can give no adequate idea by description. After a variety of experiments, however, he concludes, that a pound of spirit of wine contains of coal (the principle of fixed air) 4 ounces, 4 drachms, 37 grains

grains and a half; of inflammable air 1 ounce, 2 drachms, $5\frac{1}{2}$ grains; of water 10 ounces, 1 drachm, 29 grains. When burned, it weighs 2 ounces, 4 drachms, 42 grains, above the pound; and this increase of weight arises, in his opinion, from water formed in consequence of the union of the vital and inflammable airs. Various reasons prevent these results from being uniform, or indeed very exact; but, on the whole, the increase cannot be less. The water too is slightly acid, either from some acid remaining in the spirit of wine, or formed during the burning.

A pound of oil of olives contains 12 ounces, 5 drachms, 5 grains of coal, and 3 ounces, 2 drachms, 67 grains of inflammable air; its weight in burning is increased 6 ounces, 3 drachms, 38 grains. This quantity is furnished also by the newly formed water; but, to make the weight so great, it is necessary that the supply of vital air should be fully sufficient, for the complete combustion. Wax contains 13 ounces, 1 drachm, 46 grains of coal, and 2 ounces, 6 drachms, 26 grains of inflammable air: its increase, after burning, is 2 ounces, 6 drachms, 5 grains. These are facts of importance, and ascertained with great care. The author's explanations may be allowed; but we may be permitted to observe, that they do not destroy the existence of phlogiston. In this case, water must either escape unchanged, and attract some new ingredient from the air to increase its weight, or it must be formed from the different elastic fluids. The first supposition is untenable, and the last is highly probable.

The discovery of vital air daily increases our knowledge of the composition of bodies; and it should not be mentioned without assigning the incontestible merit of the discovery to Dr. Priestley. It is applied to many important purposes; among others, we may shortly mention a series of experiments, to determine its quantity in any given proportion of atmospherical air, by the quantity of phosphorus which burns in it. But to return to our continuation of chemical discoveries, which we left to pursue the principle of acidity. Of the alkalis we can say nothing very new; of the decomposition and the composition of the volatile alkali we have had occasion to speak, and we may now add the suspicions which have been long entertained relative to the composition of the fixed alkali. It must be, however, premised, that M. Wolfe has supported the analysis of the volatile alkali, by some new experiments. He found that the alkali of the Egyptian sal ammoniac was decomposed by distilling the salt with nitrous acid, while the sal ammoniac made on purpose was not affected by this acid. Probably the union is somewhat weakened by the sublimation, and it may be worth an enquiry whether the extemporaneous salt may not be affected by the nitrous acid, after it has undergone the same process. On the fixed alkali, M. Lorgna lately gave some extensive memoirs. He was inclined to think, that the basis was the earth of magnesia. Yet his experiments were not very decisive; and, while we were overwhelmed with novelities, we could not attend to suspicions only. These suspi-

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cions deserve a better character, since they are supported by concurring observations. A German chemist, M. Osburg, about the time of M. Lorgna's experiments, made some, which seemed to confirm them. He dissolved an ounce of the crystals of the mineral alkali, in distilled water, and, on filtering, found a little earth. The lixivium was evaporated, and the salt calcined. On a fresh solution, more earth was deposited. After repeating the experiment six times, the earth amounted to 26 grains; and it resembled, in all its properties, magnesia. M. Osburg concludes that the magnesia becomes a salt, by the assistance of the matter of heat and of phlogiston. He tried to confirm this conclusion, by an analysis in the moist way. He united the alkali to the dephlogisticated marine acid, and evaporated the acid again; but the alkali remained unchanged. The experiment was repeated, and after the third repetition, the salt remained in a group of beautiful crystals, which had a perfectly alkaline taste, but did not dissolve easily in water, and left a yellowish residuum. The fourth solution of the salt, in the dephlogisticated acid, was made in a cucurbit, and a considerable quantity of a reddish yellow matter was deposited. On distillation, an acid was obtained, which did not dissolve gold so readily as at first, but which changed the colour of the turnsol, and of syrup of violets more constantly. The acid seemed, therefore, to have gained some phlogiston from the alkali, and to have decomposed it. The experiment was afterwards twice repeated, on the same salt; and eight grains of magnesia procured; so that, on the whole, $21\frac{1}{2}$ grains were obtained. M. Dehne and M. Deyeux have also at different times obtained magnesia from mineral alkali; but it still remains to enquire, whether the magnesia may not have been originally combined with it, or whether the whole of the alkali can be converted into this earth.

On the earths we have little to observe, yet the experiments by M. Dodun may deserve some attention. They relate to the fusion of earth, by the blow-pipe with common air only. His success depends on his using very small particles, and supporting them on little shreds of glass. It will at once be obvious that this cannot be styled simple fusion, for the melted glass must combine with the earths, and will probably render them less refractory. He tried the diamond, from which he observed no flame. The different precious stones melted with no very peculiar phenomena. Different granites ran into black opaque glass. Rock crystal yielded in this way, and became first a white opaque glass, then a little transparent, and at last flowed in a colourless glass. This experiment may, however, be related a little more particularly. At the first stroke of the flame it boiled *at the first part, which touched the glass*. After three minutes constant heat, it split transversely and a little blackish cloud seemed to rise from the focus. The bulk of the fragment was diminished one quarter, and it soon assumed the form of a pyramid, whose point was rounded and white; at first of a milky
hue,

hue, and at last luminous, while the base had not lost its transparency. After three minutes more of heat the diminution was very considerable; the edges of the pyramid were much thinner: the borders were become white and a little transparent, and the body seemed to swim in an icy water, which appeared to be formed from the fusion of some small particles, broken off by the force of the heat. The summit of the pyramid was much diminished, and the base always rounded, was fuller, while its transparency was more distinct. During the last action of the flame, a reddish circle surrounded the pyramid like an areola, and it appeared to be a martial calx, which the force of the breath, and the melting of the crystal kept swimming around. The whole was fused into a semi-transparent mass of a dirty white colour; and what remained was not $\frac{1}{12}$ of its first bulk. M. Dodun says, that the rock crystal is not volatile like the diamond, yet that it entirely disappeared by a continued heat of six minutes; we suppose after the fusion, which was not completed under twenty-two minutes. Another portion of rock crystal, and a grey diaphanous quartz, though less refractory, melted into a similar glass. Mica melted into a white or black opaque glass, according to its colour; grey steatite into a black glass; calcareous spar into a greyish glass; and the lapis suillus into a greyish yellow glass. The last substance gave out a phosphoric light, on the first stroke of the flame. A white sonorous lime-stone, with a very fine grain, which rises near Castelnau dray, after fifteen minutes melted into a grey glass, of a greenish transparency: this stone also gave out a phosphoric light, at first. Mutton bones calcined, and washed in boiling water, were distinguished by a similar appearance and became a very white brilliant glass. Even asbestos and amianthus, the purest magnesian earths, which appear in a separate fossil state, were vitrified, and assumed a compact green appearance or an opaque black. Charcoal from oak became a glass; and platina alone refused to obey the flame; but it melted into little silver globules, after twenty-six minutes. These are the most striking phenomena; but the experiments are sixty-three in number, and we have been able to describe but a few.

What remains of the miscellaneous chemistry may be safely omitted. We do not pretend to give the analysis of every new mineral which we receive, or every minute observation which we may find recorded. Of what we have learned, since our last chemical intelligence, we have given the whole, as shortly as we could, one memoir only excepted, that of M. Hjelm on the nature of steel. If no earlier opportunity occurs, we shall defer it till we again resume this science; but when that period will return is yet uncertain, since it depends on the labours of others, not our own.

Edda Sæmundar Hinns Froda. Edda Rythmica seu Antiqua, vulgo Sæmundina dicta. Pars I. Odas Mythologicas a Resenio non editas continens, cum Versione Latina, Lectionibus variis, Notis, Glossario Vocum et Indice Rerum. Hafniæ. 4to.

THIS manuscript is now published, in consequence of the will of Arnas Magnæus, in whose possession it was. It is a legacy which will be received with gratitude, by the admirers of northern literature, particularly, the poets and philosophers. The manuscript itself is lodged in the royal library at Copenhagen, and it is written on vellum. Of 16 manuscripts of Sæmundin, the chief is that which the bishop Brynjolf Suenon discovered in Iceland in 1643. This has been preferred for a translation, and it was executed by Gudmund Magnæus, while the notes are partly those of the translator, and in part by Gunnar Paulsen. It consists of thirteen poems of different æras, on various subjects, collected perhaps by Sæmund, but without being his, or even translated by him from the Runic: there are indeed striking reasons to believe that the Runic was not employed in preserving even the laws before his time. All was trusted to memory, assisted by tunes and versification. Many of these poems have been carried to Iceland, by the Norwegians, and we suspect were transcribed there, after writing was taught, which seems to have been nearly at the same time when Christianity was introduced. Why the name of Edda was given to it we know not; nor have antiquaries yet decided about the meaning of the name, which seems to have been first applied to the Edda of Snorro. Arnas Magnæus derives it from *othr*, wisdom. It has been currently interpreted grandmother: another author styles his girdle emma, mother, because it protects his body, as a mother does her child: another, still more refined, calls it grandmother, because grandmothers instruct their children. The language of these old songs is much too simple for the time of Sæmund. The artificial turns, and the studied points which distinguish the poets of the 10th century, do not occur: the obsolete expressions and corruption of the text, and the obscurity of the allusions render it, however, difficult to be understood. The chamberlain de Suhm has, in his historical works, pointed out the probable period of their composition; and we may take some notice of his remarks on the subject. It is necessary to premise, that an Edda, ascribed to Snorro, which is supposed to be a production of the 13th, or as Arnas Magnæus supposes, of the 14th century, was published by Resenius in 1665. An older Edda was suspected by some authors to exist, and two poems supposed to belong to that older work were selected by the same editor: their titles were *Völuspá* and *Haavamal*; and it is these poems to which the title page alludes, where it mentions the odes not published by Resenius, for these are now omitted. The mythological part too is only found in this volume; but the historical is to follow.

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These odes do not form a complete system of northern mythology, and still less a collection of their symbolical doctrines; much of the older systems are still lost, or to be found even in more modern collections. The author of Snorro's Edda must have had many other memoirs in his view, since he relates fables, of which there is not the slightest vestige, in the Edda before us. In both, however, we distinctly find the doctrine of the immortality of the soul, of a state of retribution, of rewards and punishments, and of the renewal of the world. The union of light and darkness, with the assistance of the elements, are supposed to have produced this world; and their disunion will one day destroy it. Much of his mythology is accumulated in the preface, and the similarity between it, and the Grecian mythology is also shown.

Next follows the life of Sæmund, called Fróða (the learned) written, by Arnas Magnæus. He was born in Iceland, about the year 1056, studied in Germany, and returned to Odda, the inheritance of his fathers, about 1076—He became an ecclesiastic, wrote the history of Norway, when he was seventy years old, and died in 1133. The annals of Odda are not wholly his, though they were undoubtedly written in part by him; but it is a difficult task to select his works, as many things have been attributed to him, in which he had no share. The poems, we have said, were collected by him, and we have no reason to refer them to a very remote antiquity, though they are of an æra, when figures and metaphors were little used. They are of a dramatic kind, and the facts are related with as much simplicity as they were performed. Sublimity and absurdity, as sometimes happens in old writings, are freely mixed, and intimately blended.

It were to be wished, indeed, that the Edda was complete by the republication of the poems formerly printed by Resænius. Copies of these poems are scarce; the omission could not be owing to their having before appeared, for the first poem, in this collection was published in 1779, by Thorkelin: we shall give a short account of the subject of some of the poems in this volume, as a specimen of the rest.

The first is styled Vafthrudnir. Odin under the name of Gangradt, goes to this giant to try his wisdom, for he was reputed to be very able, and intelligent. They puzzle each other with intricate questions, about the state of the world, till the giant discovers the Deity, and is greatly terrified:

In the Grimnis mal, Odin describes the habitations of the Gods, and explains the religious mythology. The For Skirnis, the journey of Skirnis, whose object was to obtain the love of Gerda for Freyer. The Harbarz Lioth is a kind of Billingsgate abuse between Odin and Thor. In the Hymis Quida, Thor is described as going to kill a vast serpent. Ogesdrecka contains a reproof to the Gods, by Lok.

The glossary, the various readings, and the notes, are very
 Vol. LXV. May, 1788. D d curious,

curious, in many respects: we are greatly indebted to the society for publishing Danish manuscripts, and hope to receive the various treasures of Iceland, with a dispatch consistent with the accuracy and attention which distinguish this valuable volume.

Since writing the above, we have been informed that the poems which the present editor has omitted, are designed for a separate publication.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

A Letter to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, shewing the Necessity of a Clerical Reform; and containing a Plan for remedying the Grievances of the inferior Clergy. By Mr. Warburton. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Nicoll.

WE fully agree with our author, in censuring the misconduct of some rectors, and regretting the slender stipends of some curates; but it is no less unjust to imply, that every curate is distressed, than that every pluralist is luxurious or vicious. In reality, while a reform is supposed to be necessary, it is not a general one that is required; and every reformation must be attempted with the most prudent and steady hand. Mr. Warburton's remarks are, in general, very just; and his proposal, with some few exceptions might, perhaps with great propriety, be adopted.

A Summary View of the Objects and beneficial Provisions in Mr. Gilbert's New Bill. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The bill is now lost, and our time would also be lost in a very minute discussion of it. Some of the provisions are, however, so truly beneficial, that we wish for its re-appearance; and as Mr. Gilbert must have seen the rock on which he split, we hope it will be revived with better success.

The Insufficiency of the Causes to which the Increase of our Poor, and of the Poor's Rates have been commonly ascribed; the true one stated; with an Enquiry into the Mortality of Country Houses of Industry. and a slight general View of Mr. Acland's Plan for rendering the Poor independent. By the rev. J. Howlett. 8vo. 2s. Richardson.

Mr. Howlett, in opposition to many authors, thinks that the increase of the poor is not owing to any defects in the laws, or their execution; to the number of ale-houses; the profligacy and wickedness of the poor; the engrossing of farms, or the absorption of larger farms into smaller ones. For many of these opinions, he has given very satisfactory reasons; yet we think he has not examined the subject on a very large or very extensive scale. His remarks are confined to the labouring poor, and are very correct, so far as that application holds: among the manufacturers, profligacy and luxury are too common;

mon; and so far as our experience reaches, the great increase of the expences of the poor, above what must arise from the increase of people, is owing to the manufacturers who are decayed or diseased. This fact should be settled before we can examine the causes which he assigns for the increase of the poor, viz. that the price of labour has not advanced in proportion to the price of provisions. This affects the labourer only, not the mechanic or the manufacturer. It may, and we believe is one cause; but it is not the only or the most extensive one.

In the third part, he examines the plans which have been proposed for the reduction of the expences; and, if his cause is well founded, it must be obvious, that no one plan hitherto mentioned can effect the cure. We suspect that, in some respects, Mr. Acland's plan, and, in some, Mr. Gilbert's plan, might have been useful; yet, if the cause is not a single one, no single plan can counteract the effects. If the poor, in the moments of health and industry, cannot raise a fund for themselves, some law is requisite, which shall punish those who have passed many of these moments in idleness, instead of labour, and have squandered their pittance instead of saving it. At least, some regulation is requisite; and the evil is now so big with ruin, that some trial should be made soon. In this pamphlet, however, Mr. Howlett displays his usual sagacity, and his extensive information.

Political Observations on the present State of Europe. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Baldwin.

This pamphlet exhibits a very imperfect account of the present state of Europe, and is written in a style extremely perplexed and obscure.

A Letter to the Minority in the House of Commons, who voted in favour of a Motion for a Repeal of the Shop-Tax. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The author of this Letter, who subscribes himself a shop-keeper, expresses his gratitude to the members of the house of commons, who voted for a repeal of the shop-tax, and urges many arguments in support of the assertion that the tax is partial and oppressive.

Familiar Expostulations, addressed to Messrs. Pitt and Thurlow. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

The chief object of this pamphlet is the impress of seamen, concerning which practice the author expostulates with two members of the cabinet, with such a familiarity as may, indeed, evince his zeal, but never can promote an alteration in that obnoxious part of our polity.

Joseph and Benjamin. A Conversation. Small 8vo. 3s. Murray.

The effusion of some inexperienced writer, who retails his own conceptions in the characters of personages which he does not support with consistency.

The Form of Trial of Commoners; in Cases of Impeachment for High Crimes and Misdemeanors. Folio. 3s. Forbes.

The writer of this pamphlet sets out with giving a brief account of the mode of conducting trials by impeachment; after which he presents us with an abridgement of Mr. Hastings's trial, from its commencement to the 29th of February.

Reflections upon a late extraordinary Promotion of sixteen Admirals. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

The late promotion of admirals afforded subject for some motions in parliament; which ended, however, without fixing any blame on the conduct of the first lord of the admiralty. But his lordship has not escaped the severe, though unavailing reprehension of this writer.

A Letter to the Duke of Grafton. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

This Letter relates to the bill now depending in parliament for preventing the exportation of live sheep, wool, &c. The author, who appears to be an intelligent person, has no objection to the principle of the bill; but points out some clauses which he thinks would prove oppressive to individuals, and wishes that they may be either left out, or so modified as to render them less obnoxious.

The Question of Wool truly stated. 8vo. 6d. Nicoll.

On a subject concerning which two numerous classes of people are variously interested, it requires the most accurate statement of facts, to ascertain the truth amidst the misrepresentations, intended or not intended, of the different parties. The woollen manufacturers complain of a declension of their trade, in consequence of a large smuggled exportation of that valuable commodity to France. The wool-growers, on the other hand, insist that the manufacturers are at present in a very prosperous condition; and represent the exportation of wool to France, both as trifling in quantity, and unnecessary for the fabrics of that country. The author now before us is evidently one of the latter class. The facts which he states have doubtless been considered by the house of commons, previous to the passing of the bill; and there is no question but the claims of both parties will likewise receive due investigation in the house of lords. To the determination of the legislature we shall, for the present, leave the subject.

Observations upon the Bill presented to Parliament, for preventing the Exportation of Wool. 8vo. 1s. Law.

The exportation of wool is a practice extremely pernicious to the kingdom, both as lessening the quantity of our own woollen manufactures, and increasing that of the French. Exports prohibitions have been repeatedly issued against it by the parliament; but the evil still subsists, in such a degree as calls for the most diligent exertion of government. The chief remedy proposed by the author of this pamphlet is, to employ
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riding officers, who shall make it their business to ride from place to place through their respective districts, within fifteen miles of the sea; distribute, and make generally known, concise abstracts of the law, and offer encouragement, protection, and rewards to informers, upon conviction of offenders.

A Speech on the Wool Bill that might have been spoken in the House of Commons. 8vo. 6d. Nicoll.

The writer of this pamphlet is a zealous opponent of the bill for prohibiting exportation. He affirms that the true principle of it is to depreciate the price, under the pretence of preventing a practice which no longer exists. The author, though not very minute in enquiry, is sufficiently bold in assertion.

D I V I N I T Y.

A Sermon, written by the late Samuel Johnson, LL.D. for the Funeral of his Wife. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

This is, in many respects, an admirable discourse: it displays a pure, unaffected piety, little tinged with the native, the constitutional gloom which hung over the author's mind. The opinions and the ideas are exact and discriminated, and the language has all Johnson's energy and vigour, without his peculiarities. If tradition has not conveyed to us the excellencies of Mrs. Johnson, this sermon shows us that she possessed some, or that her husband thought she did. From his character, we ought to conclude, that these were his sentiments at that time, though it may be allowed that, in the period of mourning for a recent loss, the value of good qualities is often enhanced. It has been said, that Mr. Hayes, to whom this Sermon devolved on the death of Dr. Taylor, has some more discourses by the same author. He cannot bestow a more acceptable present on the world, than to publish them. We shall extract a specimen, at once rational and manly, on a subject where Johnson occasionally appeared superstitiously weak.

‘But, so much is our condition improved by the Gospel, so much is the sting of death rebated, that we may now be invited to the contemplation of our mortality, as to a pleasing employment of the mind, to an exercise delightful and recreative, not only when calamity and persecution drive us out from the assemblies of men, and sorrow and woe represent the grave as a refuge and an asylum, but even in the hours of the highest earthly prosperity, when our cup is full, and when we have laid up stores for ourselves; for, in him who believes the promise of the Saviour of the world, it can cause no disturbance to remember, that this night his soul may be required of him; and he who suffers one of the sharpest evils which this life can shew, amidst all its varieties of misery; he that has lately been separated from the person whom a long participation of good and evil had endeared to him; he who has seen kindness snatched from his arms, and fidelity torn from his bosom; he whose ear is no more to be delighted with tender instruction, and whose virtue shall be no more awakened by the seasonable

whispers of mild reproof, may yet look, without horror, on the tomb which encloses the remains of what he loved and honoured: as upon a place which, if it revives the sense of his loss, may calm him with the hope of that state in which there shall be no more grief or separation.'

Practical Sermons selected and abridged from various Authors. By J. Charlesworth, M. A. late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Vol. I. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

This is confessedly, in a great degree, a compilation, for but a small proportion of these discourses are the compiler's own. We shall not stay to look for the authors: they may perhaps be found in Cook's Preacher's Assistant, as none are collected, in this volume, which were published since that very useful book came out.—Neither shall we stay to ask, for what reason these Sermons were republished. They are plain, devout, practical; and we cannot read discourses of this description too often. The collection will probably be continued, since this is called the first volume.

Sunday School Dialogues: being an Abridgment of a Work, by M. P. 12mo. 3d. Marshall.

This is an abridgment of a very useful little work; yet, while we praise the attempt, we cannot avoid hinting that it is easy to be too familiar. It leads sometimes into discussions almost ludicrous; and by endeavouring to explain what in its nature is incapable of explanation, it may in some minds lead to scepticism rather than religion.

A Desultory Tract. 12mo. 4d. Scatchard.

This Tract consists of a project for reforming the disorderly, and assisting the industrious and orderly poor. The author makes one remark with respect to Sunday-school teaching which deserves particular attention, viz. 'that it will be of little efficacy till the parents of the children become better.' This hint suggests the propriety of reforming the elder as well as instructing the younger poor.

AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE.

An Account of the Slave Trade on the Coast of Africa. By Alexander Falconbridge. 8vo. 9d. Phillips.

This Account is full of the barbarities with which the slaves are treated; but the picture is too highly coloured, and the exaggerations defeat the author's own purpose. He remarks, and we believe it to be true, that the cargoes are generally obtained by kidnapping, or condemned to slavery for offences, sometimes real, but more frequently fabricated, to procure the slave. In other respects, the trade is the grave rather than the nursery of seamen, as scarcely any landmen, and no apprentices, are taken. On the whole, though this account contains some facts of importance, the general tenor of it leads us to suspect that it was written with some partial views. It would not be very difficult to soften some of the colours, from the author's own remarks.

Objec-

Objections to the Abolition of the Slave Trade, with Answers. By the Rev. James Ramsay, A. M. 8vo. 9d. Phillips.

The various objections which have been made to the abolition of the slave-trade, are shortly noticed, and answered with various success; but not always very satisfactorily.—We cannot abridge matter so miscellaneous; but shall select a striking passage from the introduction, which contains an answer to a late publication, entitled, *Considerations on the Emancipation of Negroes, and the Abolition of the Slave Trade, by a West India Planter.*

—The abolition of the slave trade will ruin the West Indian trade, which will ruin our marine. I trust the West Indian trade is in no danger. But suppose the one annihilates the other. We shall, by abandoning the slave-trade, save more seamen than the other employs. The African slave-trade destroys annually 2000 men; in ten years 20,000. The sugar colonies may employ 12,000 seamen. The loss here is 3 in 200. Suppose annually 200, in ten years 2000. The whole number of men employed in the West India trade in ten years, is 14,000. But in this time 20,000 are lost in the slave-trade. If both were annihilated, in ten years we should save 6000 men.'

We give this fact as we found it, without a comment: we shall not enter into the propriety or justness of the calculation; but leave it with valeat quantum valere potest.

Thoughts on the Slavery of the Negroes, as it affects the British Colonies in the West Indies, humbly submitted to the Consideration of both Houses of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Richardson.

There is much candour in the representations of this author, though there appears to be some bias in favour of the slave-trade. He magnifies, we think, the political despotism to which the Africans are subjected, and extenuates the calamities to which they are afterwards exposed. Slaves, he says, are seldom kidnapped, and the prisoners taken in war, if they are enslaved, are saved from death. As we have professed that we wish only to preserve them from improper treatment; and as, in part, our author's proposed regulations will produce this effect, we do not greatly differ from him. But he will allow us to doubt, whether the laws in favour of slaves are a sufficient protection for them, while the administration of these laws is in the hands of their masters. Again: the free negroes are indolent, and thievish, they are the pests of the colonies: what then must be the terrors that drive them to labour?

An Essay on the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species, particularly the African. Translated from a Latin Dissertation, which was honoured with the first prize in the University of Cambridge, for the Year 1785. The Second Edition, revised and considerably enlarged. 8vo. 4s. Phillips.

We reviewed this excellent treatise in our LXIIId volume, page 121. at some length; and now announce, with much

pleasure, the second edition, with some important additions and necessary alterations. The author resided, during the last summer, at two of the slave-ports in this kingdom, for the purpose of procuring information; and he has added two new chapters, which contain the state of the trade at this time. In the third part, the chapter which relates to the treatment of the slaves on board of the ships destined to carry them to the American islands, is extended to three chapters, in order to give a clearer view of the subject, and to convey more circumstantial information.

Mr. Clarkson promises, that this edition shall be soon followed by another Essay, in which he designs to show, that the slave-trade is as impolitic as it is unjust. After so extensive an account as we gave of the first edition, we need not add any other particulars of this which lies before us; especially since the new chapters, though the narrative be more clear and circumstantial, do not materially differ from the information which we have received from other hands,

Letter to the Treasurer of the Society instituted for the Purpose of effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade. From the Rev. Robert Boucher Nickolls, Dean of Middleham. A new Edition with considerable Additions. Small 8vo. 4d. Phillips.

The second edition of this Letter contains a variety of additional facts, and a confirmation of some of the former remarks. The facts, well supported, are the very important ones that, by proper care, the race of negroes from the present stock may be increased sufficiently to answer all the exigencies of extended plantations; and that from the labour of free men, sugar might be raised sufficient to supply any demand. But for the last consideration, circumstances are not sufficiently matured; and the abolition of importation, though we have recommended it, cannot, we fear, be yet adopted consistently with national faith and real justice. We wish, however, that the planters would act as if this measure impended over them; for it must, at some future period, be put in execution,

P O E T R Y.

Brother Peter to Brother Tom. An Expostulatory Epistle. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 3s. Kearsley.

The sun of Peter seems declining in the west; and though it sets with a glowing splendor, yet it wants the vivid fire of its meridian beams. He expostulates with brother Tom, on his confining all the panegyric of the last year's Ode to Windsor, and omitting to celebrate the virtues of his majesty. Peter once likened himself to the cook, who 'dished up royalty,' and perhaps he expected that Tom should supply the garnish. In the present instance, the subject 'palls on the sense'—*toujours perdrix ne vaut rien*. We shall, however, according to our good custom, extract a few lines, and let this son of genuine wit and real humour speak for himself. We shall select the following, to remark, that however excellent Handel may be,

to confine the national attention to one composer, is surely granting an unfair 'monopoly of fame'—Why should I, says Peter,

'Hate him, because, untir'd, the monarch pores
On Handel's manuscript old scores,
And schemes successful daily hatches,
For saving notes o'erwhelm'd with scratches;
Recovering from the blotted leaves
Huge cart-horse minims, dromedary breves;
Thus saving damned bars from just damnation,
By way of bright'ning Handel's reputation?
Who, charm'd with ev'ry crotchet Handel wrote,
Heav'd into Tot'nam street each heavy note:
And forcing on the house the tuneless lumber,
Drove half to doors, the other half to slumber?'

The following simile concludes Peter's expostulation on a similar exclusive attention to Mr. West.

'Thus have I seen a child with smiling face,
A little daisy in the garden place,
And strut in triumph round its fav'rite flow'r;
Gaze on the leaves with infant admiration,
Thinking the flow'r the finest in the nation,
Then pay a visit to it ev'ry hour:
Lugging the watt'ring pot about,
Which John the gard'ner was oblig'd to fill;
The child, so pleas'd, would pour the water out,
To show its marvellous gard'ning skill;
Then staring round, all wild for praises panting,
Tell all the world it was its own sweet planting;
And boast away, too happy elf,
How that it found the daisy all, itself!'

This simile is, in many respects, excellent; and indeed Peter, with all thy faults, we seldom leave thee but in good humour: we wish that thou wouldest change thy subject, if it be only for the sake of a little variety. There are, however, better motives for the advice.

The Eastern Theatre erected. An Heroi-comic Poem. In three Cantos. 4to. 2s. 6d. Brown.

The author describes the origin of the Eastern Theatre; but its downfall must be sung by another poet. There is some comic humour, and entertaining description, in this little poem; but the burlesque gravity of the mock heroic is not sufficiently preserved. The merit of this kind of composition consists in giving to the most trifling circumstances an air of dignity, by adopting epic images, similes, and language. There is nothing personal in the satire; it is general, and pointed rather at folly than at any individual.

One of the best passages of this poem is the description and speech of the spectre Davies; some just remarks occur also on
dramatic

dramatic poets and plays. As the former is too long for our purpose, we shall select a specimen from the latter.

' While wits and wirlings, round, our praise affect,
Say, shall the muse her fav'rite H——e neglect?
Step forth, great tragic bard, whose wond'rous verse
Flow'd on, from good to bad, from bad to worse;
Whose fame, (thy brains still yielding something new,)
Like thy own Scotch fir, taper'd as it grow
Guard thou that fir, whose Douglas-base extends,
Grows *gradual* *sight*, and in an Alfred ends.'

The lines are unequal; but they are sometimes spirited and poetical.

The Parriod; addressed to the Editor of Bellendene, upon his elegant, but illiberal Preface. By W. Chapman, A. M. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bew.

Mr. Chapman reprehends the editor of Bellendenus for the virulence, and often the injustice of the political opinions, in the preface. We have already given our opinion on this subject, and need now only add, that Mr. Chapman's poetry sometimes rises above mediocrity. We shall quote a few lines relating to Mr. Pit: the *diſſa* of the author of the preface:

' Should in the crowd *diſſa*'s praise be heard,
Who dar'd be wise before he had a beard (a);
Tho' young, declin'd not pow'r (destructive choice)
Fix'd only by the king's and people's voice (b):
Who broke the promise of his early day,
When from a factious crew he forc'd his way,
And, poor of spirit, scorn'd to join that band (c),
Which having injur'd, sought t' enslave the land;
Who can unblushing in the senate rise (d),
And while he charms our ears, engage our eyes (e);
We would, should S***** receive his praise,
Find fear or art in ev'ry word he says (f):
Attack, with thee, his unrelenting pride
With thee, his boyish politics deride;
(Time rolls o'er him his rapid tide in vain,
For still, a boy *diſſa* shall remain)
Tell, how, should war the languid state alarm,
Our timid minister would fear to arm (g);
No longer boastful, insolent, and proud,
Would view with tearful eye the bursting cloud;
Obsequious bend before the daring foe,
And yield his country up without a blow.'

(a) Pag. 18.

(b) Pag. 62.

(c) Pag. 61.

(d) Pag. 43.

(e) Pag. 27.

(f) Pag. 18.

(g) Pag. 22.

A Letter to a Friend, with a Poem, called the Ghost of Werter.
By Lady ———. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hookham.

In this Letter the character of Charlotte is minutely investigated, and an attempt made to shew that she was 'vain, unfeeling, and ungenerous.' The fair author, seems, indeed, to entertain an implacable aversion to her, and wrests some of her indifferent actions to a meaning that cannot with candour be attributed to them. Yet some of her remarks are extremely just, and where they do not convince, will please from their shrewdness and the spirited manner in which they are written. We cannot speak so favourably of the poetry as of the prose.

The Odiad; or, The Battle of Humphries and Mendoza; an Heroic Poem. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lowndes and Christie.

It would have been indeed unfortunate, if the victory of Humphries and the prowess of Mendoza had been celebrated only in the fugitive sheet of the day, or been at best preserved with the precious rarities of a monthly magazine. The Odiad is an heroic poem; and, though not the first in which the combat of the cæsus has been celebrated, it is the first* where the modern contests of fists alone are the subjects of the lofty rhyme.—It is enough to say, that the poem is worthy of the celebrity of the battle; and that the poet might, like Simonides, be allowed the title of laureat of the games. We shall extract a short specimen, no unfavourable one, of the poet's abilities. The alliterations, which the author seems to be sometimes fond of; and one couplet, which is in the true style of the mock heroic, we have distinguished.

'Say, muse, what first provok'd th' indignant foes
To clinch the fist, and brave each others blows;
For glory—Pella's hair-brain'd madman fought,
For glory and proud triumphs—Cæsar thought;
Grim Jews and Christians bant alike for fame,
In faith still adverse, but in pride the same.

What tho' no cannons thunder in my line,
Nor chiefs that glory in their stem divine;
Nor whizzing darts, nor clanging shields you hear,
Nor glitt'ring blades, nor waving plumes appear;
Dire are the scenes—the fist by fist repell'd,
Black eyes black'd up, and into mountains swell'd;
The shatter'd rib—the nose's broken bridge,
The head whose bumps portrude in many a ridge;
Dissever'd lips, whilst rattling teeth around,
Driv'n from distorted jaws bestrew the ground;
Dry drubs and hollow bangs resounds my song,
Thwack follows thwack, and man drives man along.

We are not so well pleased with the author's prose as with his poetry. To add a prefatory dissertation, is a little contra-

* Since this article was written, we recollect, though imperfectly, a piece of P. Whitehead's on the same subject, 'The Gymnasiad.'

dictory;

dictory; and the bull threatens, with his destructive horns, in the title-page. In this said subsequent dissertation, which comes before, we find some things which appear either like errors or blunders. 'If the author is not mistaken, *some* poetry has been employed in the celebration of this art.' Indeed, *much* very sublime poetry has arisen from the games of Greece, in which boxing held a distinguished rank. We cannot, however, style the wreathes of laurel, &c. given to the conquerors, as instances of 'munificent profusion.'—'The coldness and obscurity of birth-day odes,' or 'the jejuneness and poverty of genius in the laurelled lyric' should now be no longer heard. It is backneyed satire at best, and it is at present an unjust accusation. There is humour in proposing that all political and national contests should be determined by boxing; but this ground has been already occupied, with much success, by Fielding.

The Battle Royal, or the Effects of Anticipation: with Strictures on the Odiad, or Battle of Humphries and Mendoza; an heroic Poem. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds.

This pamphlet is filled with quotations, letters from newspapers, &c.—for the purpose of deriving every advantage from the cynthia of the minute. The author possesses some humour, and we wish that it had been better employed.

D R A M A T I C.

The Ton; or, Follies of Fashion. A Comedy. As it was acted at the Theatre-Royal, Covent Garden. By Lady Wallace. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hookham.

That Criticism has smoothed his brows, and laid aside his severity, when a lady sues at his tribunal, confers more honour on his tenderness than his justice, and may add to his character as a gallant, at the expence of his impartiality. In reality, a literary woman is an Amazon, whom it is no disgrace to oppose in the field; for, when she assumes martial weapons, she must submit to the laws of war. Lady Wallace has, however, a claim to our compassion: she has been condemned unheard, or at least has been heard imperfectly; and, while we would soften, if it were possible, the severity of the critical code, in favour of a lady, and an unfortunate one, we cannot silence the hisses of the theatre, nor can we condemn, on cool examination, the verdict of her jury.

The male coquettes have a powerful party in their favour, for not one satire, and we remember several attempts, on their follies, has been permitted to live on the stage. Lady Wallace had, perhaps, too much courage to be frightened with the spectres of murdered embryos, or she had too much dependence on her own comic powers, and extensive interest. Another rock, which proved fatal to her bark, was her own reputation. Wit was expected to flash in every line; every thought was to be

be brilliant, and every situation truly comic. A sprightly play would have fallen short of expectations, which were raised very high; and, unfortunately, spirit and wit have but a small share in this comedy. Genteel comedy, at best, wants poignancy; the polish of fashion wears away the distinguishing asperities; and the Follies of Fashion are often insipid, except to those who feel the force of the satire. One party will consequently yawn, and the other oppose.

If we were to examine this play critically, we should observe, that the conversations were too numerous in proportion to the incidents; that they had little influence on the events, and often were not connected with them; that time was frequently violated; and that the most comic situations had lost their influence, from familiarity. We ought, however, to add, that the characters of the fashionable people, though seemingly of the same kind, were well discriminated, and, in one or two instances, strongly contrasted; that the tale of Julia, the Fanny Mountfort of a novel, whose particular title we do not recollect, is interesting; that the character of lord Ormond (the lord Ossory of the work just mentioned) is drawn with spirit and skill; that the incidents are numerous, and the conversation, though not sprightly, at least free from indelicacy, with which it has been charged. The two plots, indeed, are not dextrously united, so as to form one piece.

Lady Wallace must excuse us for observing, that her play has too many defects to be admitted on the stage. Yet she has been peculiarly unfortunate, that, in consequence of the clamour raised against it, she has been prevented from taking advantage of judicious criticism. Many plays, on their first appearance, have been found to be defective, which have been afterwards amended with good success. She should remember, that from the days of Horace, the vulgus, we suppose he meant, in modern language *THE TOWN*, though it, in a few instances, errs in judgment, generally decides with justice. The public is a many-headed, and often a capricious monster; but all its efforts seldom defeat the success of a truly good play. The utmost that party can do, is to exaggerate the real errors, so that they may hide the beauties.

The Travellers. A Comedy, in three Acts. By Lieutenant Harrison, Mariques. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons.

This play has been read, it seems, with success; but we dare not recommend its trial on the stage. The plot of two fortune-hunters, and a stupid or a ridiculous relation, failing in their matrimonial attempts, and the lady being carried off by a half-pay officer, is far too trite to prove interesting; and the scientific wit, relating to Fossil, and a pretending tutor, by its being beyond the reach of common understandings, is not likely to please. Yet the author possesses a good share of comic humour, and may, with any other story, probably prove a successful wooer of the dramatic Muse.

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Clarissa: or, the Fatal Seduction. A Tragedy. By Robert Perret. 8vo. 5s. Lowndes.

This Tragedy is drawn, with little alteration, from Richardson's celebrated novel. The story of the robbers, who capture Lovelace and Clarissa, on their elopement, as well as young Harlowe and Arabella, is new: the last are murdered by the Banditti, who are brought in to heighten the character of Clarissa, and to be the executors of poetical justice. The subject is, however, in many respects improper for a play, since the catastrophe is known; and events, which follow in long succession, cannot be so artfully combined, as to form a whole, within a proper compass*. These are chiefly the reasons, why our best novels never succeed in a dramatic form. The conduct of this tragedy is, in many other respects, exceptionable; and Clarissa is a very indifferent, as well as an uninteresting performance.

Theatrical Remembrancer. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

The Theatrical Remembrancer is a very convenient, and, so far as we can perceive, a very correct little work, in a portable form. It owes its birth to Mr. Egerton, who arranged the libraries, rich in dramatic collections, of Mr. Henderson, Dr. Wright, and Mr. Pearson. It contains a list of plays, Latin and English, as well as translations from the French, which have either been published, or acted. To the titles is annexed an account of their dates, their sizes, their various editions, and the places where they were performed. The *Notitia Dramatica* is a short chronology of the æras of the stage; and it concludes with the opening of the Royalty Theatre. The work is also illustrated with an index of the titles of the plays, and another of the author's names. The whole appears to be executed with great care and attention. The only errors, which we have discovered are, in one or two instances, where the original author of a French play is mistaken.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Wreck of Westminster Abbey, alias the Tear Two Thousand, alias the Ordeal of Sepulchral Candour. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stalker.

Avaunt, perturbed spirit, who erst wrote epitaphs for Kilkhampton Abbey! and now, with equal virulence, decoratest the walls of that of Westminster, with the fatal poison of slander, or still more destructive drug of flattery!

Avaunt! and quit our fight; let the earth hide thee,

Thy bones are marrowless, thy blood is cold,

Thou hast no speculation in those eyes

Which thou dost glare with — Why so? being gone

We are ourselves again.

* The historical plays of Shakspeare form no exception to these reasons, for their principal merit arises from the excellence of particular scenes, and the bold originality of the language.

Conse against Sound; or, a Succedaneum, for Abbey Music. 4to. 2s. Stalker.

We were pleased with the title; but in the work we found neither sense nor sound. It is an unmeaning rhapsody, by a clergyman's widow, of the various misfortunes that will arise from the omission of the musical festival, which is *not* to be omitted.

The Quip Modest; a few Words by way of Supplement to Remarks, critical and illustrative, on the Text and Notes of the last Edition of Shakspeare. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

This is, indeed, somewhat beyond the retort courteous, and rather borders on the reply churlish. We examined the 'Remarks' in our LVith volume, p. 81. and have unfortunately drawn down upon us the resentment of the author. We are noticed, in a few lines, but they contain heavy charges: 'we do not read the books which we review'—alas! we read too much, for we caught the author tripping, and noticed his thefts. 'We go to meeting,'—is this because we reproved his infidelity? And are only the dissenters licensed to check immorality? We hope that we may be allowed to have the same pretensions. Even the last corrected edition of Shakspeare is incorrect: in ten volumes there are twenty errors actually pointed out, besides &c. &c. which allude, we suppose, to others which may be found. Why, there are eighteen acknowledged errors in one thin volume of the Remarks, and we *can* add our, &c.—The proportion of incorrectness we leave Mr. J. R. to calculate. We do not succeed much better in the course of the notes. It is supposed that we know the reason of affixing the names of Amner and Collins to some exceptionable notes. Indeed we knew more than we chose to own; we know too, that the principles and conduct of our author are, in very many instances, highly reprehensible. The substance of the pamphlet consists chiefly of answers to the objections which have been made to the Remarks, and particularly to Mr. Tyrwhitt.

The King on the Prosecution of R. B. Remmett, Doctor of Physic, against A. Archer, Esq. Folio. 2s. Law.

We cannot again try this prosecution. Mr. Archer assaulted Dr. Remmett, and was punished for it by the Court of King's Bench; and it would be indecent to make any remarks on the decision of that court. We have perused the affidavits which were not permitted to be read; but we do not perceive that they make any considerable alteration in the question.

Picturesque Antiquities of Scotland, etched by Adam de Cardonnel. 2 Vols: 8vo. 18s. in Boards. Edwards.

These remains are etched in a very elegant manner, and serve as head-pieces to the page, in the same way as Mr. Grose's antiquities were published. The first volume contains the religious houses, and the second the ancient castles. To each a suitable introduction is prefixed: in the Introduction to the first volume, the state of religion is examined, from the earliest periods; the constitution of the primitive church explained, till
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it blazed in all the splendor of an hierarchy, and was separated into different orders of monks and friars. Of some of the objects there are two or three representations, in different views; and the history is consequently divided into different pages. At a specimen of our author's manner, we shall select a part of the history of Inch-Colm.

'This monastery had considerable wealth, which, attracting the notice of the English fleet sent into the Frith by king Edward III. anno 1335, was pillaged of every thing valuable. Amongst the spoils was an image of St. Columba, held in great veneration. Soon after this act of sacrilege, the fleet suffered much by a violent tempest, which being considered as a just punishment inflicted by the hand of the Deity for the impious deed, those who had escaped the fury of the waves were so intimidated thereat, that the church and monastery were presented with a valuable offering of gold and silver.

'Alanus de Mortuo Mari, lord of Aberdour, bestowed half of his lands on the monks of this island, in consideration of his being allowed a burying-place for himself and his posterity in the church.

'This island now belongs to the earl of Murray, whose beautiful seat of Dunbrissel lies a very little further up the Frith, upon the edge of the water.'

As an introduction to the second volume, some account is given of the structure of the ancient castles, and particularly of the vitrified walls, of which a description was published some years since. The explanation, which is suggested of the process, is not, however, very satisfactory, since fuel cannot burn so fiercely as to vitrify the pudding-stone, without a constant supply of a stream of air, *through* the fire. The plates and the descriptions resemble those of the first volume. On the whole, these are elegant little volumes, very beautifully printed, on good paper, well calculated for the pockets of the traveller, and very useful assistants to him.

Universal History, commencing with the Creation, and ending 536 Years before the Christian Æra. In Letters from a Father to his Son. By Francis Dobbs, Esq. Vol. I. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Kearsley.

This work is to consist of four volumes, which will be printed if this be favourably received. The first volume terminates at the 356th year before the Christian æra. This is the age of fabulous history, and of course it cannot afford a very proper specimen of the historian's abilities. On the whole, we think Mr. Dobbs has acquitted himself very well: the narrative is clear; the dates well ascertained; and there is less trifling in it than we could have expected. The chronology is that of sir Isaac Newton. We would recommend the future volumes to be illustrated with small and distinctly marked maps: we mean that they should exhibit the principal countries, and show their general size and connection, without crowding them with the names of too many cities.



THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For JUNE, 1788.

The Parian Chronicle, or the Chronicle of the Arundelian Marbles; with a Dissertation concerning its Authenticity. 8vo. 5s. Walter.

THE Arundelian Marbles have hitherto been regarded as a curious monument of antiquity; containing a chronicle which is supposed to have been engraved 264 years before the Christian æra. In its perfect state, it afforded a chronological detail of the principal events of Greece, during a period of 1318 years, beginning with Cecrops, before Christ 1582 years, and ending with the archonship of Diognetus, before Christ 264. The chronicle of the last ninety years, however, being lost, the part now remaining ends at the archonship of Diotimus, 354 years before the birth of Christ; and in this fragment the inscription is at present so much corroded and effaced, that the sense can only be discovered by very learned and industrious antiquaries, or, more properly speaking, supplied by their conjectures.

This Chronicle, and many other relics of antiquity, were purchased in Asia Minor, in Greece, or in the islands of the Archipelago, by Mr. William Petty, who, in the year 1624, was sent by the earl of Arundel for the purpose of making such collections for him in the East. They were brought into England about the beginning of the year 1627, and placed in the gardens belonging to Arundel-house in London. They soon excited a general curiosity; and were viewed by many inquisitive and learned men. At the desire of sir Robert Cotton, Selden engaged in the talk of explaining the Greek inscriptions, and took as co-adjutors two of his friends, Patrick Young, otherwise styled Patricius Junius, and Richard James. They commenced their operations by cleaning and examining the marble, containing the league which the cities of Smyrna and Magnesia entered into, in favour of Seleucus Callinicus, king of Syria. Afterwards they proceeded to the Parian Chronicle, and, in the following year, Selden published the contents of the Arundelian marbles, with a translation and commentary.

VOL. LXV. June 1788.

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During the turbulent reign of Charles I. and the subsequent usurpation, Arundel-house being often deserted by its owners, some of the marbles which were deposited in the gardens were defaced or broken; while others were either stolen, or used for the ordinary purposes of architecture. In 1667, the honourable Henry Howard, grandson of the first collector, presented all that remained of those ancient monuments to the university of Oxford, where they have ever since been preserved with marks of esteem and veneration.

Such is the history of this celebrated Chronicle, the authenticity of which is now, for the first time, called in question by the author of the present treatise, who investigates the subject with equal precision and candour; and displays, in the prosecution of it, much ingenuity, as well as judgment, and a great extent of ancient learning. For the original Chronicle, and the Latin and English translations of it, we must refer our readers to the work, and shall proceed to give an account of the enquiry.

The author informs us, that the doubts which have sometimes occurred to him with respect to the authenticity of the Parian Chronicle, arise from the following considerations:

‘ I. The characters have no certain or unequivocal marks of antiquity.

‘ II. It is not probable, that the Chronicle was engraved for private use.

‘ III. It does not appear to have been engraved by public authority.

‘ IV. The Greek and Roman writers, for a long time after the date of this work, complain, that they had no chronological account of the affairs of ancient Greece.

‘ V. This Chronicle is not once mentioned by any writer of antiquity.

‘ VI. Some of the facts seem to have been taken from authors of a later date.

‘ VII. Parachronisms appear in some of the epochas, which we can scarcely suppose a Greek chronologer, in the cxxix. Olympiad, would be liable to commit.

‘ VIII. The history of the discovery of the marbles is obscure and unsatisfactory.

‘ Lastly, The literary world has been frequently imposed upon by spurious books and inscriptions; and, therefore, we should be extremely cautious, with regard to what we receive under the venerable name of antiquity.’

With regard to the characters in this inscription, the author observes, that the Π and Z , which frequently occur in the form * supposed to be the most ancient, are so well known,

* The perpendicular line of the Π , on the right hand, is only half as long as the parallel line on the left; and the z is in the form of a prostrate H. that

that any modern fabricator of a Greek inscription, which he intends to impose upon the world as a relic of antiquity, would most probably use them, in preference to the more common and ordinary forms; but that the letters in the Parian Chronicle have no appearance of antiquity, except this very equivocal one. They do not in the least resemble the Sigeian; the Nemean, or the Delian inscriptions, which are supposed to be of a more ancient date. They differ, in many respects, from the letters on the Marmor Sandvicense, which, according to the learned editor of that inscription, was engraved in the year before Christ 374. They bear no sort of resemblance to the characters on the Farnesian pillars, to those of the Alexandrian manuscript, or others of a later date. They seem, continues our author, to resemble, perhaps more than any other, the letters of the alphabet, taken by Montfaucon from the Marmor Cyzicenum, at Venice. They are plain and simple in their form, and such as an ordinary stone-cutter of the present age would probably make, if he were employed to engrave a Greek inscription, according to the alphabet now in use. The small letters, intermixed among the larger, have, in the opinion of our author, an air of affectation and artifice, rather than genuine antiquity; and he is persuaded, that the antiquity of an inscription can never be proved by the mere form of the letters; because the most ancient characters may be as easily counterfeited as those which compose our present alphabets.

That the learned reader may form a competent idea of the characters in the Parian Chronicle, a small specimen, accurately copied from a plate in the Marmora Oxoniensia, published by Dr. Chandler, is annexed to this part of the dissertation.

In regard to several archaisms, as they are called, in this Chronicle, and which our author specifies, he contends, that no conclusion can be drawn from them in favour of its authenticity. But what reason could there be, he asks, for introducing these into the Parian Chronicle? He observes, that we do not usually find them in Greek writers of the same age, or even in those of the most early date: that the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, with the twenty-first year of which the date of the Chronicle coincides, was not an age of rude antiquity, with respect to the Greek language; being only 130 years after the time of Xenophon and Plato, when the Greek was spoken and written, in its utmost purity and elegance; and he thinks, we can scarcely suppose that even a stone-cutter, in that refined age, would have been permitted to disgrace a superb and learned monument with such barbarisms as

occur in the Chronicle. The archaisms, however, he farther remarks, are not uniformly observed in this inscription. He adduces six instances of deviation; and adds, he is almost tempted to suspect, that *ἐμ Παριῶν*, *ἐμ Μαράθων*, and other 'pretended' archaisms, are owing to a mere affectation of antiquity, or to a corrupted dialect and pronunciation in later ages. These archaisms, our author acknowledges, appear on other marbles; but he thinks that, for that very reason, they would naturally be adopted by the fabricator of a supposititious inscription; and the authenticity of those inscriptions, in which they appear, must be established, before they can be urged in opposition to the present argument.

The author then proceeds to the second of the considerations, on which are founded his doubts respecting the authenticity of the Parian Chronicle. He thinks it scarcely probable, that such an expensive and cumbersome work could have been executed by a private citizen, either for his own amusement, or for the benefit of his fellow-citizens. In the first place, a long inscription could not be engraved in marble without such an expence as few learned Greeks were able to afford. Or, if the author, by an uncommon felicity, was able to erect such a literary monument, the scheme would have been useless and imprudent; as all the contents of the inscription might have been published more commodiously and effectually, by the common mode of writing, in use at that time.

A variety of arguments is adduced by our author, illustrating the superiority of a manuscript to such an inscription as the Chronicle, in a number of respects; and enforcing the improbability of its having ever been executed, either for private or public use. He likewise produces much evidence from ancient history, in support of the assertion, that the common mode of writing, in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, was not on stones.

The author next endeavours to show, that the Chronicle does not appear to have been engraved by public authority. The first argument in support of this opinion is, that inscriptions of that kind usually begin with a particular form; as *Ἡ ΒΟΥΛΗ ΚΑΙ Ο ΔΗΜΟΣ*, 'the senate and the people;' or thus: *ΕΔΟΞΕΝ ΤΗ ΒΟΥΛΗ ΚΑΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΔΗΜΟΙΣ*, 'it pleased the senate and the people,' &c. But the Parian Chronicle begins in the manner of a private man; speaking of his own performance in the first person singular. This argument, our author remarks, cannot be much affected by observing, that the beginning of the inscription is obliterated; for it is necessarily implied by the words now remaining. Secondly, the facts

facts and dates, which are mentioned in this Chronicle, do not appear to have been extracted from any public records, or calculated to answer the purpose of authentic documents; as many eminent princes and magistrates are passed over without notice; in several instances, the transactions of whole centuries are omitted; and the facts, chiefly specified, are not matters of general or national importance. Other observations are advanced on this head, but these we shall pass over, to lay before our readers the conclusion of this chapter.

‘Archilochus, the inventor or the first improver of the iambic verse, was a native of Paros. This ancient poet is mentioned by many of the Greek and Roman writers with great encomiums. Horace thought his numbers and poetic spirit worthy of his imitation. Quintilian says, his writings were distinguished by energy of language, comprehensive brevity, striking sentiments, and poignancy of satire. Valerius Maximus represents him as the greatest poet, or the next to the greatest. Pindar informs us, that one of the hymns of Archilochus was in such estimation, that it was usually sung three times to the honour of those who had gained the victory at the Olympic games.

‘Aristides the rhetorician places him in the first rank of those illustrious poets, who have been an ornament to their country. Homer, he observes, has added a glory to Smyrna, Archilochus to Paros, Hesiod to Bœotia, Simonides to Ceos, Stesichorus to Himera, Pindar to Thebes, Sappho and Alceus to Mitylenæ. “Wise men,” says Alcidas, as quoted by Aristotle, “are respected in all countries. For this reason, Archilochus, though he was the author of some defamatory compositions, was honoured by the Parians.”

‘Some of the foregoing circumstances, and perhaps others of more importance, which are not mentioned by the Greek historians, would have naturally occurred to an ancient writer, composing an inscription for a marble monument in the island of Paros.

‘But what scheme does our chronologer pursue on this occasion? Does he record the events and revolutions of his own country? Does he mention any of the battles, sieges, treaties, of the Parians? any of their public institutions? any of their poets, patriots, or warriors? Does he mention Archilochus, who was honoured by his countrymen, and distinguished, as a poet, in a general assembly of the Greeks?—Not a syllable on any of these subjects! On the contrary, he rambles from place to place, and records the transactions of Athens, Corinth, Macedonia, Lydia, Crete, Cyprus, Sicily, Persia, and other foreign countries, with which Paros had no connection.

‘In this view the inscription seems to have been as impertinent in the island of Paros, as a marble monument would be

in this country, recording the antiquities of France or Spain ; or one in Jamaica, containing the revolutions of England.

‘Upon a supposition, that the inscription is a forgery, it is easy to account for this extraordinary circumstance. A few chronological occurrences, in the ancient history of Paros, would not have been so interesting to the generality of readers ; or so valuable in the estimation of every lover of antiquities ; or, in short, so profitable to the compiler, as a general system of Grecian chronology.’

In the succeeding chapter the author proceeds to the fourth consideration proposed, viz. That the Greek and Roman writers, for a long time after the date of this work, complain that they had no chronological account of the affairs of ancient Greece. This proposition, maintained with great force of evidence, and much learning, is continued through the next chapter, which concludes with a series of interrogatories, tending strongly to invalidate the authenticity of the Chronicle.

‘Thucydides, I know, lived 140 years before the Chronicle is said to have been written ; but if Thucydides, as well as other writers, complained that there was nothing but uncertainty in the earlier periods of Grecian history, from whence can we suppose the author of this inscription collected such a clear, determinate, and comprehensive system of chronology ?

‘If he had any sources of information, which were unknown to succeeding writers, how happens it, that they should all of them overlook this most considerable, most exact, most creditable author ? Why did they omit this ancient account of their early ages ? Why did they not copy his most memorable epochs ? Why did they not produce his authority ? or, at least, why did they not mention his opinion ? Surely nothing, to all appearance, could be more elaborate, more important, or of higher authority, than a chronological table, which was thought worthy of being engraved on marble !’

The silence of the ancients, with respect to the Parian Chronicle, is undoubtedly not a circumstance in its favour. Our author observes, that if this Chronicle had existed 264 years before the birth of Christ, and, more especially, if it had been compiled by public authority, or even known at Paros, it must have excited a general attention, and would certainly have been copied, or cited, or praised, or censured, or mentioned by some writers of succeeding times. But neither Strabo, Pliny, Pausanias, nor Athenæus, who mention the most remarkable curiosities of different countries ; neither Apollodorus, Diodorus Siculus, Tatian, Clemens Alexandrinus, nor Eusebius, who professedly treat of the fabulous ages of Greece,

Greece, take the least notice of this wonderful monument of ancient learning. In short, there is not, in any writer of antiquity, the most distant allusion to the Parian Chronicle; though it was such a common practice among the ancients to mention the works of their predecessors, that in many books we find references and allusions to three, four, five, six, or seven hundred different authors of every denomination.

Our author observes, there are three objections which may be alledged against the preceding argument. First, as there were many chronological writers among the Greeks, the author of the Parian Chronicle might have been one of them, and cited under his proper name, without any reference to the inscription. Secondly, this Chronicle has been ascribed to Demetrius Phalereus. Thirdly, the works of some eminent writers of antiquity, such as Phædrus and Q. Curtius, lay in obscurity for many centuries, and were not discovered till later ages. The author invalidates, by strong arguments, the first and second of these objections; and, to obviate the force of the third, he has recourse to a train of observations, which, we must acknowledge, are no less satisfactory.

The author next observes, that some of the facts mentioned in the Chronicle seem to have been taken from writers of a later date. He collates several passages in the Parian Chronicle with parallel passages in Greek authors, to evince that there is, in the former, an appearance of imitation; or a stronger resemblance than such as may be supposed to arise from accident. That there are likewise some improbabilities attending the account of Deucalion, as related in the Parian Chronicle; and that the names of six, and, if the Lacunæ are properly supplied, the names of twelve cities appear to have been engraved on the marble, exactly as we find them in Ælian's *Various History*. But there is not, our author observes, any imaginable reason for this particular arrangement. It does not correspond with the time of their foundation, with their situation in Ionia, with their relative importance, or with the order in which they are placed by other eminent historians. The argument by which our author endeavours to prove that the Parian Chronicle has, in this instance, copied Ælian's *Various History*, is, we think, decisive of the fact. He observes, that six names may be transposed 720 different ways; and that twelve names admit of 479,001,600 different transpositions. Supposing then, that there is no particular reason for one arrangement rather than another, it will follow, that the chance of two authors, placing them in the same order, is, in the former case, as 1 to 720; and in the later, as 1 to 479,001,600. It is therefore, says he, utterly improbable,

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that

that these names would have been placed in this order on the marble, if the author of the inscription had not transcribed them from the historian.

We shall just observe, with regard to this similarity of arrangement in the Parian Chronicle and Ælian's *Various History*, that the inference might be the very inverse of that which is specified by our author. But that Ælian should have seen the Parian Chronicle, without once mentioning it; or that he should have exactly copied a list of towns, arranged neither according to chronological nor topographical order, is indeed a supposition equally improbable with the other.

This ingenious enquirer, after specifying several parachronisms, which appear in some of the epochas in the Chronicle, asks the following questions:

‘Would a writer of reputation and learning, in one of the most polished and enlightened æras of ancient Greece, commit such mistakes, in opposition to the positive attestations of the most accurate historians, in events of public notoriety? Would a private citizen, or a magistrate of Paros, order a crude and inaccurate series of epochas to be engraved, at a great expence, and transmitted to posterity on a marble monument?—It is hardly probable.’

That the discovery of the Parian Chronicle is related in a very obscure and unsatisfactory manner, cannot be denied. Our author observes, that it is attended with some suspicious circumstances, and without any of those clear and unequivocal evidences, which always discriminate truth from falsehood. There are no data in the inscription, by which to discover the place where the marble was erected. The place, likewise, where it was found, is not ascertained; though the generality of writers who have had occasion to mention it have supposed that it was found in the island of Paros. If it was erected at Smyrna, as some imagine, our author asks, for what purpose does the writer mention Astyanax, the archon of Paros, and not one circumstance relative to Smyrna? If, adds he, it was erected at Paros, why does he not mention more archons of that city than one? Or how shall we account for his profound silence with respect to all the events and revolutions which must have happened in that island, and have been infinitely more interesting to the natives than the transactions of any foreign country?

The train of circumstances by which the Parian Chronicle came into the possession of Mr. Petty, whom lord Arundel had sent into the East for the purpose of collecting antiquities, as well as the subsequent conduct of Peiresc, its former owner, affords our author a strong presumption, that ‘the inscription
was

was actually fabricated, with the view of obtaining for it a high price, upon the pretence that it was a relic of great antiquity. It is certain, that there is something mysterious in the conduct of the first ostensible proprietors. These marbles had been totally unknown, or unnoticed for almost nineteen hundred years, and, at last, they are dug out of the ground—no body can tell us WHEN or WHERE!

Our author afterwards adduces a number of examples, to show that the world has been often imposed upon by spurious books and inscriptions. Though one of the more recent instances cited on this occasion, we mean the poems of Ossian, be still a disputed point, yet, that deceptions of this kind have been practised, both in ancient and modern times, is an unquestionable fact; and, independently of every example, the possibility of such a deception must be universally acknowledged.

Such are the arguments and observations advanced by the author of the dissertation, as precisely as they can be exhibited in an abridged detail, and detached from the mass of ancient learning, historical, critical, and philological, with which they are connected in the enquiry. From the consideration of every circumstance relative to the Chronicle; in particular, that the characters have no certain or unequivocal marks of antiquity; the improbability, likewise, of its being engraved either for private use, or by public authority; the total silence of ancient authors concerning it; the internal evidence unfavourable to the authenticity of the inscription; and, lastly, the dark and unsatisfactory circumstances accompanying its discovery; from all these considerations, the author urges the most unfavourable inference against the authenticity of the Arundelian Marbles, and concludes with observing, that their authority is, at least, extremely apocryphal.

We have thus laid before our readers a concise account of the present treatise, in justice to the ingenuity, acuteness, and learning which the author has displayed; and we shall attend with the same impartiality to what may afterwards be advanced in defence of this supposed ancient monument, by those who entertain different sentiments respecting its authenticity.

A Course of Lectures on the Figurative Language of the Holy Scripture, and the Interpretation of it from the Scripture itself.
By William Jones, M.A. F.R.S. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons.

IN our former examination of Mr. Jones's works we have had occasion to remark the singularity of his opinions, while we paid him the tribute of praise which his good sense and his knowledge had deserved. In his present Lectures we perceive

ceive some eccentricity ; but nothing which detracts from his former credit.—The Scriptures, he thinks, teach us many doctrines, of which we could have no idea independent of revelation : truths, therefore, so momentous, so remote from human reason, will not be readily understood ; and the Scriptures, independent of this inherent difficulty, still contain some hidden, joined with the more obvious doctrines, which the apostles have been distinguished by, the terms of the *letter*, and the *spirit* of the gospel. That mental faculty, by which the revelation of the hidden things of God is understood, Mr. Jones calls faith, with perhaps too little precision as a logician :—the hidden doctrines, the mysteries of the gospel, which may be considered as its spirit, it is our author's design to elucidate by an attention to the figurative language. The Jews erred by literal exposition : Mr. Jones soars into higher regions. We shall follow him and examine his success.

The figurative language of the New Testament is taken from sensible objects ; from the institutions of the law ; from the persons of the prophets, and ' holy men of old time ;'—the history of the church of Israel ; and, lastly, from the actions of inspired men.—The different metaphors, in Scripture, are examined in this order, and under these heads. Mr. Jones is occasionally fanciful ; but he is often judicious. In the following explanation we think he is not sufficiently exact.

' Here I would also observe, that the figures of the scripture necessarily introduce something figurative into our worship ; of which I could give you several instances ; but I shall confine myself to the matter now before us. The primitive Christians signified their relation to the true light, and expressed a religious regard to it, by the outward form of worshipping with their faces toward the east ; because there the light first arises out of darkness, and there the day of true knowledge arose, like the sun, upon such as lay buried in ignorance. To this day our churches, especially that part which is appropriated to the most solemn act of Christian worship, is placed toward the east : our dead are buried with their faces to the east : and when we repeat the articles of our faith, we have a custom of turning ourselves to the east. The primitive Christians called their baptism their illumination ; to denote which, a light was put into the hands of the person after baptism, and they were admitted to hear the lectures of the catechists in the church, under the name of the illuminated. The festival of Christ's baptism was celebrated in the month of January, with the ceremony of a number of lighted torches. When the converts repeated the confession of their faith at baptism, they turned themselves to the east ; and to the west when they renounced the powers of darkness.'

Of the figures taken from the law of Moses, one, which relates

relates to the infidelity of the Jewish church, is extremely curious.

‘ If a woman was suspected to be an adulteress by a husband who was jealous of her, and there was no proof, she was to present herself before the priest and stand the trial of a water-ordeal: a bitter water which caused the curse was to be offered to her; and when the curses were pronounced conditionally upon her supposed guilt, she was to venture the consequences, and say, Amen. The priest was to write down the form of the curses against her in a book, and to blot them out with the bitter water if she proved to be innocent; if not, they were then to remain there upon record against her. If she was actually defiled, this water was to go into her bowels and take effect upon her body in a fearful manner, and she was to be a curse among the people.

‘ This institution explains some very difficult passages in the 109th Psalm, that prophecy of God’s judgment against the apostate Jewish church, on whom, as upon a guilty adulteress against a jealous God, denying her sin, and defying the divine vengeance, the curse was to take effect as against the woman in the law. The psalm is worded as if it were meant of some single wicked person, and it is accordingly applied to the reprobation of Judas; but other passages, and the use made of them by the inspired writers, shew that it must be extended to the Jewish church at large, of which Judas, in his name, and his sin, and his punishment, was no more than a leader and an example. Here then it is said, when he shall be judged let him be condemned; when he is put to the trial, let him be found guilty; and “let his prayer be turned into sin;” let it be as that offering which “bringeth iniquity to remembrance,” without oil or incense to recommend it for acceptance: “let not the sin of his mother be blotted out,” but stand upon record as the curses against the sin of the adulteress, which the water was not to take away: “As he loved cursing so let it come unto him—let it come into his bowels like water,” even like that bitter water which descended with a curse into the bowels of the guilty woman. As she exposed herself in form to the curse, and said, Amen, to all the terms of it; so did the Jews challenge the curse of heaven, which accordingly took place on them and their posterity.

The civil institution, applied to the person of the Messiah, is not very pointedly applicable, though it would have furnished a very proper specimen of Mr. Jones’s ingenuity, if it was not already sufficiently known. From the conduct of the Israelites too, he warns us against, not idolatry, but innovations: from the suggestions of the Egyptians, who wandered about the tents of the Israelites, though we know not by what authority this fact is proved; but, from *their* instigation, the Jews, he thinks, became idolaters; and he fears the greatest dangers

dangers from the corruption of modern innovators. Edwards's *Gangræna* is quoted to show, that, previous to the fatal war between the king and the parliament, numerous innovations in religion appeared. It is undoubtedly a fact, that free-thinking, and, in some respects, just reasoning, led to the various opinions which at last drew the kingdom to the brink of destruction; but the difference of the present situation may disarm us of our fear. When the bulk of mankind only first began to use reason, there might have been a well-grounded expectation that they would abuse it. Our reason, at present, though it may suggest a variety of views, is become more cool and experienced, and will point out the danger of making any very considerable change in practice, though we may, for a time, fondly indulge a delusive theory: in short, we have very little dread of that universal destruction of church and state which is to follow from the prevalence of unitarianism. The remarks on the danger which must attend a distrust of God's providence are of more importance, and equally correct and judicious.

The lectures, which relate to the personal figures and types of the Scripture, we think, in many respects, extremely valuable. The parallel between Moses, Joseph, and Christ, with the applications of the different passages in their respective lives, deserves much praise. The whole is, however, too closely connected to enable us to extract any particular passage.

The tenth lecture is on the miracles, particularly on the miracles of the New Testament, as they belong to the figurative language of the Scriptures. In this lecture there is too much fancy. From the different miracles our Saviour always endeavoured to impress some useful moral lesson; but we cannot think that the miracles themselves were the lesson. To heal the leper, to raise the dead, and to feed five thousand who followed him, were real benefits; and if, with the health of the body, he could contribute to the health of the soul, we need not consider the solid advantage as a figurative lesson only. Much less can we think the death of the widow's son at Nain, an emblem of the sceptical insensibility of some who are ministers of the Gospel. There are many similar passages in this lecture, which seem to rest on a very insecure foundation.—The lecture on the uses and effects of the symbolical style of the holy Scriptures, contains some judicious remarks, and a few of the fancies of the tenth lecture: that much of the ancient doctrine, profane as well as sacred, was symbolical, is well known.

To the Lectures on the Figurative Language of the Holy Scriptures are added four Lectures on St. Paul's Epistle to the Hebrews.

Hebrews. In these our author follows the plan of the Apostle; and considers, 1st, the person of the Son of God, as described in the Old Testament; 2dly, the religion of the Gospel, as the same, under both dispensations; and 3dly, the church of Israel as a figure of the church of Christ. In the first part, the character of Christ is distinctly examined, as a lawgiver, priest, and saviour: the second position is proved by two general reasons, that the name is the same in both religions; since both are spoken of as the Gospel, and both depend on one great principle, faith, or rather a belief in God, a dependence on him for his protection here, and his rewards hereafter. Many subordinate arguments are also adduced to the same purpose. The church in general, as a spiritual society, must be the same in all ages, and in all places: if there was only one religion, there must be one church only. Mr. Jones's allusion between the visible and invisible church, as compared to the soul and body, which form one man, is more visionary than solid.—The last lecture is an excellent one, on the moral of the Christian doctrines, as related in the Epistle to the Hebrews. We shall give a short specimen.

“ From the consideration, that true religion has always had the same object from the beginning of the world, namely, that of bringing men to God by the way of faith and patience; and that “ Jesus Christ is the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever; yesterday,” under the law; to-day, under the Gospel; and for ever, in the kingdom of glory: we should learn to be steadfast in this ancient plan, and look with a suspicious eye upon all pretended reformatations and improvements of modern Christians, who are inventing new modes of faith, and would shew us what they call a more excellent way. Vanity is always fond of novelty: you see it every day in the common change of fashions: and, therefore, vain men are carried about with every wind of doctrine, propagated by those who are ignorant of the antiquity of that religion, by which all believers have been and are now to be saved. If men did but study the scripture on a right principle, without a spirit of party, and enquired duly into primitive Christianity, they would be ashamed of the little mean differences and distinctions which divide their hearts, and break them into sects; filling them with a Pharisaical pride against one another; as if the “ end of the commandment were not charity,” but hatred, contempt, and ill-will.

“ To prevent this, the Apostle instructs the Hebrews to, “ obey them that have the rule over them,” their lawful pastors and teachers, whom Christ hath appointed to keep them in the way of peace; and whose studies and labours must qualify them to inform and direct the ignorant better than they can direct themselves. An abuse of the principles of the Reformation, which can never be sufficiently lamented, has at length made every

every man his own teacher, and established a spirit of self-exaltation and opposition, than which no temper is more hateful to God, because none is so destructive of piety and peace. Christians should leave that to the sons of the earth, who are disputing for power, places, and pre-eminence; with whom gain is godliness, because they have no God but Mammon and Belial, no views nor hopes beyond the present life.'

The concluding essay is not connected with the former lectures: it is on the natural evidence of Christianity, delivered as a sermon, on Mr. Fairchild's foundation at St. Leonard's, Shoreditch. This discourse is rather neat than persuasive; pleasing rather than convincing. We say this in relation to its professed design, which appears to have been to raise the doctrines of the Gospel on the foundation of natural philosophy; or to show what the Gospel predicts is probable from what we know of the constitution of the globe, in opposition to some philosophers, who think that the extent of our enquiries will lead to the destruction of religion.

On the whole, we have been pleased even with the errors in this volume, since much ingenuity is displayed in their support, and we have been instructed by many of the observations which occur in it.

A short Description of Pyrmont, with Observations on the Use of its Waters. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

THIS is an abstract of Dr. Macard's work, entitled, *A Description of Pyrmont*, written in German, and translated into French. Of this Description two volumes are only published; but of the third, which contains an account of the external use of these waters, some little notice is taken, in the words, as it seems, of the author, by whom it was communicated. Dr. Macard is a very able and ingenious physician; and this little work contains an advantageous specimen of his abilities. The description is clear and accurate: the account of the virtues of the waters, *pretty* free from the exaggeration which usually colours a favourite subject; and the incidental information deserving of attention.

Pyrmont is a village in the circle of Westphalia, subject to the count of Waldeck. It is situated in a fruitful plain, well watered, and surrounded by romantic mountains. The ground around is filled with the aerial acid, which often arises through spiracula, and fills different caverns; it impregnates all the water, in different proportions, and seems to give additional salubrity to the air, instead of detracting from it. The accommodations are well adapted to the situations of those who visit Pyrmont; and the soil, a calcareous iron stone, joined with

with clay, is sufficiently bibulous to absorb the rain, though it is not capable of being comminuted into dust. The consequence is, that exercise, in the open air, is seldom impracticable, or inconvenient.

The analysis of the waters, by Dr. Macard, differs greatly, in the proportion of the ingredients, from that of Dr. Higgins, not with respect to the volatile parts, but the salts and earths, which cannot be changed by carriage. Besides the fixed air, our author observes, that a pound of water contains eight grains and a half of magnesia, seven and a half of Epsom salt, three of Glauber's salt, a *few* grains of calcareous earth, some sal marinum and selenite, with a small portion of resinous matter. Dr. Higgins makes, in an equal quantity, about two and three-fourths of magnesia, four grains of Epsom salt, no Glauber's salt, five grains of calcareous earth, suspended by aerial acid, about seven and a half grains of selenite. This difference we cannot reconcile. Dr. Macard seems anxious to support the credit of the Pyrmont water against that of Dörburg, which, at any rate, contains more earth, but it seems not to be in so much greater quantity as is suggested in this work.

We should look chiefly at the volatile ingredients for the efficacy of the Pyrmont water. Though it has been often suggested that iron, in small quantities, is very efficacious, and much has been said of its utility in an attenuated state, we cannot find well authenticated comparative experiments to support this extraordinary efficacy. Analogy does not assist us; for whatever medicine is tonic in a large dose, is less so in a small one, except where the large dose is indigestible, and lies heavy on the stomach. In another class of medicines, the narcotics, the principle is better founded, and the medicines are sometimes proportionably more useful in smaller doses, and a more divided form. While, in the Pyrmont waters, the fixed air acts as a stimulus to the stomach, the salts assist the intestinal action, and renders it more regular. Exercise and free air add to the efficacy of all; and render Pyrmont a salutary refuge for invalids. Externally, the water is more tonic, perhaps from the iron, if it be true, as is asserted, that a person, coming out of the bath, is covered with ochry matter. It is used from 88 degrees of heat to 95 degrees; at the lowest degree, is rather tonic than relaxing; at the highest, it would relax, in some measure, if it were simple water. We are not well aware of what is meant by a resinous matter, said to be found in the analysis: we know that all water contains some oil, and the salts procured by evaporation are usually tinged with it. Perhaps M. Westrumb means no more.

From the incidental information, we shall extract a piece of medical advice, not generally known.

‘The visceral glysters of the late Mr Kämpf, consist of a strong infusion of dissolving and somewhat bitter ingredients, mostly herbs, and some bran. They are taken twice a day, and kept in the intestines as long as possible, which, after some use, is very easily done, when care is taken that the rectum be previously emptied by a stool. This glyster is entirely absorbed by the capillary vessels of the intestines, and experience has proved it to be a more powerful method in dissolving obstructions, or infarctus of the lower belly, than any method whatever. The following receipt may serve as an instance, which will do in many cases, but may be altered according to the circumstances.

‘R Rad. Taraxaci Herb. Fumar.—Saponar. Card. Bened. Fior. Verbasc.—Chamom. ana \mathfrak{z} i furfurar. triticar. paululum ustulatarum \mathfrak{z} vi confcis. D. S. Manip. ii infund. cum aquæ bullient. \mathfrak{z} viii, stet in vase clauso in loco calido per horas vi; dein col. et applic.’

We can add nothing to this note from our own experience, or from any other author.

A remedy for nervous complaints, much used in Germany, is said to be strong vitriolic acid, a little dulcified with some spirit of wine. It is not said, whether the spirit is added extemporaneously, or combined in distillation. But, as we were referred to the great Haller, we looked at the subject in his works. His remarks may be found in the Pathological Observations (Op. Minor. tom. iii. p. 381.) The remedy is proposed on some loose theory; but it consists of oil of vitriol digested with equal parts, in bulk, we suppose, of spirit of wine. The preparation is inserted in the last edition of the New Brunswick Dispensatory, and styled elixir acidum Halleri. As it is left in uncertainty, whether bulk or weight are designed, we shall transcribe the receipt. ‘R. ol. vitriol.—Spiritus vini rectificatissimi ana p. æ. misceantur secundum artem,’ p. 220. We shall extract only one short passage more.

‘It has often been observed, that a smaller quantity of the Pyrmont water will operate better, and produce more stools, joined with some strengthening remedy, such as the essential salt of the bark, extract of quassia, &c. than if used alone. This is certainly a circumstance which may afford subject for further enquiry; Dr. M. frequently observed, that purging medicines in general will operate with more energy when joined with tonics.’

We need not particularly enumerate the diseases for which the Pyrmont waters are useful, or transcribe the accommodations for invalids. On the whole, this is a judicious little abstract, and contains sufficient information for those who wish to drink of this fountain of health, at its source, or even to partake of its salubrious streams at a distance. *A De-*

A Description of all the Bursa Mucoſæ of the Human Body, illustrated with Tables. By Alex. Monro, M. D. Folio. 12s. in Boards. Elliot.

WE are much indebted to Dr. Monro, for a description of those cavities, which have either escaped the notice of former anatomists, or whose structure and situation have been misrepresented, or misunderstood. Yet, for the reasons which we once gave *, these anatomical investigations, though they are almost exclusively the discoveries of Dr. Monro, will not be wholly new to our readers; they have been for fifteen years described, in part, in his lectures, mentioned by his pupils, and demonstrated by other lecturers. They were first pointed out distinctly by Albinus, who mentions but a few: at present, however, 140 are well known, and accurately described. They occur entirely in the extremities, and are designed to prevent the friction of tendons, to give an ease and a facility of motion, by containing a fluid capable of expansion and compression. They are placed sometimes behind, sometimes before, the tendons; between contiguous tendons; between tendons and ligaments; where the processes of bones play on ligaments; or where one bone plays on another. Sometimes a few bursa of contiguous tendons communicate with each other, and sometimes their cavities communicate with those of the neighbouring joint, without impairing its motion. Bursa are even discovered between the most moveable bones of the carpus.

A particular description of the cavities follow: it is illustrated by tables, of which we can only say, that they are not uniformly black; though, after a little inspection, they really appear to bear a distant resemblance to what they were designed to represent. We cannot always say so much for the illustrations of Dr. Monro's works. The bursa is composed of a very thin, and a very dense membrane; even with this assistance, it is not exposed to the friction of a bone, without the interposition of a layer of cartilage, or something which resembles it. In the cavity a mass of fat, with reddish borders or fringes, is suspended; and the internal surface is lubricated by a slippery fluid, probably, in the living body, in a state of vapour, and resembling the synovia of the joints. Indeed, in the most essential respects, the cavity of a bursa, and of a joint, resemble each other. Fat, in general, Dr. Monro thinks, is contained in vascular follicles, from the internal surface of which it is secreted, and through which it is again strained, without any perceptible organic duct; it is nearly

* See our Review of Monro's Nervous System, vol. LVith, p. 259.

the same in the joint; and the oil of the fatty bag is, in our author's opinion, united with the watery or mucilaginous fluid, excreted by the sides of the cavity of the joint or bursa.

The similarity between the bursa and the joints is proved also by disease: the cavities communicate with each other, we have said, without injury; they are both subject to dropsies, to scrophulous swellings, and to little cartilaginous tumours, which generally grow from, and are nourished by means of a peduncle. Membranes of each when sound, have little sensibility, and very great when wounded. The access of air is highly injurious to both. Dr. Monro thinks that there is also some similarity between the membranes of the bursa, the pleura, the pericardium, and the peritonæum. In the cavities of the latter there are no fatty fimbriæ, and consequently their fluids must be different. But we are told that, in a hydrocele of the vaginal coat of the testicle, there were found four small cartilaginous bodies: one of these adhered slightly to the epididymis.

As the cavities of the bursa are so easily affected by the admission of external air, Dr. Monro is naturally led to consider the cause of the dangerous inflammation, which generally follows the wound of a shut sac. This cause is pretty certainly the access of the external air; and the means of preventing the effect is undoubtedly to lessen, as much as possible, the contact of this injurious fluid; sometimes by wounding the skin, after it is drawn up, so that the orifice of the integuments may not coincide with that of the cavity; when the cavity is perforated with a trocar, by passing it obliquely; in a tympany or a paracentesis of the thorax, for discharging effused air by sucking out the remaining air by a syringe or an elastic bottle; by stitching the wound with more accuracy than usual; by address and quickness in the operation. Much of the danger, in the high operation of the stone, arose, in our author's opinion, from this cause; and so much of the danger in the operation of the hernia is owing to it, that he advises us to divide the tendon only, and not to open the sac, unless there be an adhesion or a certain mortification. Even a slight tendency to mortification is, he seems to think, less dangerous than the access of air to the cavity of the peritonæum, or to the surface of the intestines. As this is, however, a subject of importance, let us select our author's own directions. Several dangerous cases are adduced to confirm their propriety by success.

‘ If the surgeon is not called till the bowels are evidently in a state of mortification, the method recommended by authors is to be followed.

‘ But if he is called in proper time, after trying in vain the ordinary

ordinary method of reducing the bowels, he ought to operate more early than is commonly done, or before the inflammation can have produced adhesion; in which case the operation, after dividing the skin, should consist merely in the taking off the stricture by cutting the tendon. In this case, after the skin, opposite to the ring is cut, the stricture is to be taken off by dividing the tendon; after which the bowels may, by gentle pressure, be returned into the abdomen, without any danger of their suffering by being twisted; the inflammation which follows the division of the tendon, especially if the sides of the incision in the skin be joined by stitches, will scarcely be greater than where the skin alone is divided.

‘ By the by, I would here observe, that the division of the tendon in the crural hernia is not attended with that degree of danger which some of the latest and most eminent writers have supposed, providing the edge of the knife be turned toward the umbilicus; in which direction both the epigastric artery and spermatic chord are at the greatest distance from it; and that the knife be used like a saw, dividing cautiously with it one tendinous fasciculus after another.

‘ If after dividing the tendon, the bowels cannot be easily returned into the abdomen, there may be room for suspecting that they are confined by a stricture of the neck of the sac, especially in the hernia congenita; which must therefore be in the next place removed.

‘ If the herniary sac under the straitened place of its neck be thin and transparent, and that there is little or no reason to suspect an adhesion of the bowels with the sac, the best method will be to make a small hole in the sac below the stricture, and then to introduce a small furrowed probe, and to cut cautiously upon it: but if the sac be thick and dark coloured, and that there is likewise a suspicion that the bowels may adhere to it, the easiest and safest manner will be to make the hole in the peritonæum above the stricture; then to introduce a common probe, bent near its point into a semicircle; and to introduce this with its point directed downwards, through the stricture into the sac; and, upon the point of it, to make with great caution another small hole: after which we may either cut upon the probe, or introduce a furrowed probe, and divide the neck of the sac.

‘ After this the bowels are to be returned by a pressure upon the sac, without opening it further; and the wound in the skin is to be stitched so accurately, by passing the stitches about the breadth of the finger from each other, as to prevent the access of the air. The wound in the skin ought likewise to be dressed with large pieces of lint spread with simple cerate, and these should be covered with a compress.

‘ In the hernia congenita, when the bowels are in the same sac with the testicle, it is still more necessary than in the most common kind of hernia to avoid opening the herniary sac, as

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the inflammation of the testicle would add considerably to the danger.'

Dr. Monro thinks Mr. Pött to have been inaccurate in saying that a hernia, from early infancy, is probably a hernia congenita; and that there is neither any external mark by which it is possible to distinguish it from a common hernia, or any utility in the distinction. In the first, he says that the bowels push down between the sac and the forepart and sides of the testicle, so as often to conceal it in a great measure: in the latter, every part of the testicle can be felt distinctly. The utility arises from the greater danger of permitting the air to have access to the testicle; and from the necessity which there is, in operating on the hernia congenita, to exclude it carefully.

The remaining plates represent the fimbriæ and the fatty substance of the joints and bursæ, of their natural size, and magnified; the globules of fat magnified; different views of a great variety of cartilaginous bodies, and holes in the coats of the intestine, either eroded by the acrid matter of a dysentery, or formed by pins which had been swallowed.

We cannot conclude without thanking our author for this useful anatomical work: of the surgical part, we have given no opinion, because we wish to speak of it after some cautious trials. Of the practical part, relating to dropsies of the joint, and of the bursæ, we can speak from experience, with commendation, though the author does not give quite so much credit to purgatives as we think they deserve. We hope Dr. Monro will next turn his attention to other parts of the fresh joints; as this branch of anatomy requires yet many explanations.

Remarks on Josephus's Account of Herod's Rebuilding of the Temple at Jerusalem. By T. Burges, A. M. Fellow of C. C. C. Oxford, and Prebendary of Salisbury. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Elmly.

THIS is a very valuable and learned criticism on Josephus's account of Herod's rebuilding the temple at Jerusalem, intended as an answer to a pamphlet which we reviewed in our LXIII^d volume, p. 263. This work was designed to show that, in reality, Herod enlarged and adorned the temple, instead of rebuilding it. Haggai's very pointed prophecy of the glory of this second temple is not very consistent with the state in which it then was, unless it be considered as relative to our Saviour; and it could not relate to him, if the temple were not the same. The opinion of the author of the Evidence, we were well aware, was conjectural only; but the conjecture seemed a happy one, and an hypothesis in philosophy

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no longer is called so, if it explains the phænomena. It is true, indeed, that it must be supported at the expence of Josephus's accuracy; and Mr. Burges's is unwilling to allow any imputation of that kind, on an historian whose historical evidence relating to our Saviour is considered of much importance. A disputed passage, of no great value, need not awake any very considerable apprehensions. If Josephus be supposed correct in his facts, and in his language, the chain of evidence in the former pamphlet falls to the ground. But the words of Haggai, foretelling the glory of that temple, which filled the eyes of the Jews with tears on account of its insignificancy, in comparison with Solomon's (Hag. ii. 3.) must surely relate to a future state of ornament, or some event which would give a lustre superior to any ornament. If Herod rebuilt the temple, there is no proof of any glory of either kind. If he added to its height and splendor only, the accounts are sufficiently compatible.

The whole of Mr. Burges's argument is not before us. He begins with attempting to prove, that Zerubbabel's temple was in reality of equal dimensions with Solomon's, and that each was 60 cubits in length. Yet, on this subject, there is no little difficulty: the accounts are different in authors who speak of the whole extent, or of the extent of the internal parts within the walls. But if, after examining the whole tenor of the descriptions, it appears that there was no difference in the length, or in the breadth of the two temples, so much of the former author's hypothesis must be abandoned; and so far our author has proceeded with success. His philological criticisms and his interpretation of Josephus are, in general, accurate. The passage in Haggai, which we have quoted above, in Mr. Burges's opinion, relates to the desolate state of the temple; but he certainly could not compare a building not in existence to its state while it existed. There could be no objects of comparison; and it is more probable that the meaner condition of the new temple was the foundation of the question. This opinion is supported by the other passage, coming soon afterwards in the same prophecy, where an existing temple is pointed out, by the words *this latter house*. Mr. Burges does not explain the cause of the Levites' weeping when they saw the foundations laid (Ezra iii. 12.) very satisfactorily. Their reinstatement, and the probability that, after various delays, they might see the temple restored, would undoubtedly affect their minds very strongly, and tears are always the sign of a very powerful agitation.—After what we have said of the hypothesis of the author of the Evidence, the fol-

lowing objections, which we select as a specimen of Mr. Burgefs's abilities, will be readily understood.

'To this representation of Josephus there are several objections. In the first place the ναός is not noticed, which Josephus distinguishes from the περιβόλος. Which distinction is necessary to the right sense of the passage, and useful to the whole narrative. (2.) Κατασκευασασθαι is combined with μίξω which gives it the sense of *enlarging*; whereas in the original it is connected with τον νεον simply, without any term to change its signification from the general one of *building*. (3.) The other objection is to the *petitio principii* contained in the gratuitous assertion, that κατασκευασασθαι "here has no such signification as *ædificare*," without producing a single instance of κατασκευαζειν or κατασκευαζισθαι in the sense of *repairing*. In all the passages which I have met with, where it is not connected with some term expressive of enlargement, it uniformly signifies *de novo facere, ædificare, &c.* Isaiah ch. xlv. v. 7. in the Septuagint translation, εγω ο κατασκευασας Φως, και ποιησας σκοτος. Jos. Ant. l. iii. c. 6. says of the building of the tabernacle, εκ γαρ τοιαυτης υλης κατασκευαζε την σκηνην. L. x. c. viii. § 5. he says of the destruction of Solomon's temple ενεπρηθη δε ο ναος μελα τριακοσια ετη και εδομηκοντα και μηνας εξ και δεκα ημερας, αφ' η κατασκευασθη. In the eleventh book, where he gives an account of the rebuilding of the temple by Zerubbabel, he says, ch. ii. § 1. Παρεκαλεν τες σαλραπας και τες επιμελομενες εμποδιζειν τες Ιουδαιας προς τε την της πολεως αιχστασιν και την τε ναβ κατασκευην. c. 4. § 1. κατασκευασαν ευσιαστηριον. Ib. § 3. αυτων προςαχθειλων κατασκευασαι τον ναον. In which passages κατασκευαζειν et κατασκευη are obviously used for αναλιζειν and ανακτισις. These instances will sufficiently explain why (see Evidence, p. 31.) in the following passage it was unnecessary to use ανακτισις instead of κατασκευη. L. xvii. c. 6. Herod remonstrating with the Jews for their ingratitude, as he thought it, in demolishing the golden eagles, enumerates the services which he had done their nation, and amongst the rest mentions του ναβ την κατασκευην, ως μεγαλοις τελεσι τοις αυτω γενοισι, which is usually translated *utque templum magnis suis sumptibus extruxisset*; but which in the Evidence is translated "how largely he hath contributed towards the repairs of the temple:" conformably enough to the hypothesis of the Evidence, but how accurately the preceding remarks, I think, will shew.'

We would endeavour, if possible, to reconcile these contending authors, and for that purpose may remark, that while Herod is allowed to have added to the extent of the Περιβόλος, and to the height of the temple, enough is admitted to account for the exaggerated promises which he made to the Jews, and for the words of Josephus. While the real temple, the ναός, therefore, remained unchanged, Haggai's prophecy must be considered as unimpeached. We have suggested this accommodation,

modation, since Mr. Burgeſs purpoſes, in a future work, to explain how the different circumſtances and paſſages are reconciled to a third temple.

At the end of the pamphlet, the diſputed part of Joſephus is added, with a tranſlation, and ſome very valuable notes; a Diſſertation of Erneſtus, on the Temple of Herod, taken from his philological works; and a Deſcription, from the ſame author, of the ſtructure and œconomy of the temple, particularly the diſtinction between the *ναός* and the *ισπός*. Erneſtus is of the ſame opinion with Mr. Burgeſs; but he thinks, that Herod rebuilt the temple by different parts, at different times. On the whole, we muſt diſmiſs this little work with much applauſe: the author poſſeſſes great philological and critical knowledge; we cannot, indeed, entirely concur with him in opinion, but we are unwilling to give any poſitive deciſion till we have received, and fully conſidered, the arguments which he has promiſed in a future work.

Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Vol. I. 440.
1l. 5s. Cadell.

THIS volume would not diſgrace a great and opulent nation, equally diſtinguiſhed for elegance and for learning. We ſee it riſing, from a little kingdom, where ſcience has, for ſome time, choſen to fix her ſeat, but where the arts have not often reſorted. In ſhort, this publication, for the value of its contents, and the neatneſs of its execution, does not yield to our own Society's *Transactions*, or the *Memoirs* of Paris, Peterſburg, or Berlin. If it were comparatively examined, it might perhaps be found, in ſome particulars, to riſe above each. We hope that it will not decline, either in beauty or value.

The hiſtory of this Society is a ſhort one: when Edinburgh began to be diſtinguiſhed as a ſchool of phyſic, a ſociety of phyſicians met in that univerſity, read papers, and received comments on thoſe papers. Six volumes of diſſertations and medical news was the reſult of their meetings, and the elder Monro was the ſpirit which animated the whole. An improvement, as it was called; was then made in the conſtitution of the Society: phyſicians were joined with philoſophers and mathematicians; but it ſcarcely flouriſhed in this new form longer than while Colin Maclaurin gave it vigour and activity. It languiſhed for many years; gentlemen who ſtudied philoſophy were uninterſted or pained by the tale of woe, which the phyſician's or the ſurgeon's practice dictated; and the enquiries of philoſophers were often conſidered as uſeleſs refinements by the practical phyſicians. Three little

volumes, if we except the last, which is of greater bulk, is the whole that we received from this new institution. From its ashes a new phoenix has arisen: it has acquired dignity from a royal charter, importance from a large accession of new members, and we have reason to believe that fame will be the result of its successive volumes.

The Philosophical Society of Edinburgh, in their Transactions, have two objects; and the dissertations are divided into two different parts, viz. a physical and a literary class. The former comprehends mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, medicine, natural history, and whatever relates to the improvement of arts and manufactures: the other has, for its department, literature, philology, history, antiquities, and speculative philosophy. The sessions for each of these objects are at different times; and, in this respect, they imitate some of the societies on the continent, particularly that of Berlin. — At their meetings, the Essays furnish subjects of conversation; and the conversation is renewed by the author's producing an abstract of his paper at a succeeding meeting. This is a very useful improvement; and we suspect, that a publication of these abstracts, particularly of the more long and intricate discussions, would furnish an useful and entertaining work to those whose leisure is not sufficient for extensive enquiries. This collection would form what was once an useful part of the French Memoirs, executed by their respective authors. — The objects of natural history are to be added to the Museum of Edinburgh: the remains of Antiquity to the Advocates Library.

All the papers which are read, are not published: some are produced only to furnish subjects of conversation; some are withdrawn to be farther elucidated, to be rendered more perfect, or to be extended. Yet, in the History of the Society, which forms the first part of the volume, all these papers are mentioned; and their object often pointed out. The papers which are published occur also in the History, and a reference is made to those parts of the volume in which they are printed. To the History, as in some foreign academies, biographical sketches of the lives of deceased members are added.

Our account of this volume may probably appear too extensive; but, as this work is a new one, the ceremonies of introduction add to the length of the article; and, as it is curious, as well as miscellaneous, it will require additional attention. We purpose to give a short account of the papers which have been read, but which are not published, from the history of the Society, in this article, and shall add a paper or two from the physical and literary class. We shall afterwards
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pursue our account of the work, as soon as the numerous impending claims of different authors will give us leave.

As we purpose to notice only the literary or physical publications in the History, which do not again occur in the volume, we shall first mention Mr. Ruffel's Experiments on Antimony, which we lately alluded to. He found that, by distilling muriatic acid from manganese, while crude antimony was put into the receiver, the acid was immediately combined with the metal. The sulphur was also decomposed; but the vitriolic acid, which has a less attraction for antimony than the muriatic, is easily separated. With five ounces of acid, and two of antimony, he obtained half an ounce of precipitate from the butter of antimony. Nine-tenths of the expence is therefore saved, and every suspicion of the union of any other metallic salt prevented. Mr. Ruffel prepared tartar emetic with the precipitate, which appeared, chemically, good: it had not then been tried medicinally. There seems not to be the slightest doubt of its being medically active.

Dr. Roebuck's observation on the ripening of corn is very important information in the higher latitudes. The grain, (oats) evidently increased and ripened, though the average height of the thermometer in the day-time was 43 degrees. The time of this trial was from October 7th to October 21st.

Lord Dundonald purifies common salt, by putting it in a conical vessel, with a hole in the small end of it. He takes one-twentieth of this salt, and dissolves it in as little water as it requires when boiling. This water, poured on the rest, passes through the vessel, taking with it the magnesia salita, and vitriolata. Three washings make it purer than foreign salt. A little muriatic acid should be added to the first brine, as there is generally some uncombined magnesia in salt. It appears from some subsequent experiments, that salt last drawn, hot from the pan, contains two-fifths of impurities. Salt last drawn, after being dripped 24 hours, contains one-fifth. Spanish great salt contains only $\frac{1}{64}$, and basket fine salt none. The purest of our salt contains one-ninth.

In the literary class, Dr. Anderson treats of the reputed Genitive Case, in English, which is formed by adding the *s*, e. g. John's staff. As the English does not admit of the inflection of cases, he contends, that the word then loses its title of a noun, and becomes a definitive, of the nature of an adjective, limiting the meaning of the noun to which it is united. Nouns which signify abstract ideas are not capable of this conversion.

Two Medical Cases were read by Dr. Mudie of Montrose; the one an instance of complete and permanent cure of ascites; the

the other a case of some severe nervous symptoms, from a slight superficial wound. Dr. Duncan also communicated a case of cure of singultus by the acidum vitriolicum tenue. The dose was about seven drops, to half an ounce of mint water. The first spoonful succeeded; and, on a return, two spoonfuls only were required. A case, which terminated fatally, attended with anomalous symptoms, from a large calculus sticking in the neck of the gall-bladder, was communicated by Dr. Hope.

In cases where large masses of a hard substance are required for grinding, Dr. Anderson supposes, that much of the weight and expence might be saved, by making a model of bricks or stones, and casting the iron round them. But it is not easy to say how this nucleus is to be supported in the mould. He recommends this method for architectural ornaments, the arches of bridges, &c.

Mr. Wilson's method of discovering whether the centre of the solar system is in motion, we cannot easily abridge; and, as we have reason to expect the result of some trials on this subject, we shall for the present add nothing farther relating to it.

Dr. Blane's account of the hurricane at Barbadoes in 1780, is very curious; but we cannot enlarge on it. An earthquake certainly attended it. The wind was from every point of the compass; and the storm was felt in England. An Aurora borealis was seen in the West Indies, from the North East; and from this quarter the wind began to blow. The barometer fell very low: at Antigua, during a hurricane, it was once 27½. The usual good effects, with respect to the health of the inhabitants, followed.

Count Windischgratz has requested this Royal Society to become the judges of the dissertations, with the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, and a German or Swiss academy not yet named. The prize, a thousand ducats (466l. 13s. 4d.) is offered for the complete solution of the following problem; and, if it shall not be resolved, half the sum (233l. 6s. 8d.) for that dissertation which approaches the nearest to a complete solution. The problem is a little Utopian: we shall transcribe it.

‘Pro omni possibili instrumentorum specie, quibus quis se obstringere, suumve dominium in alterum, quibuscunque ex motivis, et quibuscunque sub conditionibus transferre potest, formulas tales invenire, quæ omnibus casibus individuis conveniant, atque in quovis casu singulis duntaxat terminis, iisque pervulgatis expleri opus habeant, qui termini, æque ac ipsæ formularum expressiones ejusmodi sint, ut quemadmodum in mathesi, nullum dubium, nullum litigium locum, habeat.’

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For the trouble taken in this decision, the count offered 50 guineas, as a prize for any subject which the Society should chuse. They have accepted the office, but declined the recompence.

There are a few Essays, of which the author did not choose that any abstract should be given. These may hereafter come before us; and therefore we shall neither mention them, nor the abstract of Mr. Smellie's Essay on Instinct, as it is a part of a larger work, which we may soon expect to receive. The biographical accounts are those of William Lothian, D. D. sir George Clerk-Maxwell, of Pennycuik, bart. and William Stewart, D. D. professor of mathematics. These we cannot abridge; but the Life of Dr. Stewart, by Mr. John Playfair, is an admirable one: we have read it with much pleasure, as a clear scientific analysis, and a judicious narrative of the professor's life. The Society will allow us to hint, that *every one* who is worthy of being their member, deserves some notice in this part of their work.—The History concludes with an account of donations to the Society, chiefly consisting of natural curiosities; together with a list of officers and members.

Art. I. Experiments on the Motion of the Sap in Trees. By John Walker, D. D. M. D. F. R. S. Edin. and Regius Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh.—This paper, by Dr. Walker, is, in many respects excellent. He mentions the state of our knowledge on this subject, and reduces it to experiment on the birch, whose sap is in so copious a stream, that it bleeds. The sap, he finds, rises between the bark and the wood, in tides, raised by the heat of the sun: a succession of warm days, of the same, or gradually increasing temperature, raise it gradually, but a warm day will sometimes raise it to a height which the next day, if less warm, will not effect; yet it seems, that a succession of days, somewhat colder, will produce the effect of one warmer day. Sometimes the sap remains stationary. It appears to rise between the wood and the bark even into the branches, before the bark gives out any moisture.

‘It appears that, in the beginning of the bleeding season, when the thermometer, at noon, is about 49. or between 46. and 50. and at midnight about 42. or between 40. and 44. that the sap rises about one foot in twenty-four hours, in the trunk of the birch, if not formerly raised by a greater heat.

‘By other trials, it was found, that, in the same season, when the thermometer, at mid-day, is about 45. and, at midnight, about 38. the sap then ascends only about one foot in two days; and that it does not ascend at all unless the mid-day heat is above 40.’

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The sap rises on the side exposed to the sun quicker than on the other side; and this seems to be the reason why the centre of the ligneous circles are not in the middle of the tree. Where the sap is most copious, the wood grows quickest, and is proportionably softest. The sap separates the different strata of the trees, in its ascent, and, as it makes the timber softer, it is proper to know the periods of the sap's ascent in the different trees that are felled for timber. The sap appears sooner in the pendent than in the upright branches; sooner in young than in old wood; and, where the branches divaricate, the sap seems to be, for a time, drawn away from the trunk.

Though Dr. Walker speaks of the sap as a tide, or rather as surges, he does not think that there is any considerable or regular falling down of the sap. He explains Du Hamel's experiment (*Physique des Arbres*, I. 66.) by observing that, when the tree is full, it will flow indifferently from the upper or the under-side of a wound: it flows too between the circles sooner than from the circles themselves; and this gives, in our author's opinion, the chief foundation for M. du Hamel's opinion, that the sap rises through the circles, and descends through the veins. About the time of vernalion, the sap seems to disappear: it is not evaporated through the leaves, but apparently dispersed in the bark.

The causes of the ascent of the sap are carefully examined; and those usually assigned are refuted. Let us extract a specimen of Dr. Walker's paper, from this part.

'The ascent of the sap was ascribed by Ludwig to the expansion of the air with which it is impregnated; and, with more reason, by others, to the expansion of the air contained in the tracheæ, or air-vessels of the plant. As these vessels exist only in the wood, and as it is by the wood chiefly that the ascending sap is conveyed, this, no doubt, forms a presumption that they contribute, in some degree, to the elevation of the sap. But, as we have found that the sap moves with more force upwards than in any other direction; and that, in certain circumstances, it is made to flow and ascend by cold as well as by heat; the expansion of air cannot, therefore, be admitted, in any shape whatever, as the cause of its ascent.

'The above experiments leave us still in the dark, as to the precise cause of the ascent of the sap. They shew, indeed, upon many occasions, that heat is the prime agent in producing this effect; and that, probably, by the expansion of the sap itself, rather than of any air, either contained in it, or in the tracheæ. The incisions upon the birch ran freely in the day-time, especially during sunshine, but dried up regularly as the cold of the evening advanced. With a few exceptions, we find the ascent of the sap constantly promoted by heat, but retarded

tarded and even arrested by cold: yet the precise manner in which heat and cold produce these effects, does not appear. It is likely that there are other causes which co-operate. These probably are lodged in the structure of the plant, and to discover them would require a more minute examination of that structure than has as yet been bestowed upon it.'

There is, however, a step omitted in the enquiries of every philosopher: each tree exudes its proper and peculiar juices, and a secretory organ must be interposed between the wounded wood and the earth. The nature and energy of this organ may elucidate the subsequent enquiry; and it may perhaps be found that the *vasa propria* possess irritability, and that the sap, with the heat of the sun, is calculated to excite it. The pith, our author thinks, with Linnæus, is subservient to the production of seed: coloured liquors do not rise in it; it contains no vessels, and no sap: while a branch never produces fruit, except by 'diametral insertions' a communication be preserved with the pith. The motion of the sap, after veneration, is designed for the subject of future enquiries. We have little doubt but that they will be conducted with as much judgment as these we have just examined, and prove equally satisfactory.

Since this article is designed chiefly as a specimen of the volume before us, we shall select a short paper from the literary class, without considering ourselves as obliged to follow this order in future, or indeed any order but what we think will conduce to the entertainment and information of our readers. At present, it appears that to combine variety with novelty is the best method of fixing the attention. It is chiefly from these circumstances that persons take up a miscellaneous volume, who would turn with disgust from a system. We should have selected the first essay in the literary department, if its length had not deterred us. The second is better adapted to our remaining space.

Art. II. A Dissertation to prove that Troy was not taken by the Greeks. By John Maclaurin, Esq: Advocate, and F. R. S.—To forsake the fond delusions of our youth, which we cherished with anxious care, and which have afforded scenes of pure and unmixed delight, is a sacrifice to which we are unequal. Much of the enthusiasm, raised in the enthusiastic age, will be lost, if the *Iliad* be considered as wholly a fiction; and we cannot agree with our author, that it is a matter of indifference whether the Grecians or the Trojans prevailed: shall we venture, in our old age, to add the reason? *We* were always Grecians at school. But we must leave the school, and attend to our author as sober critics.

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In the different moments of reflection ; in the varied course of our literary warfare, we have expressed great indignation at the unmanly fictions of Greece, and have contended, in plain terms, that the stigma thrown on the Cretans might be applied to the whole nation : Κρητες ασεβεις. Mr. Maclaurin has enlarged on this idea, and, in applying it to the question which he examines, gives us occasion to think, that the early Grecian historians did not themselves believe the story of the Trojan war, as Homer has told it. How should he know any thing of it, says Lucian, in the character of Pythagoras ; he was at Camel, in Bactria, at that time. It is pretty evident, that writing was unknown even in the period of Homer ; and it was not easy to be exact in the tradition of events which must have happened nearly 300 years before. Thucydides himself, the gravest and best informed of the Grecian historians, has given a satisfactory proof of the infidelity of Grecian records, in the story of Harmodius and Aristogiton.

Many modern enquirers have doubted whether there ever was a Trojan war ; and the fabulous Story of Leda's Egg, a narrative probably allegorical, has been alleged against it. Herodotus tells us, that he asked the Ægyptian priests, whether the Grecian narrative was not ' an idle tale ? ' They said that Troy was besieged and taken, but that Helen was, during the whole time, in Ægypt, and had been detained there by a king of Ægypt, who had secured her on their landing in his country for provisions.—This story is more improbable than the other ; for the king would undoubtedly have taken care to inform Menelaus of what he had done, and have prevented so much carnage and so many misfortunes.

The substance of Mr. Maclaurin's arguments are taken from a tract of Dio Chrysostom, who examines Homer's pretensions as an historian, and censures him very severely : some observations are added by our present author. The great hinge on which they turn is the complicated absurdity of almost every part of the story, as related by Homer, and his imitator Virgil, added to the circumstance that the conquered nation sent out numerous colonies, while the conquerors were either lost in their passage, or killed by a few usurpers, whom the splendor of the conquest, if it existed, could not intimidate. If there is any foundation for the story, he thinks that it was probably this : Paris and Menelaus were suitors to Helen, and the former the favoured one, while the latter raised the war in revenge. It is remarkable, if Homer's tale be true, that Castor and Pollux, the brethren of Helen, were not
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in the Grecian army; that, after the taking of Troy, Helen was not restored to her reputed husband, but married to Deiphobus. In the several arguments, Mr. Maclaurin has been often successful; yet he does not reflect on the facility and success with which sudden, unsuspected, predatory exploits were carried on; he does not always make allowance for the variation of manners, and the changes that may have taken place in different parts of the coast. He is pretty severe on Virgil, who has told us, that Tenedos was in sight, (in conspectu), and that the army were *hid* on the *desart* shore; but he surely might have reflected, that if an *island* was in sight, *every* part of its shore was not so. We see the Isle of Wight from Portsmouth, yet 100,000 men and 1200 ships might be hid on its shores from the inhabitants of that town.

We may allow, that Homer's story is a very absurd one, when carefully examined; and yet we cannot disprove the existence of the war, or the sack of the city. The Grecians may have been in reality beaten, yet the town might have been burnt by treachery, and the king cut off by conspirators. Much, in the successive centuries before Homer's period, was probably changed, and we have abundant reason to believe that these changes were favourable to the martial prowess of the Grecians: we wish they had been more favourable to their moral characters.

The rest of this volume will be examined in some future Number.

Original Letters of the late reverend Laurence Sterne; never before Published. 12mo. 3s. Longman.

THESE Letters drop on us from the clouds, without a line to tell us from whence they come. No friendly genius lends a ray to illuminate the dark profound: no kind preface gives a hint of old trunks, of the rummaged archives of a family, of the papers of an alchemist, or a projector. Perhaps this little volume may be designed as a crust for the critics, as the Cretan riddle to exercise the sagacity of another Telemachus. We know the risk we run in deciding on the authenticity or the spuriousness of these Letters; yet, as we are called on by the publication, we shall give our opinion on the subject.

The Letters are really excellent, and truly Shandean: they are such as Sterne might have written, or as he would not have disowned. From the internal evidence, there is no reason to doubt of their being genuine; but, if we compare them with the Letters published by Mrs. Medalle, they are so much superior, in point of correctness and elegance, that,

if they are Sterne's, they must have been written by him with no common care. Though they are addressed to various people, there is an uniformity in the style, which is seldom discovered in compositions of different periods; there is an undeviating accuracy, though not the accuracy of finished works, which was not to be found in the Letters decidedly genuine. On the whole, if they are not written by Sterne, they are superior to his real Letters. We have read them with much pleasure, and we would recommend them as pleasing and elegant compositions. They display that philanthropy and benevolence which was the characteristic of Sterne's writings, and which, from an abuse which could neither have been foreseen or prevented, by becoming fashionable, has, we fear, been perverted to the worst of purposes.

There is no particular subject to detail: the common transactions of the world; the adventures which he may be supposed to have met with, his own infirmities, and his little family-business, fill this volume. We shall select a few specimens. The first shall be a description of his visit to his nuns; or, rather to the spot where they were wont to dwell, the ruins of a neighbouring monastery.

'It is an awful spot—a rivulet flows by it, and a lofty bank, covered with wood, that rises abruptly on the opposite side, gives a gloom to the whole, and forbids the thoughts, if they were ever so disposed, from wandering away from the place. Solitary sanctity never found a nook more appropriated to her nature?—It is a place for an antiquary to sojourn in for a month—and examine with all the spirit of rusty research. But I am no antiquary, as you well know—and, therefore, I come here upon a different and better errand—that is—to examine myself.

'So I lean, lackadayfically, over a gate, and look at the passing stream—and forgive the spleen, the gout, and the envy of a malicious world. And, after having taken a stroll beneath mouldering arches, I summon the sisterhood together, and take the fairest among them, and sit down with her on a stone beneath a bunch of alders—and do—what? you'll say—why I examine her gentle heart, and see how it is attuned; I then guess at her wishes, and play with the cross that hangs at her bosom—in short—I make love to her.'

We think an impostor would not have ventured at delineating a character so minutely, as that of H. is drawn in the following extract. We preserve it also, on account of the poetry:

'Columns and labour'd urns but vainly show,
An idle scene of fabricated woe:—

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'The sweet companion and the friend sincere
Need no mechanic arts to force the tear.
In heartfelt numbers, never meant to shine,
'Twill flow eternal o'er an hearse like thine.
'Twill flow while gentle goodness has one friend,
Or kindred tempers have a tear to lend.

'Hall liked it, I remember—and Hall always knows what ought to be liked, and, in certain humours, will be candid upon these sentimental subjects, and acknowledge that he feels them. He is an excellent scholar and a good critic: but his judgment has more severity than it ought to have, and his taste less delicacy than it should possess. He has, also, great humanity, but, somehow or other, there is so often such a mixture of sarcasm in it, that there are many who will not believe he has a single scruple of it in his composition.—Nay, I am acquainted with several, who cannot be persuaded but that he is a very insensible, hard-hearted man, which I, who have known him long, and known him well, assure you he is not.—He may not always possess the grace of charity, but he feels the reality of it, and continually performs benevolent actions, though not always, I must confess, in a benevolent manner. And here is the grief of the business. He will do a kindness with a sneer, or a joke, or a smile; when, perhaps, a tear, or a grave countenance, at least, would better become him. But this is his way; it is the language of his character; and, though one might wish it to be otherwise, yet I cannot tell what right any of us have to pass a severe sentence upon it, for no other reason in the world, but because our own failings are of a different complexion.'

'The following passage is truly in the manner of Sterne; and, to take the edge from one of our former remarks, respecting too great uniformity, it occurred in substance, in a former page.

'You, my friend, possess something of the reality of it (love): and I, while I enjoy your happiness, apply to fancy for the purpose of creating a copy of it.—So I sit myself down upon the turf, and place a lovely fair one by my side,—as lovely, if possible, as Mrs. V——, and having plucked a sprig of blossoms from the May-bush, I place it in her bosom, and then address some tender tale to her heart,—and if she weeps at my story, I take the white handkerchief she holds in her hand and wipe the tears from off her cheek: and then I dry my own with it:—and thus the delightful vision gives wing to a lazy hour, calms my spirits, and composes me for my pillow.

'To wish that care may never plant a thorn upon yours, would be an idle employment of votive regard;—but that you may preserve the virtue which will blunt their points, and continue to possess the feelings which will, sometimes, pluck them away, is a wish not unworthy of that friendship, with which I am, &c.'

VOL. LXV. *June*, 1778.

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There are various passages which we had marked for quotation, but none that are more characteristic of the man and the author. We will leave, therefore, the reader to judge for himself, as we have always done, from the extracts which we have transcribed; and, if he decides in favour of the authenticity of these Letters, it will not be easy to impeach either his taste or his discernment. The balloons, in one of the latter letters, cannot mean air balloons, as these never ascended from Ranelagh, the place which is mentioned as the scene. They are a kind of fire-work; and we mention them, since some critics have considered the term as an anachronism, and have argued, from its use, that these could not be the Letters of Sterne.

Lewesdon Hill. A Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons.

THIS poetical essay is, we understand, avowed to be the work of the rev. Mr. Crowe, of New College, Oxford, and public orator of that university. Notwithstanding some defects, it ranks in the first class of descriptive poems. Its philosophical and moral cast, its spontaneous flow, and varied cadence of style, which we in vain seek for in most of our modern measurers of blank verse, have rendered a species of poetry extremely pleasing, that, in general, for want of some story to interest the imagination, is exceedingly dull and tiresome. It must be acknowledged, that some compound epithets, and antiquated phraseology, which occasionally occur, create a harshness that grates upon a modern ear; but it ought to be remembered, if it be a first principle that, at any rate, we must sacrifice to sound, no great effect can ever be produced. Real genius will spurn such laws; and, in just criticism, the question must be, whether the grandeur of the image does not call for a correspondent dignity and weight in the language. If we ever hope to interest greatly, we must create or borrow a language which is not made too familiar by vulgar or common use.

It is not without an appropriate language that our religious service commands that veneration and awe which it uniformly impresses: and it will be impossible to keep up the attention and respect necessary to success in every great attempt, except by phraseology something removed even from that style, however refined, in which the common intercourse of life is conducted. Such was very decidedly the opinion of Mr. Gray; where, speaking of tragedy, he observes: ‘As to matter of style I have this to say; the language of the age is never the language of poetry, except among the French, whose verse, where the thought or image does not support it, differs

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in nothing from prose. Our poetry, on the contrary, has a language peculiar to itself; to which almost every one that has written has added something, by enriching it with foreign idioms and derivatives; nay, sometimes words of their own composition or invention. Shakspeare and Milton have been great creators this way; and no one more licentious than Pope or Dryden, who perpetually borrow expressions from the former.' And this doctrine must be admitted to apply to a poem, the objects of which, like those of the tragic muse, are highly interesting and important.

Having thus given our general opinion of the style best adapted to the higher subjects of poetry, into which we were led by the consideration of the work before us, we shall briefly notice a few passages in it. — The author describes himself as walking to the top of Lewesdon Hill, in a May morning. The poem opens with an enumeration of the objects in view from the side of the hill: the flow of the numbers is easy and elegant, and no less diversified than those objects which they enumerate. The numbers in the following apostrophe are no less stately and solemn.

'Ye dew-fed vapours, nightly balm, exhaled
From earth, young herbs and flowers, that in the morn
Ascend as incense to the Lord of day,
I come to breathe your odours; while they float
Yet near this surface, let me walk embathed
In your invisible perfumes, to health
So friendly, nor less grateful to the mind,
Administring sweet peace and cheerfulness.

The poet then gives a short sketch of the several seasons in which the hill assumes many various and picturesque forms, and mixes with it such reflections as naturally arise from his subject. Being arrived at the summit, he proceeds to describe the objects which lie before him; such, indeed, as in similar pieces have been usually selected for poetical ornament. In this poem they appear to be rather hints and opportunities, which the author has chosen to rise from them to loftier strains. The woods, the valley, the stream, the sea, the Roman camp, the ruined tower, are the materials of his landscape: but he does not rest in the bare delineation of these; each object is made a theme, on which he moralizes, or else serves as the introduction to other splendid and more interesting scenes. The following lines may serve as a specimen of his manner. A small stream which issues from the hill, and soon afterward falls into the sea, is the subject. The valley beneath him, he says, is

‘ water’d well
 By many a rill ; but chief with thy clear stream,
 Thou nameless rivulet, who from the side
 Of Lewesdon softly welling forth, dost trip
 Adown the valley, wandering sportively.
 Alas, how soon thy little course will end !
 How soon thy infant stream shall lose itself
 In the salt mass of waters, ere it grow
 To name or greatness ? Yet it flows along
 Untainted with the commerce of the world,
 Nor passing by the noisy haunts of men ;
 But through sequester’d meads, a little space,
 Winds secretly, and in its wanton path
 May cheer some drooping flower, or minister
 Of its cool water to the thirsty lamb :
 Then falls into the ravenous sea, as pure
 As when it issued from its native hill.

‘ So to thine early grave didst thou run on,
Spotless Francesca, so, after short course,
 Thine innocent and playful infancy
 Was swallowed up in death, *and thy pure spirit*
In that illimitable gulph which bounds
Our mortal continent.’

Here he suddenly takes a different turn ; and, in a style more animated and philosophical, argues against the doctrine of necessity, and the mortality of the soul. He expresses himself with peculiar energy, but the passage is too long for insertion. The catastrophe of the *Hafwell* Indiaman, an account of which is soon after introduced, is described with great strength and conciseness, much after the manner of Milton.

‘ Alas they perish’d all—all in one hour !’

When the scene had been wrought as high as propriety could warrant, this pathetic exclamation is introduced with a very *fine* effect, to draw the veil over a catastrophe which could not be detailed, and woes that were not to be described. The conduct of the poem, unlike that of *Windfor Forest*, or any other of our descriptive poems, has this peculiarity in it, that, throughout, you trace the character and turn of mind, and are almost in the company and conversation of the author. The work is the excursion of a reflecting and melancholy muse, the walk of an *Il Penseroso*, selecting from the scene around him such images as are congenial to his feelings, and making use of the landscape of the objects themselves, merely as the vehicle or introduction of those serious conceptions upon which his fancy feeds.

‘ Above the noise and stir of yonder fields
 Uplifted, on this height I feel the mind

Expand

Expand itself in tender liberty.
 The distant sounds break gently on my sense,
 Soothing to meditation : so methinks,
 Even so, sequester'd from the noisy world,
 Could I wear out this transitory being
 In peaceful contemplation and calm ease.
 But conscience, which still censures on our acts,
 That awful voice within us, and the sense
 Of an hereafter, wake and rouse us up
 From such unshaped retirement ; which were else
 A blest condition on this earthy stage.
 For who would make his life a life of toil
 For wealth, o'erbalanc'd with a thousand cares ;
 Or power, which base compliance must uphold ;
 Or honour, 'lavish'd most on courtly slaves ;
 Or fame, vain breath of a misjudging world ;
 Who for such perishable gaudes would put
 A yoke upon his free unbroken spirit,
 And gall himself with trammels and the rubs
 Of this world's business ; so he might stand clear
 Of judgment and the tax of idleness
 In that dread audit, when his mortal hours
 (Which now with soft and silent stealth pass by)
 Must all be counted for ? But, for this fear,
 And to remove, according to our power,
 The wants and evils of our brother's state,
 'Tis meet we juggle with the world ; content,
 If by our sovereign Master we be found
 At last not profitless : for worldly meed,
 Given or withheld, I deem of it alike.'

'This is the portrait he gives of himself ; and so predominant
 is this character through the whole, that, even in the close of
 the work, where the solitary Rambler is descending from the
 hill, and perceives that he is again mixing in the paths of
 men ; though, on the momentous recollection, he observes how
 ill such abstract reflection, and such a train of thought, corre-
 spond with the trifling amusements, and ordinary pursuits of
 life to which he is returning, he yet slides imperceptibly again
 into the same vein, nor quits it but when he joins the holiday
 throng

————— of villagers,
 Assembling jocund in their best attire,
 To grace the genial morn.'

Notwithstanding the high opinion we entertain, and have
 expressed of this poem, we cannot recommend it as totally
 faultless. As the errors of a man of genius, unnoticed, may
 propagate their growth, we shall take the liberty of pointing
 out a few that have occurred to us, but which we should not

have thought worth notice in a writer of inferior talents. We praised Mr. Crowe for his happy adoption of antiquated phrases: such as these which follow, however, are so at the expence of elegance.

————— ‘back he retires

To shelter *him* in the thick wood.—

————— ‘nor lack thee tufted woods

Adown thy sides.’

Some few of the compound epithets are likewise exceptionable; and when Elfrida is said, by Mr. Mason’s ‘gentle witchery,’ to appear no longer ambitious, treacherous,

‘In purple robes of state, with royal blood

Inhospitably stain’d————

how puerile is the sentiment in opposition to it?

————— ‘But in their place

Pure faith, soft manners, filial duty meek,

Connubial love, and *soles of saintly white.*’

The Haswell Indiaman is described as

‘Mong rocks and high o’er-arching cliffs

Dash’d piteously.’

A vessel may be dash’d among rocks, but not the mountains which hang over them. Some expressions, not quite allowable, may be found in the passage we selected as characteristic of the author. ‘To censure *on* our acts,’ and ‘*unshaped retirement,*’ in the ninth and fifteenth lines, are of that nature: several of the following are too closely copied from Shakespeare; and this is the case in some other passages. ‘To put a yoke on a spirit,’ and ‘to be gall’d with the trammels and rubs of business,’ are figures that might have been excusable from him, but scarcely from a professor of oratory, in the present refined state of literature.

Anecdotes and Characteristics of Frederic the Great, late King of Prussia. By F. A. W. 2 Vols. Small 8vo. 6s. sewed. Richardson.

THE zealous ardour of the Prussians for their ‘great Frederick’ rises to enthusiasm, notwithstanding much that is said of the new monarch, and the changes produced in the system of his predecessor. These two little volumes are selected from the eight volumes of a German collection; and afford many interesting and characteristic anecdotes. The Preface contains a defence of Frederic’s character; but the zeal of the author has carried him too far: some parts of his conduct, and some of his sentiments, are indefensible. If we look on him as a warrior, we shall see him giving a new form, and

and a new substance to a science already cultivated very highly. His personal bravery was unquestioned; and, both in passive fortitude, in active intrepidity, under a load of adversity, or in the moments of ardent exertion, he was truly the hero. His mind was vast and comprehensive; and, what is seldom the lot of genius, it was capable of minute attentions, and his memory could retain little things. As a king, he was, in many respects, the father of his people; and his country, in the midst of a destructive war, was at once recognised by the traveller, from his perceiving the fields cultivated, the peasants industrious and secure; the moment of the Russian invasion must only be excepted. He alone knew how to combine an army the most numerous, exertions the most extensive, and wars the most expensive, with the increasing riches and population of the kingdom which supported them. The increase of Prussia in power and numbers, we have already had occasion to point out.

With the lustre which merits like these must scatter round him, there were some spots which contributed to sully the brightness; there were faults which no apologist should attempt to palliate. We know not that he was an atheist, but he was undoubtedly irreligious; and cruel is that man who, by his language and example, will take from misery its best and brightest consolation; impolitic is that king who will take one chain from the madness of passion, or one restraint from the fury of appetite. There are other faults, more than hinted at, which we cannot mention. There was a childish fondness for France and its productions; there was a caprice which occasionally regulated his language and opinion; there was the failing of the wit, who, for a brilliant repartee, recks not the pain it gives. Yet Frederick was greater than almost any king; his good qualities were always conspicuous: it requires the tongue of slander, and minute observation, to detect his faults. We shall not, however, follow, at any greater length, the discussion to which the Preface gave occasion; but select a few of the most striking anecdotes, which, to us at least, are new.

The following anecdote is an admirable one.

‘In the battle near Torgau, the king commanded the left wing of the army, and undertook the first attack on the Austrian station; where, on the close of the day, general Ziethen made himself master of the Siptitzer hills, by which the battle was decided in favour of the Prussian army. The succeeding night being a very cold one, the troops made guard-fires in order to warm themselves. At the dawn of day the king came riding along the front of the army, from the left wing to the right,

and being arrived at the regiment of guards, he dismounted from his horse, and approached the fire, surrounded by his brave officers and grenadiers, to wait the break of day, in order to attack the Austrians once more, in case they were not retreated, which could not be distinguished on account of the darkness of night.

‘The king kindly conversed with his men, and applauded their excellent and brave conduct during the engagement. The grenadiers, convinced of the affability and condescension of their monarch, pressed closer and closer to his person: one of them, named Rebiak, to whom the king frequently used to speak, and had frequently made presents of money, took the liberty to ask him—whereabouts he had been in the battle; they had always been used to see him at their head, he said, and to be led by him himself amidst the hottest fire; but this time they never once had the sight of him, and they could not conceive why he had thus entirely left them? The king answered the grenadier with the most condescending goodness, and said, “That during the whole of the battle he had been on the left wing of the army, and thereby was prevented being with his own regiment. Meanwhile the king had unbuttoned his great coat, as the heat of the guard-fire became troublesome, upon which they perceived a ball fall from his clothes, as also that he had received a grazing shot along the breast—for the aperture made by the ball was visible on the great coat and on the uniform. Full of enthusiasm and admiration, they exclaimed, “Thou art still our old Frederick; *thou partakest every danger with us; for thee we are willing to die. God save the king! God save the king!*” Another grenadier said, “Now I suppose, Frederick, thou wilt allow us good winter quarters?” “*The devil a bit, not until we are masters of Dresden; but then I will provide for you to your heart’s content.*” It is well known that this regiment of guards put into Leipzig for their winter quarters.’

Again:

‘It is well known, the king, in the seven years war, did not only share all dangers, but even the inconvenience of a common soldier. One time he marched with his grenadier guards till very late at night—At last they halted; the king dismounted, and said: “Grenadiers, it is a cold night, therefore light a fire.” This was done immediately. The king wrapped himself up in his blue cloak, sat down on a few pieces of wood near the fire, and the soldiers placed themselves around him: at last, general Ziethen came, and took his place also on a bundle of wood. Both were extremely fatigued, and fell gently to sleep: but the king very often opened his eyes; and, as he perceived Ziethen had slipped off his seat, and that a grenadier was placing a faggot under his head for a pillow, he said, with a low voice, “Bravo! the old gentleman is fatigued.” Soon afterwards, a grenadier got up half asleep, in order to
light

light his pipe by the fire, but carelessly touched the general's foot. The good king, who was glad to see Ziethen take a little rest, arose suddenly, waved his hand, and whisperingly said, "Hift grenadier! Take care not to wake the general, he is very drowsy." This officer once fell into a dose at the king's table; as some one present made a motion to rouse him, the king said, "Let him sleep—he has watched long enough that we might rest."

The following is somewhat more ludicrous, and it rather comes too near to indecorum :

'Professor Eberhard, of Halle, was some years ago appointed, by the upper consistory, preacher at Charlottenburg. The townsmen, who had fixed on another person, protested against Eberhard to the consistory, because he had written the *Apology for Socrates*. This objection was considered as insufficient; and they were ordered to submit. On this they represented to the king—that they could not think of trusting the care of their souls to a man, who had affirmed, that the cursed heathen Socrates was saved.—His majesty, who was sorry to hear the worthy philosopher cursed, wrote to them in reply: "I insist on Socrates' being saved—as also on Eberhard's becoming your preacher."

FREDERICK."

'Thus, by the same cabinet order, Eberhard was confirmed in his office—and Socrates in his salvation.'

We shall add but one more.

'When the king, on his accession to the throne, was installed at Silesia, he preferred, according to ancient custom, several persons to the rank of nobility. A few years after this, one of these enobled gentlemen rode before the king in one of his reviewing tours through Silesia, and endeavoured to be noticed by him. At last he succeeded; and his majesty thus accosted him, "Who are you?" "I am one of those on whom you was graciously pleased to confer the rank of nobility, at your royal installation in Silesia." "This first experiment of mine has turned out but badly," replied the monarch.'

The cabinet-orders are expressed with admirable precision; but the king's attempts at wit are not always happy. The abbé Bastiani's compliment to the king was singularly elegant. When you are pope, said the king, as, from your merit and learning, you must some time be, if I should come to Rome, how will you receive me? I will order the Black Eagle, said he, to be admitted, that he may cover me with his wings, if he will not wound me with his beak. M. Winzer translates it differently: perhaps in the work before him it was related differently.

On the whole, M. Winzer is greatly improved: the German is more nearly English than the language from which he translated Wieland; and we may suppose, that his knowledge
of

of our language is improved also. These two little volumes, though the anecdotes are of unequal merit, will be highly prized by the admirers of the great Frederick.

The Epistolary Correspondence, Visitation Charges, Speeches, and Miscellanies, of the Right Reverend Francis Atterbury, D. D. Lord Bishop of Rochester. With Historical Notes. Vol. IV. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Dilly.

OUR industrious editor resembles Cæsar in at least one respect, viz. incessant assiduity and unremitting attention, 'Nil actum reputans, dum quid superesset agendum.'

To the three former volumes, which were mentioned in our LVith and LVIIth volumes, p. 14, and 166, another is added, which probably contains every thing that, in the most distant manner, relates to Atterbury: it certainly contains many things of little real importance.—We have, in our former examinations, traced the character of the bishop with some minuteness; and it only remains to give a short account of the contents of the present volume, with a few extracts. The affair for the banishment of the bishop; the various petitions to government during his confinement; the licences to visit, and even to be permitted to correspond with him in his banishment, are now subjoined: some Latin compositions, many additional notes, and several letters to bishop Trelawney, besides the little affectionate ones between his nearest relations, fill up the greater part of this volume. The bishop's conduct in the affair of Pere Courayer seems to have been highly proper; and we find the warmest approbation of it was communicated to Atterbury, from the cardinal Fleury, by the hands of the lieutenant of the police. Yet the cardinal, from a duplicity which he could not avoid, was always afraid of Atterbury, watched him with a suspicious eye, and was particularly careful to prevent his farther connections with the Popish clergy.

Of the literary information, or, as it may be styled, gossipings, which, to all literary men are so pleasing, we shall select a few instances; and take our first from the last page of the book, because we think it most interesting.

'At the moment this sheet was finishing for the press, the following curious note was communicated to me by the rev. Mr. Fly, from the hand-writing of Walter Harte, prefixed to "Selecta Poemata Italorum qui Latine scripserunt, Curâ cujusdam ANONYMI Anno 1684 congesta, iterum in lucem data, unâ cum aliorum Italorum operibus, accurate A. Pope. Londini, 1740." 2 vols. 8vo.

'It is surprizing that Mr. Pope should be silent upon this point, when he told me 14 years before the publication of this present

present edition, that the *Anonymous quidam* was Dr. Atterbury, bishop of Rochester. Perhaps the bishop did not chuse to acknowledge the slight amusements of his youth; or that others should ascertain the author's name. W. H.

'To authenticate this note, it has been shewn to the rev. Dr. Douglas of St. Paul's (to whom, and to Mr. Stanhope, Mr. Harte was tutor); who perfectly recollects the hand-writing.

'Dr. Johnson, in his Life of Pope, says, "A small selection from the Italians who wrote in Latin had been published at London, about the latter end of the last century, by a man who concealed his name, but whom his preface shews to have been qualified for his undertaking. This collection Pope amplified by more than half, and (1740) published it in two volumes, but injuriously omitted his predecessor's preface.'

A characteristic remark on the Travels of Cyrus is worth preserving.

'Ramfay's book seems to have fallen in England, as it has done here: for I observe that it has not, for some time, been trumpeted in your advertisements. A French gentleman, who has a greater respect for our writers than his own, and none at all for Mr. Ramfay's performance, shewed me a few words in Montaigne, liv, i, chap, 25, which, he frankly owned, would be properly placed in the first page of Cyrus: "Un peu de chaque chose, & rien du tout, à la Françoise."—A little of every thing, and the whole of nothing, in the French fashion.

The following note is a curious piece of information on another subject: the letter was written by Mr. James Bristow, at Salisbury, to a dissenting minister in the Isle of Wight. Mr. Calamy was a dissenting minister in London.

'By the way, Mr. Calamy having received thanks from bishop Burnet for his book, which was sent him down by his bookseller, he was very willing to wait upon his lordship, if he knew how to be introduced into his presence. He acquaints me with it; and I went to a gentleman of my acquaintance, and told him, "Here was a gentleman came to town, that had a mind to pay his respects to his lordship, if he thought a visit would be grateful to him." He craves his name of me. I told him. Saith he, "He need not fear of being kindly received by my lord: for I have heard him speak of him, and commend the book lately set out by him." This gentleman, the next morning, introduces Mr. Calamy into the bishop's presence, who gave him a hearty reception, shewed him his study, where they had two hours discourse together; told him, "We need not fear of having our liberty taken away from us; but there would be some attempt made for rendering dissenters incapable of voting for parliament-men; but it would be opposed." Then he talked to him about his book, and told him, "that he had set Nonconformity in as clear a light as he had seen

seen it; and the character he had given of those ministers he knew was right." Mr. Calamy took an occasion to ask him, "Whether either Mr. Keeling or Mr. Squire had been with him?" He told him, "No; he should have been glad to have seen them." Then his lordship mentioned the "difference that was between them, which he heard was occasioned by a basket of apples." Mr. Calamy told him, "There was some likelihood of its being made up; and that it was thought requisite that a third man did come in order to it." The bishop replied, "He thought it was best for both these to remove; and that in case a third man did come, which was a man of prudence and temper, he should be very willing to converse with him; and, by that means, the public good might be the better carried on by them."

'Sarum, Oct. 12, 1702.'

The following Latin verses of Atterbury are inserted as a specimen of his Latin poetry. His Latin prose is very classical and correct.

*'His saltem accumulem donis, & fungar inani
Munere.—*

*Cum subit illius lætissima frontis imago,
Quam nostri toties explicuere sales;
Cum subit & canum caput, & vigor acer ocelli,
Et dignâ mistus cum gravitate lepos;
Solvimur in lachrymas; &, inania munera, versus
Ad tumulum sparsus fert Elegeia comis,
Aldricio, debent cui munera tanta Camœnæ,
Hoc tribuisse, parum est; non tribuisse, scelus.'*

The letters to bishop Trelawney chiefly relate to the business of the convocation; and are not, at least to us, very interesting. Yet we dare not say that this volume is unnecessary, if it were of any importance to collect the letters of Atterbury. Perhaps the collection should not have been increased by Dr. King's letters, already printed, because they were supposed to have been addressed to the bishop.

Notices and Descriptions of Antiquities of the Provincia Romana of Gaul, now Provence, Languedoc, and Dauphiné; with Dissertations on the Subjects of which those are Exemplars; and an Appendix describing the Roman Baths and Thermæ discovered in 1784, at Badenweiler. By Governor Pownall, F. R. S. and F. S. A. 4to. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Robinsons.

PROVENCE, Languedoc, and Dauphiné, formed the Provincia Romana of Gaul, and it was styled so, not only on account of the immunities which it enjoyed, but from the numerous Roman families who resided there, on account of the salubrity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the general

neral beauty of the country. The Romans left numerous traces of their riches and their luxury, which have been described very imperfectly. Governor Pownall, in this volume, enlightens the antiquary, and instructs the traveller: his descriptions are pointed, and seemingly faithful: his dissertations are generally curious and often instructive.

In the introduction, he describes the natural riches of the province, which are not impaired, though the magnificence and the opulence of the inhabitants are not the same.—In reality, Rome was the source of wealth, where all the dependent provinces emptied their treasures, and from whence it was only carried by Romans. The magnificence too which now remains was that of the state and of opulent individuals; so that the different situations cannot properly be compared. If, as Mr. Gibbon supposes, Gaul was four times as rich formerly as at present, and the riches confined to one quarter of the number of persons, we can easily suppose what magnificence may be the consequence, especially when the splendor was subservient either to conveniency or luxury. In the time of Roman greatness, a thousand were impoverished to admit of the profusion of one individual: if Rome boasted of freedom, she at least took care that this valuable blessing should not become too cheap, by a general communication.

After the introduction, governor Pownall begins his description; and after passing Lyon and Vienne, which he purposes to notice at a future period, he proceeds to Valence and Orange. Of the origin of the former he gives some account, and describes a triumphal arch:—He afterwards notices the theatre and aqueduct of the latter. The arch our author attributes to Domitius Æhenobarbus: his conjectures, for so he wishes that they should be styled, are too long to be extracted.

At Aix, our author describes the *Saxea turris*, which was discovered, at its demolition, to be a sepulchral mausoleum. He suspects it to be the mausoleum of Lucius Cæsar, the adopted son of Augustus, who was not, so far as we know, brought to Rome. The contents of some cabinets at Aix are also described.

Marseilles is a fruitful source of discoveries: its origin; its peculiar institutions, both religious and civil, are objects of Mr. Pownall's attention. The settlement was first made by a body of Phocæans from Ionia; they established a commercial settlement, and the spirit of naval enterprise continued unimpaired for many ages: to them we owe the early voyages of Pythæus and Eumenes; and from them are derived the peculiar antiquities, which have been discovered in

later

later ages. The Ægyptian antiquities are procured in the way of commerce, and we shall extract our author's description of an Ægyptian priest, chiefly as it tends to support the opinion of the Ægyptians being a negro race, though we think it is supported but imperfectly.

‘ There is, in the garden of the Bastide of M. Seguir, a statue of an Ægyptian priest, as large as life. The figure and base on which it is placed are of one block of Ægyptian granite. The figure, if erect, would be five feet seven inches high. It is posed in the decided act of devotion. It sits upon its heels, having the legs folded under it. The figure is naked, except the hood or quois, with a scapula hanging down the back, and an apron which, tied round the waist, hangs half-way down the thighs. The contours are as easy as the constrained mode of position will admit. The composure and moral douceur of the countenance is very striking: it is impossible not to be impressed with this sentiment, on looking at it with steady and attentive continuance. The arms hang down the sides, as far as the elbow; the lower part of the arms are brought forward, so as that the hands extended lye flat upon the upper part of the thigh. The anatomy is characteristic of the black race, in the form of the skull, and the features of the face. The face is a long oval; the eyes of a long slit and large; the nose straight and short; the lips rather projecting; the transverse line of the profile, from the setting on of the nose to the ear, is short in proportion to the length, and of course the cheeks long; the ear is large, but folded; the ball of the eye is not marked either with the iris or the pupil. The nose of this beautiful statue is mutilated. I understood from M. Thulis, who went with me to shew me this, and who lived many years in Ægypt, the Turks serve all the statues they meet with in this manner.’

This place contains so many remarkable remains, and collections so curious, that we are sorry to pass by it cursorily. We advise the reader and the traveller to be less hasty. The trophæal arch and the sepulchral monument, at Glanum Livii, a colony probably established by M. Livius Drusus Libo, afford also several circumstances, which will interest the attentive traveller.

The craw, or the stony way, has exhausted superstition and philosophy, to account for the numerous flints and pebbles heaped upon it. They were showered down by Jupiter, says the Pagan, for the service of Hercules; rather to overwhelm him, replies the sceptic. They were thrown up by an earthquake, or by a volcano, says the philosopher; or at least the stones grew like plants. Mr. Pownall says more probably that the lake of Geneva burst its mounds, and poured down on this coast stones and all the ruins of the ancient rocks. It is
much

much more probable, that some branches of the Durance once found their way into the sea, and inclosed this space in a delta, when these numerous rounded pebbles may have been accumulated, by the winter torrents, thrown up on a higher ground.

At Arles, our author also describes different antiquities. The remains of a suite of buildings, usually called the Baths, Mr. Pownall thinks rather to have been the ruins of a forum. The mutilated statue of Serapis suggests a dissertation on symbolical idols. The country of these idols was Asia; and our author's account of their first establishment in Ægypt is a curious story, and told in the easy farcical manner of Dr. Moore.

When Ptolemy had completed the city of Alexandria, had girt and fortified it with walls, and found that it became the residence of people of all nations, languages, and religions; he wished to erect some comprehending symbolic idol, which might become a general object of worship to all people residing there. He pretended, like a wise prince, that he had received the divine command to do this. He was conversant in all the physiologic mythology of Asia, and acquainted with the nature of the mixed symbolic idols. Any local one, whose Numen and worship was known, and was already established as local, would not do. He was to look for some idol of a God, such a symbolic mixed one as might be comprehensively catholic, which was not known, but which was willing to be established at Alexandria. He therefore pretended that a God, such as he described, clothed in flame, had visited him in a dream, and ordered him to establish his idol at Alexandria. Whatsoever it was that he described, he, upon founding the Egyptian priests on the matter, could not induce them to understand what God he meant, nor where such God dwelt. He wisely dropped the business for the present; but some time after pretended a second dream, wherein the God appeared to him in a terrific form. As the God had in the former vision promised all prosperity to his kingdom if he established his idol at Alexandria, he now threatened destruction to it if he did not set it up and establish its worship there. The king affected to learn from an Athenian that which the Egyptians pretended to be ignorant of, the place where this God dwelt, namely, at Sinope in Pontus. In obedience, therefore, to the divine command, he sent a ship and ambassadors to fetch the idol of this God: but, to engage and add a corroborating authority to this embassy, he ordered the ambassadors to consult the Pythian Apollo on the subject. This God added his sanction, in confirmation of the command of the vision. They proceeded to Sinope; but the king of the Sinopians would not listen to the request of the ambassadors. However, at length, won by the irresistible bribes and presents of the Alexandrians, he agreed to sell his God. The people, however, would by no means

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agree to it, and became fanatically frantic, in opposition to the parting with their God, so that the king was not capable to fulfil his engagement. During these embroils, the God, not regarding the zeal and religious love which the people bore to him, so as to be ready to sacrifice themselves to him, stole off, and in a miraculous manner not only conveyed himself on board the ship, but by a like miraculous interposition accelerated the ship's way so as to make its passage from Sinope to Alexandria in three days.'

The miraculous power, which Vespasian assumed, and the foundation of his chusing the Ægyptian deity as his patron god, are also well related. Mr. Pownall, in a subsequent part, describes a statue, supposed to represent Medea, dug up at the time of his being at Arles. He thinks the attitudes too extravagant, and rather designed to represent a person on a theatre than in real life. She is in the attitude of murdering her children.

Nîmes was in the great road from Italy to Spain, and was a colony established by Agrippa. The great road, and a Roman bridge, the Pons Ambrosii, are described. The amphitheatre and the temple of young Cæsars, are in a very perfect state. The last is the maison carrée, on which M. Seguir has exercised his ingenuity, and has decyphered the inscription, by the nails to which the letters were affixed. In this attempt, he seems to have succeeded. We did not mention a similar exertion of his ingenuity at Arles, because uncertain as the nails might be, in affording a foundation for the decypherer, more than one half of the letters, in that inscription, were supplied by conjecture. There was an altar also erected at Nîmes, 'Veneri Augusti'—The altar was discovered by Mr. Pownall, who attributes it either to Julia or Faustina. Each was styled Venus, and so might the wives or concubines of many other emperors; for each emperor was Augustus. There is also the remains of Baths at Nîmes, which seem to have been erected by Agrippa, in the form of a piscina: this Mr. Pownall thinks also was the form of the Roman baths at Bath.

'The form of these baths was that of a square. In the center of this square was a square basement with a most rich parapet or balustrade; four bases at each corner of this, and one other larger in the middle, so placed for columns or statues. Three sides of this bath were covered in with a colonade portico: on each two sides, under this portico, there were two circular and one square recess. The side next the reservoir which supplied the bath was uncovered, as was the whole space all round, between the portico and the central basement.'

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The great aqueducts were certainly built by Agrippa ; but the temple of Diana, as it has been called, and the amphitheatre, are referred to the ages of Hadrian and Antoninus Pius : the former, however, in Mr. Pownall's opinion, was dedicated to Isis and Serapis, symbolic deities, including many others. The amphitheatre is described at length ; but the description we cannot abridge, because, like many others in this volume, it depends on the plate. We hear, with great pleasure, that the buildings which hide it in part, are to be removed, and that we may expect a more particular account of it.

The tour magne has been supposed a building, adapted to very different uses : it is probably a Roman work, though Mr. Pownall thinks, that the Roman masonry has been covered by a modern coat. He supposes that it was one of the *turres faxeæ*, built as a monument or memorial of some great family, perhaps of Trajan and Plotina. It hath the common form of a mausoleum, and the chambers resemble the columbaria of such mausolea.

The inscriptions at Nîmes appear not, in our author's opinion, to lead to any facts of importance. There is a curious inscription on a stone, which, for its singularity, we shall explain. It is

FULGUR
DIVUM
CONDITUM.

It appears to have belonged to an altar, raised on a spot of ground, which had been struck by lightning. This ground was considered as sacred : an altar was raised over it, but the altar was perforated, and the sacred spot remained open to the heavens. This ceremony is alluded to in many of the classics. Many curious remains are also to be met with in the academy, particularly specimens of comic masks, modelled in terra cotta, with the names of the characters by whom they were worn. The present town scarcely occupies one-third of the ancient site ; and there are said to be 60,000 people in it : the numbers are supposed to be increasing ; but these are not speculations for an antiquary.

At last, Mr. Pownall returns to Vienne, and gives its history, so far as it may explain its antiquities ; together with an account of the articles found by Pere Meynard, and the researches of the *Sieur Schneyder*. This city was once rich and powerful, but does not seem, at present, to furnish a great supply of antiquities.

At Lyons there are a greater number ; but of no considerable importance. The thermæ are not cleared : a medal of

Portius Cato Censor is the occasion of a learned dissertation. The taurabole, our author thinks, was a new invention, to attract the first Christian converts, by a ceremony, after their own fashion. The priest, who attended the sacrifice, was buried in the ditch, as the sacrificial object, and sprinkled by the blood of the expiatory sacrifice. When he came out of the ditch, he was supposed to rise again. It was undoubtedly a ceremony of the later ages; but, whether it was intended seriously to attract converts, or to draw them by ridicule, from their new faith, is uncertain. We should rather incline to the latter opinion, as it is not easy to connect the former with any of the various doctrines of Polytheism; and the whole must have been highly ludicrous. If, in the explanation of the medal of Cato, our author is very minute, he is reasonable with respect to its antiquity. Yet, if he supports its authenticity by the descriptions of writers of that, or an immediately subsequent period, this argument will fall to the ground, when it is allowed to be coined at a future time; for, in that case, the descriptions could be the only foundation for the appearance.

The account of the Roman aqueducts leads our author into a very curious discussion on their structure. He has explained it with great clearness, and, in general, with great accuracy. He is fully of opinion, that the ancients really knew, that water in a tube would rise to the level from which it sunk, and calls those aqueducts where the level is found not to be suitable to the ideas which we usually entertain of their method of construction, syphon bridges. Yet, if they were acquainted with the principle, they did not know the extent of its application, since they might have saved the trouble of erecting any bridges. It is highly probable, that they were not acquainted with it, and that the state in which these syphon bridges now appear may be owing to accidental causes, or the effects of many succeeding years, on the ground where they stand.

Quitting the vale of the Rhine, about twelve miles east, there is a valley not unlike, in situation, that in which Bath is built. At this place, some very complete remains of ancient thermæ were found, which our author has described particularly, and illustrated with a plate. His account is the subject of the first Appendix, and gives a very clear idea of the structure of those luxurious and useful buildings. We can give no description which will be satisfactory to our readers, without the plate. The second Appendix contains a few other antiquities, which Mr. Pownall was acquainted with from authors only, and has never seen.

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While we praise this work, in many respects, we must except against its language, which, as in Mr. Pownall's other works, is often quaint and sometimes affected. This volume is however written in a somewhat better style than his former publications. The plates are sufficiently clear, but by no means elegant: we ought, however, to reflect, that this work is designed chiefly to assist the enquiries and the recollection of the traveller. For this purpose it is well adapted.

Discours sur le Credit Public des Nations de l'Europe, per M. Herrenschwand. 8vo. 3s. Cooper.

WE return to M. Herrenschwand, whom we left without any great cordiality, as we differed on some points, where we thought his conduct deserved considerable blame. But this little difference has not occasioned our delay. We consider it as our duty to wait on authors, without considering that any part of their conduct, as individuals, ought to influence us. We are the medium between them and the public: we may *conduct* imperfectly; but neither ought to lose the benefit which they have reason to expect from our attention.

Our author offends no more with dedications: he proceeds immediately to his work, and states the meaning of his different terms.—The ordinary expences are those which the ordinary revenue of the nation is equal to, without any new augmentation of the public receipts, or any new taxes; the extraordinary ones, those which rise above it. To supply these extraordinary expences, a national exertion is required, or a less exertion to pay the interest of it, while the debt remains. This is the cause which lays the foundation of public credit. Our author next shows the various methods of supporting this burthen, by perpetual annuities, which does not diminish the debt; by limited annuities of years, or of lives. He next examines the advantages of each of these modes of borrowing, and concludes, that limited and life-annuities are most burthenfome to the people, but necessary, where there is least confidence in the state: thus the life-annuities constitute but the one-hundredth and twentieth part of the public debt of England, but they form two-thirds of the debt of France, which is less considerable. M. Herrenschwand, however, endeavours to attack the whole system of public credit as radically erroneous and foolish, as manifestly contradictory to the true principles of political œconomy, and destructive of the prosperity, the power, as well as the happiness of nations.

This system is unstable, because it depends on the power of the nation to pay taxes, and the confidence of the nation in

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the minister. A series of constant expence, an unsuccessful war, or any considerable exertions to restore public credit, which seem to imply its danger, may prove its ruin. If the question be taken in a more favourable view, if there be no want of lenders or taxes, the result will not be more satisfactory. The revenue of a nation, or the gains on its capital, in the course of a year, is the measure of its prosperity. If the taxes and the expences of living consume all the gains, the prosperity of the nation is stationary; if there is a surplus, capitals are increased, and propensity is increasing; and the contrary, if there is a deficiency. We are at present in a stationary state; and the first war, it is supposed, will ruin us, if more decisive measures are not pursued than the '*insignificant ones* of our *young minister*.' In every view, therefore, the system is unstable, for a combined expence will, at any time, overthrow it. If the revenue is also the measure of the power of the state, every defalcation of that revenue to pay taxes, is a diminution of that power.

The value of money also points out the prosperity of a nation, and the rate of interest shows its progress. Expensive wars sink it, and bring a nation to its decline; and thus old age is only kept off, by paying the debt, or increasing the capitals by favourable ballances in commerce: and when interest is high, in a prosperous state, the minister must pay a higher premium for money; so that, wherever we turn, the public credit is injurious to the value of the public effects.

Circulation is another criterion of the population, riches, prosperity, and power of a nation. This circulation consists in traffic, where one thing is exchanged for another; or in commerce, where the exchange is made by the assistance of something else, which is either money or credit.—Truck is the lowest degree of exchange, and credit the highest: money and credit are the means by which circulation is extended. If to the regular progress of this machine of circulation, a considerable addition is made, independent of labour and industry, every thing would grow dear, and the consumption would be checked; if the suitable increase is checked, every thing would be cheap, and this cheapness would discourage their production. In either case, labour and industry would lessen, particularly if these increases or diminutions were irregular. The circulation should therefore be great, regular, and susceptible of a gradual increase. Money and commerce are not capable of such a regular increase, though, indeed, our author supposes, that, by strictly regulating the importation of gold and silver, Portugal, and perhaps Spain, might be brought to the highest state of prosperity which these respective

specific countries would admit of. Credit alone is the best means of extending circulation in a manner which will add to the prosperity of a nation. But *public* credit, our author thinks, diminishes the power of this machine of circulation. The funded contracts, or the capitals they represent, are taken from the manufacturers and merchants, to supply an unproductive or unpropitious circulation in the hands of stock-jobbers. This great machine, on which so much prosperity depends, is therefore injured in the exact proportion of public debts.

M. Herrenschwand concludes with this last argument, and then notices some reasoning of M. Neckar. The purport of the passage to which he refers is, that, since the value of gold and silver, in progressive years, has diminished the value of a national debt, if we suppose the same causes to operate, the debt will, in future years, be also diminished: an opinion undoubtedly liable to great objections; but which M. Herrenschwand treats with too much severity. The necessary connection which M. Neckar establishes between the quantity of money, and the prices of different articles, is the point of view in which our author considers the passage; and in his opinions, which on this subject are often exact, he follows sir James Stewart.

Though we have once before drawn down M. Herrenschwand's indignation, by speaking too freely, we shall continue to give our real opinion; yet we have carefully abridged his work, that this opinion may not, if erroneous, mislead our readers. The discourse on public credit is extremely diffuse, though, in the number of words, as sometimes happens, the meaning is not lost, for it is sufficiently perspicuous. The author's opinions are not always just. We have differed from a brilliant, but excentric writer, the marquis de Casaux, and do not think a public debt a blessing; but many advantages are the consequence of it. The inconveniencies which this author points out are imaginary, and the injuries greatly exaggerated. The situation of England is, in many respects, misrepresented; and the confidence in the French government our author allows is not considerable, notwithstanding the many patriotic virtues of the king, which we were entertained with in his last work. In fact, we look on M. Herrenschwand as a hasty, superficial author, whose knowledge of France, and of political œconomy, is very confined. His late work on the Division of Lands in Agriculture, we shall take up very soon.

A Dissertation on the Influence of the Passions upon Disorders of the Body. By William Falconer, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. in Board. Dilly.

WE generally follow Dr. Falconer's steps with great pleasure: to extensive medical erudition, he adds a sound judgment and pleasing language. It is not enough to speak of the corporeal effects which result from peculiar influences on the mind: these are copiously detailed in almost every system of physiology; but it is necessary to show how far the mental impressions may be useful in preventing or curing diseases: it should also be pointed out, that the effects of all more active passions are dangerous and transitory; that even the influence of the most powerful depressing ones are unmanageable, and of little real assistance to the physician. To Hope, the chearer Hope, and its offspring Confidence, we must look for almost all the aid which we want in our practice from the mental remedies.

Dr. Falconer, in this very judicious treatise, points out those general facts relating to the mind which are of confidence in his subsequent enquiry, and of which one of the most important is, that a passion is to be conquered only by exciting different affections of the mind. Another is, that the ennui and listlessness which the attainment of our wishes bring with it, may be relieved by exciting any, even the most distressing, passions. Mr. Hastings will not probably look on his impeachers as his friends, yet, if he compares the misery of having nothing to look forward to with hope and expectation, even to his present feelings, he will find himself a gainer by the comparison. After describing these circumstances which lay the foundation of the mental therapeutics, Dr. Falconer describes the effects of the various passions, as they appear in the body; and this seems to be one of the least useful parts of his work, since it admits of little application in the subsequent pages. Hope, which we think of great importance, is slightly mentioned; and its attendant, confidence, is crowded into a note. But we will rescue it from its disgraceful situation.

Two other mental affections, scarcely reducible to the class of passions, are of great importance in medicine. The first of these is, a high degree of faith and confidence in the efficacy of remedies. Whether this operates by engrossing the mind and attention, and thereby rendering it inaccessible to other impressions, or by imparting such a degree of tone, or strength, as enables the system to resist their attacks, is difficult to determine. It is found most efficacious, either in such disorders as are apt to recur at intervals, or else in such as principally affect the

the mind and spirits. It is, however, observable that, unless the prepossession be very strong, it is apt to fail in producing a cure. Another mental affection that has sometimes produced great effects, is a determined resolution of mind to resist the access of the complaint. However extraordinary this may seem, it has been practised with success in several disorders. It appears like that last spoken of, to have been principally of service in periodical and nervous complaints. There seems to be no doubt that it acts by inspiring strength and tone into the system.'

How many patients have found themselves relieved by the presence of a cheerful and judicious physician, so as even to give a force to Rousseau's paradox, 'Bring the doctor, but let him leave his medicines behind.' It is owing to hope, and indeed, Dr. Falconer allows it, by the extensive use which he makes of it. In one instance of this kind only, we differ from him, viz. the application of the magnet in a pain of the tooth. It seems to have its chief effect from the coldness. We have used it, without any confidence, merely because urged to do so; and the sensation, perhaps the sedative impression of cold, seems to have been of the greatest service.

Our author then takes up Dr. Cullen's nosology, and enquires into the effects of different passions on intermittents, typhus, including pestis, phrenitis, odontalgia, podagra, hæmorrhages, apoplexy, syncope, hypochondriasis, chlorosis amatoria, epilepsy (cramp and hiccup from Sauvages) hysteria, melancholia, mania, scorbutus, icterus spasmodicus, and nostalgia.

The greatest part of these diseases are influenced by the confidence which we have mentioned as so useful; and by merely drawing the mind from one train of images, and suggesting another more salutary. It is seldom that a physician would recommend violent terror to prevent a fit of intermittent, or hysteria; or that the patient's resolution could produce the same effect by resolving to do so. We have scarcely ever heard a well-attested instance of violent passions producing any thing but transitory yellowness of the skin, which is not a jaundice: the spasmodic icterus is a term chiefly applied to jaundice from the bites of animals, which happens too suddenly to be supposed to arise from the absorption of the poison. The language of the ancients respecting bile arose chiefly from their theory of the temperament; and is more often a poetical ornament, than a physiological position. The effect of passions on the gout, are well known, but cannot properly be employed. The necessity of a proper management of the mind in melancholia and mania, is sufficiently under-

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flood. We shall, however, extract a passage or two, as instances of our author's opinions.

'Opium too, which has been introduced into practice of late years in the nervous fever, and frequently administered, and in pretty large doses, is well known to exert great cordial effects on the mind and spirits'

Opium is not, he says, an antiseptic.

'Is it not probable then, that its good effects are produced by its composing the nervous agitations, and by its introducing sensations of an agreeable kind, which tend, of course, in the same manner with joy, and such like exhilarating passions, to excite the motion of the heart, and blood vessels, and to strengthen the natural functions of the system in general? This conjecture will receive additional strength, if we reflect that the debilitating passions, as fear, grief, &c. have been in all ages reckoned among the principal causes of the nervous fever. The similarity in the effect produced, renders it highly probable, that wine and opium owe the principal advantages they procure, to the same general property. Wine, indeed, largely taken, might be useful as an antiseptic; and I by no means deny, that it may be of service specifically, when administered with that intention. But if opium produces nearly the same effects (as it is said to do) we must look for some other cause of the efficacy of wine, and refer it to some qualities which it possesses in common with opium, which can be no other than those of a sedative and cordial kind, the action of which is confined to the nervous system only.'

The use of some strange remedies in hæmorrhages our author attributes to the horror and terror with which they affect the mind.—He goes on :

'The above facts, though scarcely applicable immediately to practice, suggest nevertheless some useful inferences. We should be cautious how we attempt to raise the spirits, or agitate the minds of those labouring under a present dangerous hæmorrhage. Low spirits, and a certain degree even of despondency for a time, may be of service in retarding the impetus of the blood, and allowing a thrombus to be formed. On this account we should not be too forward with assurances of safety, but rather leave them in some degree of doubt and apprehension. Much injury has, I think, been done in pulmonary consumptions attended with hæmoptoe, by the assurances of safety given by well meaning, though imprudent friends. It tends to stimulate the spirits, already too much agitated, and of consequence to accelerate the circulation, and increase the fever and discharge of blood, and is farther injurious, by causing the patient to pay less regard to other salutary regulations.'

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This train of ideas is so totally new to us, that we are unwilling to decide on their justice, before we have examined the subject more carefully. We shall take an opportunity of giving our opinion on it. We suspect that, in pulmonary hæmorrhages, as much injury was to be done by depressing passions, in respect to the fevers which usually follow, as benefit by lessening the hæmorrhage. There are few instances where hæmorrhage from the lungs is dangerous from its immediate effect, except at the end of fatal peripneumony, where this reasoning will not apply.

Dr. Falconer concludes with a description of those manners which will give to patients that confidence in their physician that is necessary; and concludes with a just and well-timed compliment to Dr. Fothergill, in whose memory this medal is annually bestowed. This appears to us a very elegant and useful dissertation; and we think the Fothergillian medal justly bestowed as a reward for it.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued, from p. 391.)

ON the subjects of Anatomy, Surgery, and Medicine, our neighbours have given us little information; but, as we purpose soon to take up another volume of the Transactions of the Royal Medical Society, we shall collect the little scattered information that has lately occurred, and shall introduce it with an abstract of M. Vecq d'Azyr's discoveries or comparative anatomy, which we lately mentioned in our review of the memoirs of the Royal Academy, and which our readers, we find, wish to see.

After his particular descriptions, our author observes, that the structure of the brains of fishes and amphibia may be well understood, if we suppose the great hemispheres of the human brain; the corpus callosum; the arch, supported by three pillars; the cornua ammonis, with their appendages; the pineal gland and its peduncles, destroyed; if we suppose the cerebellum composed of one or two very short striæ, and placing the attenuated striæ on two parallel lines, extended from the fore to the hinder part; the optic thalami hollowed by a cavity, and united by their superior parts; if we flatten the annular protuberance and reduce this mass to a very small bulk. We shall form the brain of birds, by placing the striated bodies above, and swelling them again a little more than in fish, by carrying the optic thalami below, by hollowing and separating them, while the other parts mentioned are supposed not to exist.

To give more weight to these applications, it is of consequence to remark, that there is a progressive chain in the structure. Brutes have no part of the brain which men have not, while

while man has many parts of the same organ not discoverable in brutes. The parts are also disposed according to the nature of the functions of the brain. The nervous actions are, 1st, the external communication, or the impressions of the senses; 2dly, the nervous re-action, or the motions excited in the nerves, in consequence of sensation; and, 3dly, the nervous internal communication, by which these motions are communicated in straight lines to the muscles. These functions are connected with a similar structure of medullary matter in men, and in brutes. The extent of senses, particularly that of touch, is however distinguishable in men above brutes; in nervous re-action man is superior, since the nerves communicate with a greater portion of medullary matter, and not with single tubercles, as in brutes. This increased mass of brain is not necessary to the mere re-action, or to the communication of motion; so that it probably contributes to the perfection of the intellectual functions.

The same author is publishing anatomical plates, which are distinguished by their accuracy and their clearness. The 17th figure of the third Number, is extremely beautiful and exact: it represents the surface of the brain with the origin of the nerves. This author will, however, excuse us for remarking, that he is a little mistaken in what he observes, in page 52, that Mess. Wrisberg and Soemerring have described the structure, pointed out by M. Neubauer, since Neubauer knew nothing of the second part of the fifth pair of nerves which M. Wrisberg first observed and described.

With Anatomy, Surgery and Medicine are intimately united; but on these subjects we can do little more than give a catalogue of works, with a short account of each, in reality what the French call *une catalogue raisonné*. The works of Ambrosio Bertrandi, professor of surgery at Turin, consist chiefly of *Memoirs* published in the *Miscellanea Taurenensia*, tom. i. and *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Surgery*, tom. iii. at least these works were honoured with the first appearance of the *Memoirs* contained in volumes I, and II. now before us. The present professors Penchionati and Brugnoni have added notes and supplements, with a life and catalogue of the works of Bertrandi, in 58 pages octavo. There is the description of the liver, and a treatise on the abscess of the liver, proceeding from wounds of the head, in this collection. The latter was attacked by Ponreau and David; and Bertrandi's defence, in Italian, is also added. The second volume commences by a Latin treatise on the Hydrocele. Two other volumes are expected. We may shortly mention, M. Angelo Riboli, Sull' uso del fuoco considerato; on the use of fire, which he considers as a sedative or a stimulant. We think it is almost always stimulant, though the actual cautery, by establishing a drain, often removes deep-seated inflammations. We have misused it too much; though the remedy is severe, it is often useful.

We

We perceive also, in the list of new publications, a second edition of M. de Brantilla's work on inflammatory Tumors: it is written in the German language, is published at Vienna, and dedicated to the emperor. The first edition, which lies before us, is a very valuable work; but the second is greatly augmented, since the two parts contain 880 pages. One of the most important additions is said to be the composition of a plaster, supposed to be of singular advantage, in scirrhus tumors of the breast: it is a saturnine liniment, apparently of no very remarkable efficacy. In the operation, he advises the surgeon to save as much of the skin as possible; a precaution which he probably derived from the English surgeons. Dr. Schlemer, of Königsgrätz, makes his infusion of bark, by putting two or three ounces of the powder into a phial of water filled to the neck, and then fastening it to the sails of a wind-mill; if the weather is warm, the cork must be very tight, and the bottle very strong, or the fermentation, excited by the constant motion, would break it.

There was sometimes since a very valuable Memoir read to the Royal Academy of Sciences by Dr. Pinel, on the application of mathematics to the human body, and the mechanism of luxations. He did not attempt to revive the old physico-mechanical doctrine, which is calculated, he says, to give a 'mortal disgust;' but merely to take advantage of mathematical proofs, in directing the force employed to reduce luxated limbs; he first applies his doctrine to the luxations of the clavicle, and promises to pursue it on the other bones. We cannot easily abridge his reasoning in this part of our work, or render it intelligible, without the plate; but the account appears to us clear, and his observations judicious. He is fully aware of the impediments which arise from the action of the muscles; but not that, in some luxations at least, there is reason to suspect a rupture of the capsular ligament.

In the department of Surgery we may mention a French and a German translation of Mr. Hunter's work, on the venereal disease. This treatise is not received with great commendations by the Gottingen Reviewers. They complain, that he has not seen Dr. Hensler's work; that his assertions are contradicted by other writers, particularly in relation to brutes being affected with the disease; and that his opinion, that syphilis is never joined with the itch and scurvy, is not supported by facts. The assertion of M. Camper, however, who thinks that he has seen the disease in brutes, is not confirmed by other observers; and the last imputation is founded on a little misrepresentation. The French translator is M. Audibert, who attended Mr. Hunter some time in London; and his work, in octavo, said to be as well printed as the original, is sold in Paris for five shillings sterling bound. The German translation is published at Leipzig, and corrected. There are some little circumstances in this article, which, in our opinion, explain the cause of its severity, and show, that at least a part of the communications came from London.

It

It would be improper to leave this subject without some account of the first part of Palleta's *Adversaria Chirurgica*: it is on the congenital lameness, and his opinions are supported by numerous observations. He begins, like some English surgeons, with remarking, that to be a dexterous operator is not the first merit of a surgeon: he should be a good physiologist also, and not take up his knife but in the moment of real necessity. The authors, therefore, who have most accurately described diseases, and taught us to distinguish them, are the best benefactors of mankind, even though the diseases, which they have studied and described, should be incurable. M. Palleta, therefore, turns his attention to the innate lameness, and attributes it to a defect of the superior part of the bone of the thigh, connected with the os innominatum; besides the usual causes of general lameness, our author, a physician of Milan, mentions some which are less known, as a diastasis of the os sacrum: this happened in two children, and was observed by Curico Bassio;—the elongation of the thigh and leg, from a weakness of the muscles of that extremity, and perhaps too by a relaxation of the ligament; a shortness of the leg by their too strong, and probably irregular, action, in consequence of great pains, abscesses, tumors of the round ligament, a laborious lying-in, &c. He then speaks of a fracture and luxation of the thigh; and shews the circumstances which demonstrate the existence of a fracture, when it is not otherwise evident. He enquires, whether the thigh ever separates from its epiphysis, instead of breaking or being luxated, and concludes, with several very eminent authors, that the epiphysis is with great difficulty separated from the thigh.

With the assistance of the observations of Tabarrani, Gienga, Saltz Manno, Sandisfort, Benn, and the conjectures of Morgagni, he shows how lameness may arise from a disease very different from luxation or fracture, to wit, by a defect of the round ligament. As few authors have spoken of lameness as arising from a corrosion of the neck of the femur and the os innominatum, he shows, that this effect has been produced by a violent contusion, and after the small-pox. In such circumstances, it has been generally attributed to an abscess; his own histories of these instances are supported by those of M. Sabatier, and the experience of Morgagni: he then comes to his principal subject.

Congenital lameness, he observes, is with difficulty perceived very early, or even, while the child is in the cradle, since the disease is in its early period, and the limbs are flexible, capable of being extended or pressed back into the sockets of the joints; it is with difficulty perceived, even when the child begins to walk, for all children are then seemingly lame. It is, however, plainly discovered, from the 11th to the 18th month, when they are soon fatigued, and the cause is seen to arise from the unequal length of the legs. The more immediate causes he has ascertained by dissection; and they are either, 1. that the neck of the thigh-bone is not sufficiently long; 2. the acetabulum

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is too large, or the head of the bone too great: 3. the direction of the neck of the bone is not proper: 4. the femur and acetabulum are of an oval figure: 5. the os sacrum, or the ossa inominata are luxated. He shows, that lameness must be the result of all these irregularities; and, to render the distinction complete, he points out the symptoms that demonstrate a fracture of the upper part of the thigh-bone; an event often mistaken for the cases just mentioned. Women are more subject to this complaint than men: of eleven subjects, nine were female ones; and it becomes an object of importance to determine, whether a lameness of this kind will impede delivery. Signor Pallera gives his opinion also on this subject; and shows, at least, that many instances have occurred of successful deliveries where the mother has been lame from her birth. Our author's two other dissertations—the one entitled *Experiments on the Human Blood*, when warm; the other on the *Cyphosis Paralytica*, we have not received.

Signor Pallera has employed the lizards in the hospital at Milan; but they have not always succeeded. A man died of a cancer of the under lip, though he had swallowed ninety-five of these animals. An hundred and twenty could not preserve the life of a woman, who had a cancer in the uterus; yet two persons were entirely cured of scrophulous ulcers by them; M. Trevisan cured a man of an exostosis, and a woman, of forty years of age, of pains in the bones, by this remedy. These facts are particularly mentioned in an Italian periodical work, entitled *Giornale per servire alla Storia ragionata della Medicina*, published at Venice, in quarto. The third volume is for the year 1786.

M. Arneman has lately published his *Dissertation on Aphthæ*, which obtained the second prize from the Society of Medicine at Paris. The work is in many respects valuable, and is divided into three parts: 1. The aphthæ of children: 2. the malignant aphthæ of hospitals and work-houses, which our author thinks differs from the first kind only in degree, and to be a critical evacuation that ought to be supported: 3. the aphthæ of adults.

A more important medical work is published in Italian, at Pisa, by signor Francisco Vacca, in two volumes quarto, entitled an *Essay on the most frequent Diseases of the Human Body*; and on their most efficacious Remedies. The title is a comprehensive one; and the author, who boasts of the experience of thirty-four years, is a professor in the university of Pisa. 'My work, says he, shows the real state of the powers of medicine, not those attributed to it by credulity or imposture.' Physic is confessedly imperfect, and our author proposes to render it less so, by attentive observation, particularly of uncommon cases. Theory he thinks of little comparative importance. What method would have appeared more probable, says he, in a theoretical view, than the hot one in the small-pox? And what has been more pernicious?—Dr. Cullen's system, which is simple and

and ingenious, but founded in M. Vacca's opinion on principles purely hypothetical, he entirely rejects, and undertakes to point out its errors. To Boerhaave he is scarcely more complaisant; his theory is defective and erroneous. In short, he opposes every hypothesis, and endeavours to extend the empire of observation and experience; for without these, says he, we can have no good pathology.

The first volume treats of the causes, the symptoms, the progress and treatment of diseases in general, and of fevers in particular. The second treats of chronic diseases in general, and of some particular ones. He examines also, from experience, the effects of the most celebrated remedies. The volume is terminated by a Supplement, in which M. Vacca enquires into the advantages which medicine has received from anatomy and natural philosophy. These advantages appear to be few; but our author is full of hopes, and concludes, that the study of these sciences is absolutely necessary. This work contains many facts, that may with propriety be depended on; but, we perceive that our author is sometimes sceptical and often prejudiced.

As we have mentioned Dr. Cullen, and the opinion of M. Vacca of his works, we may just observe, that he has not received very fair or candid treatment on the continent. Two translations of his First Lines have been published, and either intemperately praised or severely criticised. The most moderate think they find much to blame in his theory, and much to be supplied in his practice.

In the foregoing detail we have chiefly been indebted to Italian physicians; Germany furnishes little novelty. Mursinna, has, however, published a second edition on putrid fevers and diarrhoeas. He is surgeon-general in the Prussian Armies; and these diseases occurred in the campaigns of 1778 and 1779. His practice greatly resembles that of Zimmerman, in the dysentery: he seems to have given wine more freely.

Though Germany has furnished little to this article, in the university at Gottingen medicine seems to be successfully cultivated. A thesis of some importance was published there, in the course of last year, on white vitriol, and its use in medicine. In this salt there is usually some iron and copper, which are separated by adding an additional quantity of zinc: it is said to be a powerful astringent and tonic, capable of opposing putrefaction and quieting convulsions. The vomiting which it excites is attributed by the author, M. Stolpe, to the particles of copper in it; for, from twenty-four to forty-five grains of his own preparation did not vomit two patients, in whom that evacuation was easily excited by a very small dose of emetic tartar and ipecacuanha. Yet the copper may be of service, when an active emetic is wanted. Internally, it is said to be useful in epilepsies, putrid fevers, inflammatory fevers, rheumatism, gout, to kill worms, to remove the colica pictonum, and to check hæmorrhages. It is used externally in inflammations of
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the eyes, ulcers of the mouth, scurvy, and in the second stage of gonorrhœa. . . Another thesis of nearly the same period, is by M. Janssen of Lunebourg, on the bilious peripneumony, and it is said to be very valuable. Another thesis, contains an able defence of Dr. Crawford's Theory of Heat, against the objections of Mr. Morgan : young authors are not, however, agreed on this subject. Mr. Leopoldo Vacca, the son of the professor at Pisa, opposes Dr. Crawford's theory, and adds a new one of his own, which depends on fire fixed by phlogiston : the fire only appears with its peculiar properties, in this author's opinion, when separated from phlogiston ; but Dr. Crawford's second edition, will contribute to elucidate this subject by more accurate experiments.

We must not leave the university of Gottingen without mentioning the fourth volume of Murray's *Apparatus Medicaminum*. The form is changed, and it is now published in folio : there are but five orders of plants, and seventy-four other articles ; so that this volume appears to contain less than any of the former ones. As we expect to receive it very soon, we shall give a general account of the author's plan, and of the whole work. This fourth volume is said to be particularly valuable.

An Essay on the Medical Power of the *Italian* indigenous Plants has been lately published at Naples ; the author is Dr. Giuseppe Micoli ; he is a young knight-errant, who has already taken the field against every species of quacks, whom he considers as the most destructive vermin. To determine the real virtues of one plant, is of more consequence, he says, to the progress of medicine, than all the capricious and chimerical theories which quackery and imposture have invented. We want, he thinks, no woods, barks or balsams, from another hemisphere : our own remedies are sufficient. The medicines which he would depend on are sea-water, sea-salt, the juice of the white poppy, nettles, resin, gentian, oil of the pine-tree, probably turpentine, &c. There is some quackery, though of a different kind from what has usually been distinguished by that name, in all this declamation ; and it might be useful to enquire, how far the mind may be induced to place more confidence in what is foreign, and much celebrated, than in our own plants ? If it be supposed to be more strongly affected by the one kind than the other, it is prudent and politic to employ that kind. . In reality however, sulphur and turpentine will not cure phthisis : gentian will not remove fevers, nor the juice of the white poppy be so useful as our young author fancies.

Matteo Zocchirpoli's letter, *Sopra l'Azione dei Medicamenti*, is not on a much better foundation. As different medicines may produce different kinds of air in the stomach, he suspects that their peculiar action may depend on these airs ; and that nutrition is also affected by different sorts of the same fluid. Putrefaction is owing to the escape of air ; and antiseptics prevent that escape. Wine and acidulous waters act from their inflammable and fixed air. The nervous symptoms which occasionally arise from some

grains of filings of steel, proceed from the inflammable air, produced on their solution in the stomach; and the refrigerating power of nitre, from its dephlogisticated air. We suppose our readers wish for no farther information, relating to this very eccentric work.

M. Baldini's works, which contain several useful observations on the actions of medicines, are lately collected at Naples; they are to consist of five volumes. We shall transcribe the subjects: of the exercise of hunting, as proper to preserve health; of the diversion of fishing; the method of bringing up children by hand; of the exercise of riding and sailing; that the weakness of the human constitution is produced by the refinements of fashion; rules for obtaining an healthy old age; on the cold baths of simple and sea-water; of the internal use of sea-water in obstructions; practical rules for the use of mineral baths, stoves, &c. on lemons, potatoes, and melons; on the use of wine in diseases; on the medical use of lizards; on the advantages of vervain in fevers; the effects of fern in rickets; salutary directions for gouty people; on the action of smells on the human body. These volumes, which are entitled *Essays on the Preservation of health*, are said to contain all Dr. Baldini's works: he is physician to the king of Naples, and a man of extensive knowledge and real ability. As the greater part, if not the whole of these volumes, have been already published in a separate state, we shall not enlarge on them any farther.

Dr. Giuseppe Amico Casa Grande has published an excellent *Essay on the Oil of the Cornel-tree*, which was formerly employed and was long since forgotten. He shows how the oil can be separated from the berries and its different uses. It is an unctuous oil, somewhat aromatic and balsamic; but its medical uses are rather hinted at than pointed out. Our author shows how it is to be sweetened for the use of the table, and has explained its various oeconomic uses, particularly in making soap. M. Binder, in a little pamphlet, has also shown, that oil, proper for eating and burning, may be made from the stones of grapes. It is a brochure of twenty-four pages, published at Stuttgart; but the most important essay on subjects of this kind, is the *Memoir of M. Moringlane*, lately read to the college of Pharmacy at Paris; on the method of extracting the different substances, known under the name of turpentine, tar, colophony, yellow pitch, yellow resin, with all the various productions of the pine-tree. This *Memoir* is in many respects valuable, since the directions are very particular, relating to the choice of the tree, and in some measure on its cultivation. A treatise has also been lately published on the continent, on the medical use of turpentine. In this essay its virtues are as much exaggerated as they have lately in England been diminished. Truth seldom dwells in extremes; it was formerly the fashion to use stimulating medicines too freely; and we now dread them too much: turpentine, with proper care, may be often an useful medicine, in cases where it has been lately forbidden.

Tableau

Tableau General de l'Empire Ottoman, par M. de Mouradgea D'Ohsson, Chevalier de l'Ordre Royal de Wafa, &c. Royal Folio. Vol. I. Paris. Sold in London by Robinsons. 7l. 7s. in Boards.

WHether the Ottoman empire will be soon shaken to its foundations; whether the storms of war will introduce a more liberal government; or success rivet more strongly the chains of despotism, are questions, though interesting, yet too intricate for our discussion, and admit of too imperfect a solution to draw us far in the regions of doubtful enquiry. At this period, the politics of the Porte begin to be more than usually interesting to Christian powers. It depends on the events of the present war to determine, whether the Mediterranean shall admit another master to contend for the sovereignty of its sea; or whether the vast force of Russia shall add to the complicated system of European politics in the southern regions. Yet, independent of this crisis, it is time that a period so enlightened as the present should receive some more authentic information than the casual reports of travellers can afford, on the subject of a nation which, issuing from the confines of the Caspian sea in the thirteenth century, has for ages been in possession of the most beautiful country in Europe. We have long looked at this colossus from a distance: it is now time to receive some information on those minuter principles, which give energy and activity to the whole machine; to examine the powers and resources of this nation of enthusiastic conquerors. From M. D'Ohsson we had reason to form sanguine expectations. He was born at Constantinople, had resided all his life in that country, and was the minister of a court whose situation was intimately connected with the Porte. Our expectations are not disappointed. The splendor of this first volume is unexampled; its exactness, so far as we have been able to perceive, is unimpeachable. We gave early notice of it in our last volume, page 301, and we can now add, from a careful examination of the first volume, that our ideas of its execution are greatly exceeded.

The religious code is designed to make two volumes. The present volume contains the first section, and the three first books of the second. The code is divided into three portions, the dogmatical, the ritual, and the moral. It is the work of the ancient Mahometan doctors, called imams mudjhtehhids, which signifies fathers of the church, and sacred interpreters. This religious legislation is founded, 1st. On the Cour'ann (for so it seems the Koran must be written). 2dly. On the oral laws of Mahomet. 3dly. On the decision of his disciples, and particularly of the four first caliphs. And, 4thly, On the opinions of the imams. These four books are consecrated, under the title of Erdille-y-Erbea, or the four demonstrative proofs. In the introduction, these four sources of religious legislation are first examined and explained: it contains, 2dly. an explanation of the four orthodox rituals, and of the seventy-two sects proscribed in the empire. There is also an

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account of the formation and the compilation of this code published under the name of Multeka, its different characters, and the distinctions which the law makes of different nations, religions, and conditions of men. This code forms their criminal and civil law; and is, indeed, almost the whole of their jurisprudence. It is said to be very confused in its original state, yet it is the foundation of the various fetwas or decisions of the imams. These have been reduced by the mustis, and form what we call the common, in opposition to the statute law. There are various collections of this kind, in different degrees of estimation.

The first section contains the dogmatical code: it consists of fifty-eight articles of faith; and is the work of Omér Nesséfy, with the commentaries of Sadéd-dinn Teftazany. It contains an account of the cosmogony of the Mahometans; of their traditions respecting the earliest ages; of their respect for the patriarchs and prophets, with their particular veneration for the person of Jesus Christ. A table of the universal caliphs is added, or those who are considered as the immediate successors of Mahomet in the sacerdotal throne; and a catalogue of the principal heresies which have sprung up even in the centre of the Mahometan faith. The true meaning of the tenet of predestination is explained; the wisdom of the law respecting the illusions of judicial astrology, and every thing that relates to the sacerdotal functions of the sovereign; his spiritual and temporal authority, his rights and his powers, and the requisite qualities to render him worthy of the Mahometan throne, are detailed at some length. Observations are subjoined on prayers and alms; signs which announce the end of the world; on doctors, who are interpreters of the law, and the different classes of prophets. The chapter on judicial astrology is very valuable, and illustrated by numerous facts from the history of the Turkish empire. We shall select a short instance.

‘The succession of Mourad III. to the throne offered a new subject of alarm to the superstitious. It is a common opinion, that the first words spoken by a new monarch would foretell the happiness or misfortunes of his reign. Mourad, having had secret intelligence of his father’s death, immediately left Magnésie, where he commanded, and arrived by night at the seraglio, where he received the homage of his servants. They stood round the throne, awaiting, in silence and fear, the first words that the new sultan would speak: his words were, “I am very hungry, give me something to eat.” Terror seized every mind, and they grieved for the misfortunes supposed to threaten the reign of the prince. The event added strength to this ridiculous opinion; for a cruel famine happened the same year at Constantinople and different provinces of the empire. This misfortune was followed by wars and horrible rebellions, which rendered this reign one of the most unhappy ones.’

We shall translate one other short passage, which relates to the end of the world.—‘The prophet has given six signs, as the terrible

rible forerunners of this event. 1. A black, thick smoke, which shall surround the whole globe. 2. The appearance of the anti-christ, Dedjeal. 3. The appearance of Dabbet'ul-arz, who will have in his hand the rod of Moses, and the seal of Solomon: he will touch the elect with this rod, tracing on their faces, in visible letters, the word mumin, believer, faithful, and will apply the print of the seal on the foreheads of those who are rejected, tracing the word keafir, unbeliever. 4. The sun rising from the West. 5. The coming of Jesus Christ, the son of Mary. 6. The appearance of Yeedjoudjes-Meedjoudjes, or nations of dwarfs, the issue of Japhet, the son of Noah. 7. The falling of the East. 8. The destruction of the West. 9. The overthrow of Arabia. 10. A violent conflagration, which arising from the Yemen, shall drive the people before it to the place of judgment.'

The ritual part, the subject of the second section, is where the code Multéka begins, and is compiled by Ibrahim Haleby. It contains five general heads; purification, prayer, the elemosynary tithe, fasting, and a pilgrimage to Mecca. The explanation of the religious code on the three first points only is contained in this volume. But to be more particular:

Purifications are divided into three kinds; washing, ghasl, merely cleansing from impurities; but any smooth bodies may be wiped only, since the soldiers of Mahomet, after victory, only wiped their swords, or those which they took from the enemy, put them on their sides, and went to prayer. The second kind is ablution, which implies somewhat more strict than washing; and lotion, which differs rather in the ceremonies used, or the purposes to which it is applied, than in the form in which it is employed. The water is spring, or even sea-water; in short, any thing but stagnant, feid water, or what is defiled by any impurity. Dust is styled pure water, and allowed, where no water can be obtained. This was a convenient dispensing power, which the prophet employed in a dry desert. The kinds of impurity which require illustration, affords much absurdity, and many ridiculous distinctions. The great objects are undoubtedly cleanliness and health. For the first purpose, the ablutions are ordered to be very strictly observed, on various occasions. On the second account, we find baths very frequent in all Mahometan countries, since their different lustrations can only be performed properly in a bath.

Prayer is a very extensive duty. The dominical prayer, the namaz, or salath, requires four conditions: 1. A state of perfect purity. 2. To cover the parts which modesty requires to be concealed. 3. Turning towards Mecca. 4. Proper intentions. The posture required is pointed out with great accuracy, and a proper gravity is an essential object. The prayer namaz is to be repeated four times in twenty-four hours, viz. in the morning, at noon, in the afternoon, and at night. Every impurity acquired during prayer, requires fresh ablution; and, if the pu-

rity of an imam is soiled, he must go out covering his face, 'as if his nose had bled,' and he must by signs request some of his pious and learned hearers to proceed. Every groan or word, or the slightest inattention, renders the prayer of no effect. Even sighs destroy its efficacy, unless they occur at those passages of the *Cour'ann*, which speak of paradise or hell. The usual salutations of mussulmen on sneezing, the salutations between the faithful, and even coughing, which are all worldly practices, are injurious to the effect of the prayer. But it is impossible to mark all these minute variations, or the different ordinances for travellers, and sick persons. The particular forms, on different occasions, are very numerous. Some parts of the *Cour'ann* are to be recited only when accompanied by prostrations; and every good mussulman is expected to be able to repeat the whole of this sacred volume.

The eleemosynary tithe is another duty of Mahometans. This tithe is collected for the benefit of poor mussulmen, except of the tribe of Beni-Hachim. This tribe is too noble to receive alms: it would disgrace them; so that if they are poor, they live on a certain portion of the sovereign's share of plunder, from the enemies of the faith. When there is no war, their situation seems to be a distressing one. A man must be in possession of a certain number of camels, oxen, sheep, horses, or other effects, to be liable to this tax; and from this number the tax is increased in proportion. Even jewels and gold are taxed; and the origin is said to have been the following occurrence.—The prophet seeing two women turning towards Mecca, with bracelets of gold on their arms, asked them if they had paid the eleemosynary tax? They said no—Would you then, says he, choose, instead of bracelets of gold, bracelets of fire? By no means, they replied, with the most lively emotion.—Well then, adds the prophet, mind, for the future, to pay tithes.' It ought to be mentioned, from our author, for the credit of Mahometanism, that mussulmen are no less careful to pay this tax, than strictly to fulfil all the external ceremonies of their religion. We believe they are not so careful, in private, to obey the dictates of the *Cour'ann*. The paschal tithe is of canonical institution, and consists of a certain measure of corn, or its value, which every rich mussulman is obliged to pay for himself, and even his children and domestics. This obligation extends only from the morning of the feast, to the time of the paschal prayer. The paschal sacrifice is of similar institution, and consists in offering a camel, or an ox; but seven are allowed to unite in this sacrifice, at their joint expence. The volume concludes with a description of the temples, and the buildings round the mosques; the public libraries connected with them; schools, hospitals, colleges, and the various foundations which form parts of religious institutions.

We must not leave M. d' Ohsson's work, without some remarks on its execution. It is beautifully printed, on the paper usually employed for copper-plates, in a type which wants only

only a little more fullness to render it no less convenient to read than beautiful to look at. The proportions of the letters, with a very few exceptions, and those very trifling, are excellent. The plates are beautifully executed. A little prejudice may be felt against their accuracy, by those who reflect that the Turks allow of no imitations of life in drawings. It may at first be suspected, therefore, that these drawings are imaginary ones, or taken from recollection. It must be, however, remembered, that the Persians allow of paintings; and this is one of the circumstances which make good mussulmen look on them as heretics. In some of their books of history may be found portraits of almost all the patriarchs, the caliphs, the imams, and the greatest men of the East, with plates of the most remarkable battles, and the most celebrated achievements of the eastern nations. The sultans also, in spite of their law, have their pictures painted in oil on fine pasteboard. This practice was begun by Osman I. and each sovereign adds his own: they form a book in quarto. Our author, by a lucky event, procured this book, and copied the portraits. He showed it also to M. de St. Priest, and M. Ulric de Celsing, the French and Swedish ambassadors; and their testimony will probably support the truth of his account, and the authenticity of his copy. The other plates were drawn on the spot by Grecian and even European artists. Those, in the present volume, are of unequal merit; but those of inferior merit are clearly and neatly executed. They represent the patriarchs and the mussulmen at prayer, or performing their ablutions; the religious festivals; the outside and insides of mosques, chapels, libraries, &c. The patriarchs, and even Adam and Eve are, of course, drawn from fancy, and generally in Turkish dresses. The plates of this volume are forty in number, besides the frontispiece.

We have given an early account of this work, because it is splendid and curious. We shall take up the second volume as soon as it comes to our hands; for we are convinced it will gratify the curiosity of our readers to be informed of the publication and its contents, if they cannot obtain a more ample gratification, by perusing it.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

Peter's Pension. A solemn Epistle to a sublime Personage. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 3s. Kearsley.

WE perceive that Peter politically sunk in his last work, (see p. 400.) to rise higher, and dazzle us with more splendor in the present. If he before set in the west, he now rises in the east; and is more arch and pleasant than ever. The report of his pension, and the various rumours spread concerning him, furnish the subject of this poem, which is ornamented by
 1 i 3 some

some *softer* poetry, to show that he has not a *bard* heart. We still wish that he would change his subject; and we would rather consent to be the objects of his satire, in another 'Supplicatory Epistle,' than that he should continue in this unceasing round. Yet his present satires are more interesting: the editions where M—y is attacked are numerous, while the Epistle to the Reviewers, though the oldest, is least in request. We hope that this arises from something more than our obscurity. We shall, as usual, extract some lines, and they shall be the concluding ones. After refusing the pension that *may* be offered, he adds:

' Yet, should I imitate the fickle wind,
Or Mr. patriot Eden—change my mind;
And for the bard your majesty should send,
And say, " Well well, well well, my tuneful friend,
I long, I long, to give you something, Peter—
You make fine verses—nothing can be sweeter—
What will you have? what, what? speak out—speak out—
Yes, yes you something want, no doubt, no doubt."
Or should you like some men who gravely preach,
Forsake your usual short-hand mode of speech,
And thus begin—in bible-phrases sublime;
" What shall be done for our rare son of rhyme?
The bard who full of wisdom writeth?
The man in whom the king delighteth?"
Then would the poet thankfully reply
With fault'ring voice, low bow, and marv'ling eyes
All meekness! such a simple, dovelike thing!
" Blest be the bard who verses can indite,
To yield a second Solomon delight!
Thrice blest, who findeth favour with the king!
Since 'tis the royal will to give the bard
In whom the king delighteth, some reward,
Some mark of royal bounty to requite him;
O king! do any thing but knight him."

These are not, however, the best.—The tales furnish some pointed strokes of wit and satire; but we are unwilling to transcribe them, because, we hope, they are founded on misrepresentations.

The King's Ode, in answer to Peter Pindar, on the Subject of his Pension; with a poetical Preface, and four original Cantatas, by the same Hand. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stalker.

' Paid in thy own poetic coin,
No better pension shall be thine.'

From these lines of the preface we expected much pleasure. A commercial treaty of wit promised great entertainment. But we must observe, that Peter is not paid *in his own coin*. For wit and humour dullness and insipidity are bartered; and we do not perceive that the king's champion is less severe on his

majesty than Peter; so that we have not even loyalty and decorum to compensate for stupidity. There are some rural cantatas, and an Ode to Impudence, which have a little merit in the burlesque style. We shall transcribe the last stanza of the Ode:

‘————Fickle dame
Who lov’st promiscuous flame,
On Peter fix thy shameless fire,
————O, sweep with hottest hands————his lyre,
On lowliest subjects sing:
Thus in a little time,
The sons of little rhyme,
A thousand puny Pindars forth will spring.
Amazon of Peter’s cell,
Still at Newport shambles dwell.’

We cannot easily divine our author’s meaning. If he meant to express his displeasure at Peter’s illiberal abuse of M—y, it may be observed, that he is almost equally abusive: if, to depreciate Pindar’s poetry, he has furnished the best foil to decorate it, by contrast, in adopting his metre and his manner. Conjectures are endless: perhaps, after all, the design originated in the Park, about dinner-time.

The History of Peter Pindar. 4to. 2s. Stalker.

‘Ecce iterum Crispinus!’ ‘Master Kastryll, the angry boy is come again,’ and tells us that Peter was a Cornish apothecary, and threshed by a Cornish justice. It may be very true; for we know authors only in their works; but that there was no interval in his life between his Cornish healing and his London writing, has been greatly doubted by those who pretend to be well acquainted with him.

From the Answer to the Expostulatory Epistle, we shall select our author’s panegyric on Mr. West.

‘And thus it is with famous West,
Who has so charmingly express’d
Th’ events of the historic page,
Which most attention shou’d engage:
Whose pencil has so well portray’d
The passions which the soul pervade.
—O West! how oft I’ve fondly gaz’d,
While my rapt fancy stood amaz’d;
Gaz’d on each dear, fictitious part,
Depicted with such curious art,
She almost doubted that the scene
Had mere effect of col’ring been!’

We hope the doubts of fancy are, by this time, resolved. But if, gentle reader, you are not pleased with this extract, which we have culled with our choicest care, we are sorry for it: there is really no temptation to transcribe more.

Poetical Translations from various Authors. By Master John Browne, of Crewkerne, Somerset; a Boy of Twelve Years Old. Published by the Rev. Robert Ashe, for the Benefit of his Pupil.
4to. 3s. Nichols.

This publication will, we hope, answer the design of the benevolent editor, and enable the young poet to prosecute his studies, and reap the benefit of a university education. His father cannot be expected to contribute *very largely* towards it, having seven children to provide for besides our author, and all of them younger than him; To support this family he has merely the profits of his place as an exciseman, and what he can get by stealing a few hours from his office, in teaching day-scholars to read and write.—The editor declares that he never assisted his pupil in the structure of five verses throughout the whole of his poems; and if they have received no other corrections but what their author's judgment suggested, they must impress every reader with wonder at his taste and accuracy. We mean not to imply by this, that his translations are always absolutely correct, either as to expression or fidelity; but they approach so nearly towards it as to command our admiration. In proof of our assertion, we shall merely select a few lines from the translation of Mr. Huntingford's Ode to Silence, which opens the collection, and was written by Master Browne when *but ten years old*.

‘ Sister to darkness, and the gloomy night,
With visage pale, and down-cast, fixed, sight,
Thy finger to thy closed lips apply’d,
Say in what place, O Silence, you reside?
Far in the wood imbosom’d deep?
Or on the lofty mountain’s sleep?
In the dreary desert wide?
Or by some lonely tower’s side?
Or sitt’st thou on the rocky shore
While zephyrs calm the billows’ roar?’

The epithets, in general, throughout the collection, are equally well chosen, and suited to the subject, as those we have quoted.

Soliloquy in a thatched Building in a retired Part of W— Gardens.
4to. 2s. 6d. Faulder.

The author appears to be a very whimsical sort of character, and we know not well what to say of his verses. ‘The following little poem, he tells us, has now run some way into *his fourth Noviate* since it was originally written.’—‘Why, or when it has been enlarged since—why brought from obscurity to the broad day—whether the subject or scene be real or fictitious—whether the sentiments of the poem be the past, or present ones *of the very day*.’ All these points, the author assures us, he will keep a profound secret; nay, he has contrived to wrap himself up in so much obscurity, that, without presuming to guess whether

whether his sentiments are new or old, we can seldom discover the ideas which he means to convey, nor even the subject on which he writes. The lines which we have quoted follow an address to Minerva, who is desired to come 'not in 'sable frowns,' but with 'winning smiles to fill the heart with *penury* pleasure.'

'Teach me to tread life's devious way,
Nor friend to vice, nor falsehood's prey;
And ever be thy golden line,
Twixt sophistry and reason, mine:
Sad sophistry! with glaring hue,
That gives false virtues for the true;
Reason, (and through thy light divine)
The jewel pure, as from the mine;
Thy light! that shews, with differing name,
Proof and conviction, as—the same;
Thy light! that, equal, gives to view,
For, or against, ourselves—the true:
And then, with rectitude your guide,
No, not for worlds, to quit your side;
But then too, yes; ye half-born throng,
When wrong, to see; nay say, we're wrong.
To re-illumine, from black offence,
The injur'd front of innocence;
(From black offence? but if such be,
Take care, at least, ourselves are free,
"Judge not, (we're told) lest you judg'd be.")

The explanatory notes are, if possible, more obscure than the poem.—Three engravings of Strutt accompany this performance, two of them extremely beautiful, and deserving a better situation.

The Fall of the Robillas. An Historic Poem. 4to. 1s. 6d. Symmonds.

Asiatic manners afford ample scope for poetical embellishments; and the present subject, if properly treated, might have been made extremely interesting. The 'little Epic,' so the author styles it, now before us, is almost entirely confined to the history of a single family. The brevity of the tale is not its least excuseable defect.

Euphrosyné, an Ode to Beauty: addressed to Mrs. Crouch. By Silvester Otway. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

An irregular poem (and such the present is in every sense of the word), if the pauses are judiciously varied, may possess striking and peculiar beauties. The writer should, however, have an exceeding good ear in regard to poetical numbers and cadence, otherwise that of his reader will be frequently much hurt at the failure of an expected rhyme, or a well finished or an harmonious period. Those who adopt this mode of composition merely for

for the ease with which it may be executed, can never succeed. In general, how tiresome and disgusting are the Pindarics of Cowley, and other poems of the same name, written in the last century? Our author seems to consider this mode of writing as a novel attempt. He professes a neglect of all methodical arrangement of verse:

‘Whether, says he, this shall be deemed a fortunate temerity, or an unhappy attempt to shake off the fetters that encumber the flight of the British Muses, is now respectfully submitted to the candid severity of criticism, and to the impartial opinion of the public.’

The public, we can assure him, will concur in opinion with us, that if the Muses will play such antic tricks when they are let loose, as they are here made to play, they ought to be again confined; and we beg the lady to whom the poem is addressed, and who seems to have turned the author’s brain, that she would exert her influence, not, ‘to cheer,’ but check ‘the soaring lay.’

‘To cheer my soaring lay,
Which trembling tries the proud essay—
For oh! that meteor-blaze of beauteous form,
What eagle-pinion’d flight of song
Can ever hope to reach!’

Messiah: a Poem, in Two Parts. By Miss Scott. 4to. 2s.
Johnfon.

‘This poem was occasioned, says miss Scott, by reading Mr. Hayley’s animated exhortation to Mr. Malon to write a national epic poem.’ One would naturally suppose that, in a muse-inspired mind, it would rather have suggested the idea of an Alfred, an Edward, or an Arthur, ‘begirt with British or armoric knights,’ than have taught it to wing its excursive flight to the distant regions of Judæa. There is, however, something very striking and peculiar in the concatenation, or rather succession of ideas, that occupy the human mind. Miss Scott informs us, ‘she was led by a perusal of those elegant lines insensibly to contrast the character of that Hero, on whom the Christian’s eye should be invariably fixed, with the heroes of the world.’ This passage, and many others, evince the pious disposition of the fair author; and it must be confessed they are sometimes more commendable for their religious and moral tendency than their poetical merit.

‘The infant Jesus grew in strength apace,
And, as his years increas’d, he grew in grace:
No puerile sports amus’d his opening mind.’

We meet with many feeble and prosaic lines like the preceding, but with few strikingly exceptionable. The sentiments are generally expressed with precision and ease, sometimes with elegance: of which the quotation annexed will serve as an instance.

‘In

' In all the pomp of verse, in times of old,
The Bard Divine thy mystic birth foretold,
And sung, in rapture's animating strain,
The peaceful glories of thy promis'd reign.

' Bright Morning Star! from thy resplendent ray
Shall darkling man derive celestial day;
Wide shall thy renovating light expand,
And cheer, ere time expire, each distant land.

' Mild Prince of Peace! where'er thy banners spread,
Triumphing virtue shall erect her head;
Arm'd with the conqu'ring energy of God,
Thy hand shall break oppression's iron rod!
War's brazen trump no more the ear shall wound,
Nor earth, her bleeding children's groans resound
Each hostile nation shall thy laws obey,
And own the meek Messiah's gentle sway.

' Thy life's first dawn, angelic voices sung;
To joy's bold notes their golden harps they strung;
And while the swift-wing'd messengers of love,
Lightsome as air, descended from above,
A radiance round them shone more richly bright
Than day's gay orb in its meridian height;
Its dazzling beams the watchful shepherds saw,
And gaz'd, and trembled with unwonted awe.'

A Monody on the Death of Mr. John Henderson. By G. D. Harley. 4to. 2s. Wilkie.

Mr. Henderson's professional abilities were considerable, and his private character respectable. This performance seems to have originated from a warm and sincere friendship, and so far it does the author credit. Its poetical merit is not very conspicuous, though we occasionally meet with some good lines, and sentiments happily expressed.

The Humours of Brighthelmstone. By J. West. 4to. 1s. Scatcherd.

The Brighthelmstone waters appear to be of a very different nature to those which flow from the Castalian spring; instead of conveying divine inspiration, they seem to possess a stupefying and antipoetic quality. In confirmation of our remark, an illustrious example was given in our Review for April last, p. 313. The poem now before us is not to be placed in the same rank with that strange indigested performance. It is a feeble imitation of Anstey's Bath Guide.

The Country Book-Club. A Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Lowndes.

We suspect, from some inaccuracies, that this little poem is written by a person whose genius has not been greatly improved by education. We perceive in it some traits of humour not very poignant; a few characters pretty well discriminated, though not very highly finished; and some descriptive scenes, tolerably pleasing, though not strikingly beautiful.

The

The Solicitudes of Absence, a genuine Tale. 12mo. 3s. Forster.

Mr. Renwick, to whose merits we have so often borne a willing testimony, relates, in this 'genuine tale' of woe, the events of his life, the solicitudes arising in consequence of his absence from a beloved wife and family; the struggles which he experienced with a narrow income, with alternate expectations and disappointments.—Mr. Renwick deserves much; and he has not been *wholly* disappointed; yet, with great merits and laborious services, he should not have been left in his old age to contend against the billows of a troublesome world. When we reviewed his various 'Addresses' we were not aware that he was, in fact, pleading for an amiable wife and a promising family. We wish he had been more successful. His mind seems to be well-regulated and well-informed: his language is elegant; his poetry pleasing, tender, and pathetic.

D R A M A T I C.

Ximenes; a Tragedy: by Percival Stockdale. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder.

This Tragedy was never acted, nor is it calculated for theatrical representation. It is totally void of the intricacies of the modern drama, and seems formed upon the model of Shakspeare's historical plays. It resembles them at least in length, number of characters, the introduction of real occurrences, and irregularity of plot.—We cannot carry the parallel much farther.

The Stone Eater, an Interlude. As it is acted at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. By C. Stuart. 8vo. 6d. Symonds.

There is no critical code by which we can try these temporary trifles. Fancy follows its own laws, and absurdity is often the consequence. It is as easy to eat stones as to give any account of this performance.

N O V E L S.

Powis Castle; or, Anecdotes of an Ancient Family. In two Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

The first volume is artless and pleasing: the second is of very inferior value; for Sir Walter is uneasy without reason, and fastidious without conviction. There are many trifling errors in language and circumstances, which lead us to think that the author's knowledge and experience have received very little cultivation.

Emilia D'Aubigné, a Novel, by the Author of Ella, or the Delusions of the Heart. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Elliott.

We cannot highly commend the moral tendency or the conduct of this work. Some parts contain natural and unaffected descriptions; but the story is sometimes improbable, and often obscure.

He-

Heloise; or, the Siege of Rhodes. A Legendary Tale. By the Author of Maria; or, the Generous Rustic. Vol. I. Small 8vo, 3s. 6d. Forbes.

Legendary Tales are seldom executed happily; and we cannot highly commend the *Siege of Rhodes*. The narrative is sometimes interesting; but it hurries too hastily along to be very affecting, while the story of the siege has been admirably told already in the page of history. There are a few brilliant passages, and a few anachronisms, interspersed, though the latter are not very glaring, nor do they greatly lessen the pleasure of the reader. We expected somewhat better from the author of the '*Generous Rustic*;' and our expectations having been raised, perhaps too high, may account for a little disappointment. We shall select a short passage, where the situation is well described, and is in itself interesting.

'In two days the impatient baron set off for the retreat of *Heloise*, accompanied by father *Nicolas*; on their arrival they repaired to the convent, and on enquiring for *Heloise*, they were directed to the chapel. They entered, and discovered by the light of the moon the pensive mourner kneeling at the tomb of *Selima*, and offering up prayers for the repose of her spirit. A scene more interesting could not be witnessed—*Selima* was once the rival of *Heloise*—she was considered as the charm that detained *Montmorin* in the East till *Heloise* believing him dead, by one solemn act for ever precluded herself from happiness—but when *Selima* was no more—religion and pity conducted *Heloise* to her grave, whilst mercy, cherubed mercy, shed one pitying tear.'

Henry and Isabella; or, a Traite through Life. By the Author of Caroline, or the Diversities of Fortune. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Lane.

The period of *Evelina* and *Cecilia* may be considered as a new æra in the age of novels. The more laboured and intricate plots of *Fielding*, the eccentric, and sometimes exaggerated characters of *Smollett*, are rendered smoother by the polish of fashionable life, and the modern novel consists of scenes more loosely connected, which seldom rise so high in comic humour, or sink so low. Like the age which furnishes the picture, the present writers preserve a more equal flight. *Miss Burney* and her admirers must excuse us, if we do not think the *Bransfons*, and *Mr. Briggs* among her happiest effusions: though it must be allowed that the former are diversified with skill, and the several characters preserved with accuracy.

This little discussion is not wholly digressive, for *Henry and Isabella* is a novel from the *Burney* school. We do not adduce the merit of that author to lower the present work, or mention her defects, to raise it in estimation. On the whole, we think *Henry and Isabella* much inferior to *Cecilia* or *Evelina*: yet these volumes may without great danger be compared with either: the story is well told; the catastrophe concealed and developed with tolerable

tolerable skill; the characters are new, and sufficiently discriminated. The character of Albert is natural, and not hackneyed in the pages of the novellist: that of Mrs. Burton drawn out to a greater extent than we remember to have seen it. The heroine, as usual, is too faultless; and the title of the work, as well as the early behaviour of lady Maitland, give an experienced novel-reader too much information. We wish to see a female character drawn with faults and virtues, to see her feel the effects of misconduct, which does not proceed from a bad heart or corrupted inclinations, and to see her in the end happy, in consequence of her reformation: in short, to see a female Jones, or another Evelina, with faults equally embarrassing, yet as venial.

Eliza Cleland, a Novel. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Lane.

One of the buzzing insects which has received a temporary life from the warmth of a circulating library. It teizes for a while, but will soon be — as if it had never been. We can find no merit, but a harmless disposition, to induce us to foster and cheer the creature—to bid it live another hour.

The New Sylph; or, the Guardian Angel. A Story. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Lane.

If the Story of the *old Sylph* did not, at once, point out the plot, and the termination of the Story, the author would have done it at once, by observing, in p. 28. that Rose's manner 'seemed to say that she was not what she appeared.' Why too must she have fine linen? Why should there not have been such a village as Lizai?—The whole is too obviously artificial.—Yet the surprises are sometimes well contrived, and not badly explained, though, in general, this Story has little real merit.

Melissa and Marcia; or, the Sisters. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

With little novelty to recommend the fable, with nothing very interesting in the various characters, or the conduct of the work, we have yet been entertained with the present volumes. If, in each of these respects, the novel does not rise to excellence, yet, in all, it soars above the usual attempts in this department; and the fair Sisters came to us in such company, that the darkest complexion would have appeared an agreeable brunette, a giants only majestic, and a dwarf elegantly little. In no period, perhaps, have we seen novels of such various characters; and the end of the last winter has shown us, not perhaps how high genius can rise, but certainly how low its semblance can sink. If we were to decide on the rank of Melissa and Marcia, we would put them in the first class, though they cannot obtain a distinguished place in it.

Sophia; or, the Embarrassed Wife, containing the History of Mira the New Foundling. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Allen.

Is this then, madam, your *first* attempt? It is indeed, gentlemen; I hope that it has met with your approbation: what think you of its execution? Our opinion of its execution is such,

such, that we sincerely hope you never will make a second trial. You have punished us sufficiently, by leading us through two volumes of insipid trifling.

The History of Lady Caroline Rivers, in a Series of Letters. By Miss Elizabeth Todd. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Printed for the Authoress.

‘Well, my dear, are you not in a perspiration at not hearing from me before?’ We really were almost in that situation at reading these lines; and we were not relieved in the subsequent passage, by finding that the lady *chose* not to do what was *impossible* she could have done. We should not have reprehended this young authoress of seventeen so severely, if she had not discovered, in the progress of her work, that she was totally unacquainted with life and manners, that she could not draw even a tolerably correct copy of characters, or paint with fidelity the conduct necessary in such situations.—Perhaps her end is sufficiently answered by an extensive list of subscribers.

M E D I C A L.

Observations on the Pharmacopæi Collegii Regalis Medicorum Londinensis, 1788. 8vo. 6d. Robinsons.

These Observations are an appendix to the Remarks on the Specimen Alterum, which we examined in our last volume, p. 459. The same spirit actuates, and the same ability distinguishes them. But we have already given our opinion, at some length, on this work; and it would be of little importance, at present, to point out where we have agreed with the present observer, or where we have differed. The Pharmacopœia is now published: it might have been better; but, *nescit vox missa reverti*.

The Medical Memento, containing the Materia Medica, and the Alterations of the Names made in the Chymical Preparations, agreeable to the New Pharmacopœia of the Royal College of Physicians, London. 12mo. 1s. Darton.

Since the alterations of the College in the new edition of their Dispensatory are so numerous, this little book must be extremely useful. There are a few press errors, but we have not observed any that can mislead. In the English translation, it may be proper to read, *eryngo*, the root; but it would have founded better, if the compiler had written, *benjamin*, a resin.

Tabule Nomina Medicamentorum Pharmacopœia Londinensis, Anno 1746° editæ, alibique promulgatorum, quæ ejusdem Editione Anno 1788°, tamen Noninibus novis insignita, retinentur vel accipiuntur. 1s. Evans.

This Table answers the same purpose: it is the attendant at home, while the Memento is the companion of the pocket.

Cursory Remarks on the New Pharmacopœia. By Liqueur Volatilis Cornu Cervi. Small 8vo. 1s. Stalker.

If our remarker had been the compiler of the new Pharmacopœia,

copocia, he would have acted differently; but he would not probably have produced so good a work. There is much capacious petulance and personal sarcasm, mixed with the pharmaceutical remarks, though, in one or two instances, the latter seem to have some foundation. He is very angry that the tincture of columbo is inserted, and the elixir of vitriol rejected: we are well pleased with the new medicine, and regret not the loss of the old one.

Medical Remarks on Natural, Spontaneous, and Artificial Evacuation. By John Anderson, M. D. F. S. A. Second Edition. 12mo. 3s. Murray.

In our sixty-fourth volume, page 230, we reviewed the first edition of this little tract, and now, with great pleasure, introduce the second. In this edition there are some emendations of doubtful passages, and a confirmation of those which seemed to require it. The author professes no slavish attachment to any sect; but his theory is still Boerhaavian. Every physician retains a bias for the opinions of his first instructor; and we therefore suspect that Dr. Anderson drank his first draughts of science in that school.

MISCELLANEOUS.

New, Candid and Practical Thoughts on the Law of Imprisonment for Debt. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Whieldon.

The plan proposed by this author consists in an attempt to discriminate between the fraudulent and the unfortunate creditor; to continue the arrest of the prisoner in the first instance; but to abolish perpetual imprisonment, and substitute in its room a limited punishment, to be awarded at the discretion of the judges.

The Royal Edict, given at Versailles, in Nov. 1787, for granting Toleration throughout his most Christian Majesty's Dominions, to Dissenters from the established Church. 8vo. 6d. Coghlan.

This Edict secures to Protestants a legal marriage, and proofs of births and deaths, or the civil rights enjoyed by other French subjects. It is, indeed, a very limited toleration, and does not deserve the pompous description which we at first received of it.

Arabian Letters from Abdalla, a Native of Arabia, to his Friend at Mecca. 12mo. 3s. Dilly.

Letters from Persians, Chinese, and Arabians, are common. They are usually satires on European manners; sometimes on religion, and often on political occurrences. Our author, in a cursory way, glances rapidly over various subjects. He is occasionally right; but frequently superficial, and not uncommonly mistaken.

A P P E N D I X

TO THE

CRITICAL REVIEW,

VOLUME THE SIXTY-FIFTH.

Eight Sermons preached before the University of Oxford, in the Year 1786. By George Croft, D. D. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Rivingtons.

THE object of the lectures instituted by Mr. Bampton is so important, and the characters of the preachers who have been appointed to the annual office are so conspicuous, that we usually attend to them with more than ordinary care; and we examine them with peculiar anxiety, and often with considerable pleasure. Mr. Bampton's view was to confirm and establish the Christian faith, to explain and defend the language and authority of scripture, the authority of the earlier fathers, and the practice of the primitive church. Other subjects of discourse were to be the divinity of our Saviour, and the Holy Ghost; the articles of the Christian Faith, as contained in the Apostles' and Nicene Creeds.

Dr. Croft's great design is the vindication of the church of England; and his intention is introduced by an enquiry into the use and abuse of our own faculties, the true notions of inspiration, and the authority of the fathers. He then investigates the principles of the reformation; the conduct of the reformers; the reasonableness of a separation; the particular doctrines, on which dissent is founded; and he concludes with some observations on the present state of religion, with conjectural remarks on the prophecies, which have not hitherto been fulfilled.

In these discussions, while we can praise the learning and industry of the author, we cannot always commend his moderation. He assumes ground so high, and so often assailed, that we fear his posts are not altogether tenable. While, as the Bampton lecturer, he is confined to some disputed topics, in his own character he has assumed the defence of others. It cannot be imagined that, in the compass of eight sermons, he has room for so many exertions, and he is of course brought into the disagreeable necessity of treating some points very shortly, and of

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leaving the unavoidable impression, that as he has not been able to defend them satisfactorily, they are incapable of defence. From this cause, in some subjects of importance, he has left himself insecure and open to replies.

In the first Sermon, on the use and abuse of our own faculties, there is much useful matter on the subjects of natural religion; and we agree with Dr. Croft, that it would be neither difficult nor useless to discriminate between the duties which reason points out to us as men, and the additional obligations we are under as Christians. Yet he adds, a little unaccountably, that in practice, 'whatsoever is not of faith is sin;' 'whatever we do on motives of common prudence and mere morality has in it the nature of sin.' Surely the passage, in St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans xiv. 23. hath a very different meaning.

Among the abuses of reason, some errors are properly noticed, though there are a few which would not be in general allowed. We fear the remarks on a particular providence may be mistaken: our author, we apprehend, means only to say, that though we are undoubtedly under the care of God, the peculiar administrations of his providence are hidden from us. That all things are calculated, so as to produce the greatest sum of happiness, seems also to be placed, in Dr. Croft's opinion, among the abuses of reason.

The second Sermon is on inspiration, a subject that requires being treated with the steadiest hand, which requires the calmest attention, the most extensive knowledge, and the correctest judgment. Dr. Croft sees inspiration in many passages of holy scripture, where we cannot discern it. We may allow David to be inspired; but we can scarcely consider Hagar even as a type. A story so consonant to patriarchal manners, capable only of a forced application, will rather excite the sneers of the sceptic than convince the judicious enquirer. Even the mystical interpretation of Solomon's Song is adopted. If this be the consequence of Saint Paul's words, that 'all scripture is given by inspiration of God,' it will rather undermine than support religion. Before this very general and unlimited application be made of the passage, it should be enquired, what is the meaning of the word Scripture; and by what rules our forefathers were guided, when they distinguished between the canonical and apocryphal books, for to the former we now apply the term. But our author must speak for himself.

It is a dangerous doctrine, which some of our former friends have advanced, that, though scripture in general may be inspired, yet there are some passages in which the sacred writers have been left to themselves, have given way to ignorance and infirmity, and have uttered something absurd and unchristian. The imprecations of the psalms are the first and most obvious instances. These have been proved upon the best authority to be predictions only. And if any, concurring with our translators, will not or cannot be convinced of this, let them consider, that a prophet may be authorized in his public character, to denounce or to pray for, those divine judgments, which, in a private capacity,

capacity, no human being ought to wish for. The kind and forgiving temper of David, when left to the operation of his own mind, is sufficiently exemplified throughout his whole history.'

Some other examples are added; but we must still beg leave to object to the conclusion, unless it be the general one, that *nothing* is done without the permission, or, if the author pleases, without the inspiration of God, taking inspiration in the most unlimited sense.

'To discuss (adds Dr. Croft) the whole subject of inspiration, to point out the scrupulous exactness with which all the sacred books have been examined, preserved and transmitted to succeeding ages, and to state the collateral testimonies which prove them genuine, is altogether superfluous. If what hath been said may tend to vindicate the authority we attribute to them, and to increase the veneration with which we consult them, some hope may yet be entertained that these oracles of truth will guide us in the way of salvation. The errors of transcribers have not affected one article of faith. Even such as subsist will be gradually lessened by learning and ingenuity, as long as a proper medium is observed between licentious criticism and supine acquiescence. A new version given to the people would be attended with some inconveniences, and the discretion of their pastors will clear up obscurities and solve difficulties as far as is essential to the purity of their conversation and the tranquillity of their minds. To fix the limits of their curiosity, to extricate them from the labyrinth to which enthusiasm or misguided reason may have led them, will be an useful and a pleasing employment. "Thus they will become wiser than the aged, thus they will know of the doctrines whether they be of God."

The third Sermon, in pursuance of the general plan, is on the authority of the fathers. If we consider them, with our author, according to the circumstances in which they were placed, either as contending with the Jews, with the Gentiles, or with heretics, we are told that we shall find them neither ignorant of profane learning, peculiarly uninstructed in the art of composition, or unacquainted with the most convincing modes of argumentation. Many of the fathers are undoubtedly eloquent and persuasive reasoners, men of sound judgment, whose language was clear and forcible, and whose arguments were well chosen and decisive. Dr. Croft's recommendations are, however, too indiscriminate; and his opinion, that they taught very generally the doctrine of the divinity of Christ, may perhaps meet with opposition. Our author softens their intolerance, and defends some parts of their conduct which has not been generally approved.

The Sermon on the principles and conduct of the reformers is no less liable to disputes and exceptions. Yet we think it is with some propriety that Dr. Croft, in the beginning, endeavours to show, that the argument for dissent, deduced from the reformation, has not sufficient foundation. It is justly remarked, that one dissent, one separation, cannot be compared with another;

other; but that the only objects of comparison are the opinions which lead to the schism. He denies, that every one is capable of forming a regular system of doctrines. It has been contended that each person has this right; and we would allow it, if it were once proved that knowledge and judgment are scattered with an equal hand: till this be demonstrated, some must dictate, and others be dictated to. In reality, among sects reputed the most liberal, this power is most freely exercised. Dr. Croft defends the reformers, the articles of religion, and episcopacy; but not always with equal success: nor does he add much new argument to what already lies scattered in various volumes. In the following passage he is candid and judicious; nor can we refrain from remarking that, in the situation in which he is, greater advantages might have been gained by more often allowing occasional errors than in contending on every point.

‘The advocates for a new establishment, and the opposers of all establishments, have enquired, whether, upon the supposition that the Reformation had been deferred till our days, the articles would not have been materially different from the present. No advantage is given by allowing that they certainly would. In proportion to the dangers which surround us, we naturally prepare our defence. That he who engages to support a system may, in the progress of life, find, or, which is the same as to the effect upon his conduct, imagine himself mistaken, cannot be denied. But the evils arising from ignorance, instability, and presumption, are infinitely greater than any one establishment ever produced; for in all of them we must often distinguish the misconduct of individuals from the seeming or the real imperfections of the establishments themselves.

‘Articles, like human laws, are liable to perversion, evasion, or misconstruction. The prudence and the industry of interpreters diminishes those evils which it cannot prevent. Ours are usefully retained, as comprehending a history of the religion of the times in which they were framed, and as expressing the reasons of our separation from the church of Rome on the one hand, and the Puritans on the other. And though he, who keeps the moderate path between two parties, be in danger of displeasing each, yet he gains the approbation of the cool and considerate; and if party-zeal deprive him of much praise, and subject him to much censure, during his life-time, posterity will applaud his magnanimity, and vindicate the propriety of his conduct.’

The fifth Sermon is designed as a defence against the supposed intolerance of our church, and it commences with an apology for any eagerness that may appear in the support of a favourite opinion, since a predilection for the subject of enquiries, in which a whole life has been engaged, is natural and pardonable. The intolerance is supposed to be peculiarly conspicuous in the sacramental test, and the Athanasian creed.

On the sacramental test we have often given our sentiments, and we need not now repeat them. Dr. Croft's opinion is

founded chiefly on the indiscriminate attack of dissenters on religious establishments, that general levelling principle which aims at overturning what our church esteems the most essential doctrines of Christianity. He hints also, with much justice, that when the dissenters had power, they did not use it very mildly. The Athanasian creed is a subject that we are willing to leave in the mysterious darkness in which John of Antioch, Athanasius, or some more modern divine, has chosen to envelope it. Dr. Croft's defence is not very satisfactory; and, when he opposes the argument, that belief is involuntary and therefore innocent, he does not reflect that the belief founded on some knowledge, and fixed only after a careful examination, is chiefly meant. In any other view, we think with him, that the argument is not only futile, but dangerous.

The sixth Sermon is a defence of the practice of the church, of priestly garbs, and forms of prayer. The vesture of our ministering clergymen is at least decent, and, if productive of no devotion, can never excite contempt. To attack it at this time, few we believe would dare, while the ministers of the dissenters are gradually stepping on in the same tracks. Of forms it is not easy to speak with propriety: a constant repetition of the same words is proved by example to render the clergyman listless, and sometimes the congregation inattentive; while we allow so much, we think extemporaneous prayer more objectionable. Devotion, in the minister, is changed to recollection, and the exertion of memory; and, in the audience, to a constant watch over the words, lest they should be betrayed into joining with the minister in what they do not approve. On the whole, the inconvenience in the practice of our church, as it is easily removed, by a sense of duty, and a careful observation, is by much the least. We shall select one useful passage.

‘The liturgy is sometimes charged with tautology, and we are forbidden, say our adversaries, by our Lord himself, to *use vain repetitions*. The pharisees entertained unworthy notions of the Almighty, as if the efficacy of prayer depended upon its continuance, as if the Almighty were to be prevailed upon by mere shew, or importunity. But surely all repetitions are not vain. The poet and the orator will convince us of the contrary, whenever they wish to impress any idea more strongly. Musick has its popular strains, which, however frequently they occur, are heard with increasing pleasure. In many of our amusements, which are supposed to attract by gratifying our fondness for novelty, there is a reiteration of the same incidents, a fulfilling of the same wishes. Are truths, then, most highly interesting to the sons of men, less proper to be frequently inculcated, less necessary to be carefully remembered? The repetition of the Lord's Prayer, though occasioned by the union of services once used separately, is a constant admonition of the wisdom and goodness of our blessed Master, and a check to the least presumption and confidence in our own performances.’

Some other repetitions are defended very properly : and sudden death, against which we pray, is interpreted by our author not unprepared, but untimely death. That mortality, which comes in the course of nature cannot he thinks be called sudden. The office of baptism, the funeral service, occasional psalms, and even the communion service, share our author's friendly care and support.

Schisms and separations are the common offsprings of general enquiry, as licentiousness is of too much liberty. The injuries which a variety of sects produce are really numerous ; nor has Dr. Croft, in his Sermon on this subject, exaggerated them. The general injuries are, the weakening of the Christian faith, instability, and contention on matters of little comparative moment. The evils chargeable on particular denominations are said to be enthusiasm ; the absurd use of scripture language on the most common occasions ; the renunciation of terms of respect and courteousness. Each of these particulars is pointed out with clearness, and the influence of these errors well demonstrated. Perhaps it would not be difficult to enlarge the catalogue of injuries. Yet, while separation may proceed from the abuse of the best institutions, our author, before he enquires into the prophecies, which remain to be fulfilled, endeavours to enumerate the vices of the present age. Those which engage the attention of Dr. Croft, in this last Sermon, are chiefly an indifference to religion, and a disregard to its institutions. To these we owe the numerous sets of enthusiasts, rather than to the errors of our own establishment ; and, if the cause of religion was properly supported by each individual, the bad effects would perhaps soon cease. In this opinion, we fully coincide.

The prophecies that remain to be fulfilled, which is the subject of the last sermon, must be still doubtful. How far they relate to the downfall of the bishop of Rome, the union of the Jews in their own kingdom, or in the Christian church, cannot be yet known. It is indeed probable from those which are in our possession, that the world will be united in one faith. Even of this, however, we cannot be certain, for the language of prophecy is often only understood when its fulfilled ; and remains doubtful till its meaning is completely ascertained.

After this particular account of Dr. Croft's Sermons, we need not add any general remarks. Our author's earnest endeavours to support, we fear, the declining cause of religion, deserve particular attention, and should not be dismissed without commendation.

Archæologia. Vol. VIII. (Concluded, from page 168.)

AS much remains to be examined in the present volume of this respectable Society, we will not delay the reader a moment, but immediately proceed without any preface.

ART. XXII. Doubts and Conjectures concerning the Reason commonly assigned for inserting or omitting the Words *Ecclesia* and *Preshyter* in *Domesday Book*. By the rev. Samuel Deane.—

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In the venerable record of Domesday there are many districts in which neither Ecclesia or Presbyter occur; and it has been supposed that in these there was no church: some antiquaries have even raised this into an objection against the antiquity of particular churches. This opinion, however, Mr. Denne opposes, with some justice, and mentions many extensive districts which, on this foundation, must have been without a church or a pastor: some of these were in the neighbourhood of Lanfranc archbishop of Canterbury, under whose auspices and immediate view this deficiency would not probably have occurred. On the contrary, many donations to churches occur, *about* the time of the Conquest, to places where no church is mentioned in Domesday; and, in the history of that period, churches appear to be so numerous in some parts of the kingdom, that it is not reasonable to conclude that they were not proportionably numerous in other parts. Many other arguments, from the style of architecture, and other sources, are adduced to show, that the omission of these terms depended rather on accident, than on the non-existence of the churches.

Art. XXIII. Observations on the Origin of Printing. By Ralph Willet, Esq. F. A. R. S.—There are some curious circumstances which relate to early printing, in this article. Mr. Willett ascribes the invention to the Germans, that is, the invention of printing by moveable metal types. The earliest edition of the Bible was for some time supposed to be 1462; but De Bure mentions two of an earlier date, viz. from 1450 to 1455. Heinikin has discovered another earlier copy, which he places between 1450 and 1452. M. Schelthorn has also found some letters from Pope Nicholas V. printed by Fust and Schoeffer in 1454. The first Greek characters, and they are very awkward ones, occur in Tully's Offices, printed in 1465. The art of engraving is illustrated by the Speculum, a work printed on wooden types, about 1445, in which there are many prints. Mr. Rogers has a print dated 1465, and Mr. Willet himself one of 1466 and 1468. The heifer's head, on the paper, supposed to have been used by Fust, and generally considered as characteristic of his performances, is found on the paper of many old prints. But Fust may have supplied this paper, or a mark used originally by him may have been afterwards imitated to deceive. M. Schoen and the two Israels seem to have been incontestably the first engravers whose names are recorded. The first edition of the Game of Chess was printed in 1474: in the second edition which soon succeeded, we find the same date, in a cypher. We do not think, that it refers to some work of Caxton's, prior to the Dyctes and Sayings of the Philosophers, in 1477; but that it implies only the similarity of this edition to the original one. In this work, there are undoubtedly the earliest plates, but we should observe, that the cypher of 74 occurs also in the Mirrour of the World printed in 1480.

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Art. XXIV. Account of the Caves of Cannara, Ambola, and Elephanta, in the East Indies. By Hector Macneil, Esq.—In the 14th page of the present volume, we gave some account of the cave of Elephants, from Mr. Hunter's description of the kingdom of Pegu, to which it was annexed. We now receive a narrative of a voyage to the caves of Cannara, Ambola, and Elephanta, which abound with similar representations. They are not the works of Gentoos, because they have not the Gento features; because they do not display the spirit of their religion; and particularly because they occur only on coasts visited by other voyagers. When we referred them to the expeditions of Solomon's sailors, we were not aware of the number and the extent of these relics. They cannot be the remains of transient voyagers, but must have been the work of some colonists. Mr. Macneil thinks they may be Ethiopian;—the features are Egyptian; but, in this mist, we can only stumble on the truth by accident. The general sculpture is not Egyptian; and, if we should refer them to a Tyrian colony, the oldest navigators of these seas, we only put a tortoise under the elephant, and, by removing the origin beyond the reach of records, secure ourselves from detection. Yet, on the whole, our author would refer them to the Gentoos; but he does not reflect on the unchangeable nature of their religion: where will he find similar groups in similar situations? The notes chiefly explain the original religion of the East, and the circumstances seemingly essential to it: this was probably one of their temples. The note on the Ethiopians might suggest a volume of discussion; perhaps to little purpose, as their ancient history is doubtful, and the modern accounts more so. They were an ancient people; but, if they were not the parents of the Tyrians, they are lost in obscurity.

Art. XXV. Account of an ancient Inscription in North America. By Michael Lort, D. D.

Art. XXVI. Observations on the American Inscription in North America. By Col. Charles Vallency, F. A. S.—We here sink deeper in antiquity. The rocks in Naraganset bay contain an inscription, which, if it resembles any characters, is of Phœnician origin. The Indians had a tradition, that it was written by some, who came in a wooden house, over the sea. But, if any thing can be gathered by a careful comparison of the transcripts, made by different persons, the marks are not letters. They are very probably the rude images of uninformed Indians, delineating perhaps their march, more probably the distinctions of their tribe. If any two of these different transcripts were shown to the best decypherer, he would certainly declare, that they were not of the same kind; they certainly differ from those of Strahlenberg, which were discovered in Siberia.

Colonel Vallency thinks, that the Scythians of Armenia, who extended northward into Siberia, may have crossed from Kamtschatka to America, and that to this nation, the Goths of Mr. Pinkerton, America may have owed its inhabitants, and its inscriptions.

scriptions. We have formerly given some reasons against the population of America from this source, and the more we reflect on the subject, our opinion is more strong. That the Phœnicians reached America, we know not; but there are some reasons to think, that the old opinion of an island in the Atlantic may have originated from accidental discoveries of the Phœnicians; and that the Atlantica of Plato may have been some part of the coast of America. There is, however, more reason to believe this inscription to be the scrawls of the Indians, or probably an imperfect attempt to produce symbolic characters.

Art. XXVII. Observations on the Barberini Vase. By John Glen King, D. D.

Art. XXVIII. An Essay on the elegant ornamental Cameos of the Barberini Vase. By Charles Marsh, Esq. F. A. S.—These different explanations of the figures on the vase, taken from the Barberini cabinet, deserve great commendations. Dr. King supposes it was the urn of Mammæa, mother of Alexander Severus: it was certainly found in the tomb of Alexander. Mr. Marsh, whose Essay is written in very elegant Latin, thinks it was a votive urn, made in honour of Alexander about the year *ab urbe condita* 975. The vase is glass, of a deep blue colour, and the figures are white. Dr. King suspects that the whole relates to the life of Alexander Severus: Mr. Marsh, with more probability, believes the harsh severe figure, which looks back on a woman in a mournful attitude, to be Heliogabalus, looking back on Augusta Paula, whom he had divorced. She has a tablet at her feet, and holds in her feeble grasp a half-extinguished torch, which seems falling to the ground. As we cannot add the engraving, our description will be of little use; but, in many respects, we prefer the explanation of Mr. Marsh.

Art. XXIX. Some account of an Ancient Painting on Glass. By the rev. Robert Masters, B. D. F. S. A.—This glass represents an event, which probably happened many ages ago, in the Stewart family: it was also represented on a seal-ring of sir Richard Worsley, and explained in the fourth volume of the *Archæologia*. The glass contains the Genealogy of the Stewarts, so far back as Banquo, thane of Lochaber. His grandson Walter first assumed the name of Stewart from his office; and Alexander, Walter's grandson, first bore the Lion, in an additional escutcheon, which was granted him by a king of France. The table is transcribed from Banquo, down to William Stewart of Ely, A. D. 1574, for whom the glass was painted.

Art. XXX. Explanation of the Inscriptions on a Roman Altar and Tablet, at Tinmonth Castle, Northumberland. By the rev. Mr. Brand, Secretary.—The altar contains the following inscription, '*Ælius Rufus Præfectus Cohortis quartæ Lingonum*,' and shows the station of the fourth cohort. The tablet mentions, that C. J. Verus Maximinus constructed a circular mole, shipping, and a temple, in obedience to his vow, perhaps A. D. 235;—at least this is Mr. Brand's interpretation, and it is not improbable.

Art. XXXI,

Art. XXXI. Account of the obsolete Office of Purveyor to the King's Household. By William Bray, Esq. F.S.A.—This is a very extensive account of the office of purveyor, and of the conduct of those who filled it. While the monarch at home, lived on his own demesnes, in his progresses, which were sometimes made for this purpose, he was supplied by the reserved rents on which different tenures were held, and by the contributions of his subjects. In these points the purveyor had absolute authority. Whatever he chose might be taken for the king's use: the provisions, indeed, except in the case of tennures, were to be paid for; but the king's price was always less than that of the market; and different drawbacks on taking the debenture, as well as in receiving the money; the time requisite in attendance; the distance of the place where the money was to be paid, all conspired to make purveyance an intolerable burthen. Many laws were enacted to prevent the abuses of the office; but they were ineffectual. When the king and his purveyor appeared, the country was a comparative solitude, and the markets held at the palace-gates were often desolate, when the weak hand of the monarch could not restrain the licences of his servants, or when a despotic tyrant shared their infamy. Mr. Bray has marked the leading features of each reign, in this respect, with great accuracy, and traced the changes which occurred, the restraints to which the purveyor was occasionally subjected, with a minute attention, till the final destruction of the office by the 12th of Charles II. The transcript, from Simon Islip archbishop of Canterbury's address to the king on this subject is extremely curious, and gives the shortest and best account of the abuses of purveyance. We shall transcribe a part of it; and, on the perusal, an Englishman will bless the exchange, though the expences of the civil list should be still farther increased.

‘The archbishop tells the king that there is universal lamentation in the country on hearing of his approach, universal joy on his departure, and this notwithstanding the king himself is humble, affable, mild, and innocent, but his servants take the people's goods without their consent, and for less than the value; then they must go five or six miles for their money, stay a day, and perhaps not receive it unless they give part; that his servants take men, horses, and cattle, labouring in agriculture, and keep them two or three days, which is not lawful even in war; that they come and demand men, horses, and carriages, in a parish, take half a mark, or more, to excuse them: the next day, or even the same day, come others to the same place, and take the men, horses, and carriages, notwithstanding the composition. He adjures the king with great solemnity and earnestness on behalf of Almighty God, of holy church, of the people of England, and for the health and safety of his soul, to make a law that no one shall, under a heavy penalty, take

take the goods of another against his will, but buy as he can, agree with the seller, and pay ready money. 'Then, says he, all men will bring all necessaries to your gate as they did in the time of Henry your great grandfather, at whose approach all men rejoiced. He says, 'it is not to be wondered at that there should be such lamentations in the country, when he, the archbishop himself, on rumour of his approach, trembles *on hearing his horn*, whether he is in the house or at mass; when one of the king's servants knocks at the gate, he trembles more; when he comes to the door, still more: and this terror continues so long as the king stays, on account of the various evils done to the poor. He thinks his harbingers come not on behalf of God, but of the devil; when the horn is heard every one trembles; and when the harbinger arrives, instead of saying, as the good angel did to the blessed Virgin, "fear not!" he cries, he must have oats, hay, and litter, for the king's horses—a second comes and says, he must have geese, hens, and many other things; a third is at his heels, and demands corn, &c.'

The prices, in the reign of Elizabeth, were fixed; but the queen's prices were much less than the market-prices, as the following table will show. The counties, however, which were near the royal residence, and of course were benefited by the followers of the court, for the court itself was rather a burthen, furnished the queen's provision at a much easier rate than the remoter counties.

Middlesex.	King's price.			Market price.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Wheat, 200 quarters	0	6	8	2	0	0
Veals, { 40	0	12	0	1	2	0
{ 100	0	6	8	1	2	0
Green geese, 20 dozen at	0	3	0	0	18	0
Capons course, 10 dozen	0	4	0	0	16	0
Hens, 20 dozen	0	2	0	0	12	0
Pullets, 20 dozen	0	1	6	0	10	0
Chickens, 40 dozen	0	2	0	0	6	0
Hay, 202 loads	0	4	0	1	10	0
Litter, 180 loads	0	4	0	0	10	0
Oats, 211 quarters, 2 bushels	0	4	0	0	12	0
Wood, 200 loads	0	3	0	0	7	0

When the difference between the queen's and the market-prices amounted, in Middlesex, to 917l. 19s. the difference, on the same quantity of articles furnished by Derbyshire, was only 254l. 2s. 4d. The form of the warrant to the chancellor, empowering him to make out commissions of purveyance, is subjoined.

Art. XXXII. Account of the Remains of two Roman Villæ discovered near Mansfield Woodhouse. By Hayman Rooke, Esq. F.S.A.—There is little doubt but that these remains were once a part of
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of a Roman Villa. The different parts are well described, and accurately delineated. Many different kinds were also found; but they were much defaced. One useful lesson may be drawn from this article, that we should not only look for antiquities near Roman ways. Mansfield Woodhouse, is not near any Roman road or station: in fact this part of the country was once covered by the great Caledonian wood.

Art. XXXIII. Account of some Roman Pottery, found at Sandy, in Bedfordshire, and at Lincoln; together with a Roman Speculum. By Governor Pownall.—This is of the kind of pottery called the Samian; it is of a red colour, and is perfectly well baked. It is remarkable, that earthen ware of this kind has always the same device, and the moulding is not like any of the members of either architectural order. Is it that the invention was prior to that of architecture? or rather that, though called Samian, it is really of Asiatic, perhaps of Persian origin? The pattern which we have said is the same, it is not of an European kind. It is always the hunting of a lion or a lioness by a charioteer.

Art. XXXIV. Description of a Druid Temple, at the Top of a Hill near St. Hillary in Jersey. By Mr. Molesworth.

Art. XXXV. Description of a Druidical Monument in the Island of Jersey. By the right hon. Henry Seymour Conway, Governor of Jersey.—These memoirs give a sufficiently accurate description of a Druids temple, discovered lately in Jersey, on the top of a pretty high hill, near the town of St. Helier. From the numerous monuments, once found there, it seems to have been particularly the seat of the Druids, and their worship. The Druids were always fond of islands, perhaps from their security, before navigation was common. This, though not large, seems to have been their principal temple; and, as general Conway supposes, was covered up by themselves, to prevent its being discovered by the Romans, who once possessed the island. It was lately found, by endeavouring to level the top of the hill.

Art. XXXVI. On the Origin of the Jews in England. By John Caley, F. A. S.—The origin of the Jews in England has been the subject of various disputes. Their first tolerably certain appearance, in this island, is in the Excerptions of Egbert, collected in the beginning of the eighth century, though of a somewhat prior date. They occur also in one of the laws of the Norman William, which were received from Edward the Confessor, and confirmed by him. This law has, however, been the subject of some debate. It is not in the copy of the Confessor's and Conqueror's laws, promulgated by Ingulphus. We cannot engage in this dispute, but shall shortly mention what, on a careful examination, appears probable. The Jews were undoubtedly banished from this kingdom in the eleventh century, from the testimony of one of their own historians. This was probably in the Confessor's reign, though the cause and the precise time are not known: it seems to have been in the Con-
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fessor's reign, because, if it had not been so, the law would not have existed. When the Conqueror came to confirm the Confessor's laws, this was of course omitted, because it had no object; but when the Jews were allowed to return, after they had bribed William, it was then added; for there are strong proofs that the code, in Hoveden, has been added to, since the time of the first promulgation by Ingulphus, though there is no evidence of any interpolation beyond the reign of William Rufus. The charter granted to the monks of Croyland, in the beginning of the ninth century, cited at large by Ingulphus, speaks of the Jews also as already established, and we do not see how this testimony can be invalidated. Mr. Caley also explains the degraded state of the Jews, in subsequent times; the nature of their contracts called stars; and opposes sir William Blackstone's opinion, that the star-chamber had its name from its vicinity to this repository. In the last instance, we do not think him very successful. The term star-chamber was probably used first, and it was then to be translated by those, perhaps, who knew not the terms of the Jewish deeds. The argument can only apply, if it be true that the *chaumbre des estoilles*, and *camera stellata*, had been used by those who first gave that court a name. The Jews were again banished in 1290.

Art. XXXVII. Account of the ancient Painting at Cowdray, in Sussex, representing the Procession of Edward VI. from the Tower of London to Westminster, previous to his Coronation. By John Topham, Esq. F. R. A. S.—This picture represents the whole procession, from the Tower to Westminster; and in it, the king is in Cheapside, and has just passed the cross, which was in that street. The description of the procession and of London, as it then was, is extremely curious. We wish that we had room to transcribe some parts, for it is incapable of being abridged.

In this volume, the society have added an improvement, viz. a history, consisting of those communications which they could not properly publish entire. This memoir extends from January 1763 to January 1786, and contains much miscellaneous information, which we cannot even hint at. Mr. Berch's memoir on the ancient dresses of the Swedes is a very curious one, and deserves a more distinguished place: we wish for one other improvement, viz. that the antiquities and coins were represented on tinted plates.

We must now conclude our account; and we ought to do it with commending the spirit and diligence of the different members, and applauding several very accurate disquisitions and learned researches.

First Lines of the Theory and Practice of Philosophical Chemistry.
By John Berkenbout, M.D. 8vo. 7s. Cadell.

ALEXANDER is said to have complained that he had no more worlds to conquer: the practical chemist of the present day, if he possesses as much ambition, is more fortunate, for
anew

a new world has lately been discovered, a new region exposed to his conquering arms.—Perhaps we may have caught a little levity from our author, and given to *airy* nothings a *local* habitation; but this exordium must not be styled merely poetical prose: it has a real foundation to rest on. In the early æras, chemistry was subservient chiefly to the arts; it was actually improved by ambition and the thirst of gold, but still the analytical part continued to be employed in the service of religion and of superstition, to add to the conveniencies and sometimes to the elegancies of life. In this pursuit, the chemist soon found that his career was checked: solids eluded his menstrua, and in fluids there was an ingredient which he either could not separate, or was not able to retain. Becker perceived a something, he knew not what, which he called phlogiston:—Stahl saw that it was a real principle, whose escape, or whose addition, changed the appearance of bodies. He gave it the name of phlogiston as it was inflammable, cautiously avoiding the term of Van Helmont, gas, which implied (from the German, *ghost*, spirit) something immaterial. In this state the science remained till Dr. Hales added a little to our knowlege, by teaching us, that atmospheric air was occasionally absorbed, and again returned, in the different changes which bodies underwent by mixture, or by fire. He seemed to know of no air but that of the atmosphere, and of its different states only, as fixed in, that is, a component part of, bodies or free, in the usual form. Dr. Black, by an analysis most correct, and a train of reasoning most severely logical, showed us that another air existed, which he chose to style fixed, in opposition to the common atmospheric air. From this source arose experiments and discoveries, which may be justly boasted of by the present century. We are no longer confined in our analysis to the two states of solid and fluid, but can pursue our subject into new forms, and, with real justice, be said to have obtained another kingdom, in which we may expatiate. It is not the least of these advantages, that we now begin to have more precise ideas of the nature of heat and fire; that we have attained the knowlege of the composition of some of the elements, while new suggestions are leading to fresh experiments, and often to additional knowlege.

To an elementary performance, in this improved æra; to the first popular and comprehensive work on this subject, a little introduction, an outline of the steps which led to the modern discoveries, did not seem improper. We may be allowed also to enumerate some of the disadvantages which have attended philosophers in this rapid progress, because they are occasionally obvious in our author's present work. With the prospect of numerous advantages in this new science, various

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competitors engaged in the pursuit. Much error, therefore, is to be met with in the works of some authors, which, combined with what is well established, forms a mass of doctrines complicated and often contradictory. Our author has not always distinguished truth from falsehood. He has not allowed for real merits, in his eagerness to condemn a part. He is not acquainted with the whole of the new improvements, nor always aware of some distinctions, absolutely necessary to be kept in view. To take a few short instances:—some contradictions occur in the account of the composition of different airs, from the analysis being taken from different authors, for little is yet decisively, and indisputably ascertained: his condemnation of M. Lavoisier and his system is too general and indiscriminate: he seems not to be acquainted with M. Berthollet's discovery of the cause of the change in the appearance and properties of the marine acid, when it is styled, in common language, dephlogisticated; or, of the influence of the vital air in many of the processes in which the dephlogisticated acid is employed: nor does he always keep in view, that calces of metals retain very different proportions of phlogiston, without losing that title, or deserving the appellation of metal. The two last are the most important, and most extensively injurious errors in this work: without leaning also towards the antiphlogistians, we must inform him, that this heresy is pretty widely disseminated, and likely to produce a reformation. By the usual change, the phlogistons will be soon the heretics. In other respects, our author's account of his different subjects is clear and correct; his manner pleasing, and his explanations often peculiarly happy.—But to be a little more particular.

Dr. Berkenhout's Preface is lively; but not quite correct. The first pillar of chemistry is, he says, phlogiston: Alas! it totters. The second is the doctrine of fixed air; but, though this may be a corner stone, it is only a very small proportion of the new system, which, at best, is rather a part of the building than a pillar. Yet it is afterwards styled the fifth pillar. Our author raises this imaginary column not very securely. Dr. Hales, in reality, laid the *foundation* of the base, and Dr. Black raised the base on this foundation. To Dr. Priestley we may allow the merit of the entire shaft; and, if it must be a pillar of the composite order, we may attribute the firmer parts of the Doric and Tuscan orders to Mr. Cavendish and Mr. Kirwan: the volutes of the chastest style to M. Berthollet and Morveau; and the more fanciful ornaments to M. Lavoisier. Our author apologises for his attacks on M. Macquer and Beaumè: they are often too pe-

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zulant and indiscriminate; but we agree with him in thinking that, before the new dictionary of chemistry be republished, it should be rewritten. Yet we should rather remonstrate against its being either new written or republished: it should remain as an useful monument of what chemistry was; and its place in a modern library should be supplied by the chemical part of the New Cyclopædia, which is almost wholly written by M. Morveau, and which is already in part published, and will be completed within two years.

The first part of the work consists of general doctrines; or the general properties of physical and chemical elements. The former are air, fire, and water; the latter, phlogiston, gas, acids, alkalis, earths, metals, oil, alcohol, and water.—Our author treats also of the various kinds of attraction, and of the theory of all the different chemical operations. The second part, which seems to have been intended for an explanation of the practice, is in the form of a lexicon. Dr. Berkenhout seemed tired of his subject, and has, of course, executed this latter part hastily and imperfectly. The description of the necessary furniture of the laboratory is the best part of it, and this precedes the Lexicon.

Dr. Berkenhout's haste also exposes him to error, in many parts of his work. In the following passage, he joins Scheele and Bergman together, in a subject on which they differed, and has given them sentiments which they would neither agree to.

'Heat, or the matter of heat, is, by Scheele and Bergman, substituted for fire, which they believe to be the action of heat when increased to a certain degree. The first of these celebrated chemists believed this matter of heat to be a compound of phlogiston and pure air. He was certainly mistaken. It seems more philosophical to consider heat as an effect of which fire is the sole cause.'

Again: he talks of vital air as an element; it is, however, known to contain much of the matter of heat. With an acid, he observes, it forms calcareous gas, while nothing is more certain that, in some manner, it contributes to acidity. Dr. Berkenhout seems at a loss to account for the heat produced by mixing water with oil of vitriol, because spirit of wine, which has more specific heat than the acid when united with water, produces no heat. Before, however, this difficulty be felt, he should have told us what the different specific heats of the mixtures were. There is also not sufficient connection between the several parts of the work. Under the head of volatile alkali, no mention is made of its composition, though it has been repeatedly analysed, and again recomposed; but

but, in the account which is given of aurum fulminans, it is said to be composed of an elastic fluid and phlogiston; yet this opinion, though near the truth, is far from being correct. Spirit of wine, when added to neutral salts, is said to make them shoot into crystals; while, in the analysis of mineral waters, where the figure of the crystals of neutrals is introduced somewhat abruptly, as if it had been before forgotten, no mention is made of this method of discovering the nature of the salt, long ago recommended by Macquer, in the *Turin Transactions*.

We have mentioned these few circumstances, in which our author occasionally errs. He skims lightly over the surface; and though sometimes an incorrect, is often a pleasing guide. As his work may become an useful and a general assistant, we have been unusually assiduous in marking errors. We mention our motive as an apology; for though we have excepted to many passages, we would not be understood to say, that the work is generally faulty. As a specimen of our author's general manner, and the facility with which he usually explains intricate subjects, we shall extract his explanation of double elective attraction, which is not often properly understood.

** Vitriolated Tartar, and muriated Lime, commonly called Sea Salt with an earthy Basis.*

'If these two salts be dissolved in water, a double decomposition and combination will result. The vitriolic acid will quit the vegetable alkali to unite with the lime, and the vegetable alkali will unite with the marine acid.'

'How can this possibly happen?—for we see, by the table of attractions, that the vitriolic acid prefers alkali to lime, and that vegetable alkali prefers vitriolic acid to every other substance. Very true; but we also learn, from the same table of attractions, that marine acid prefers vegetable alkali to the lime with which it is united, and that lime prefers vitriolic to marine acid: so that, though the union between vitriolic acid and vegetable alkali cannot be broken by marine acid or lime alone, yet both pulling at the same time, one at the acid, the other at the alkali, effect the decomposition, and are themselves separated in the conflict. In other words, the sum of the attractions which unite the principles in the two new compounds, is greater than the sum of the attractions by which the principles in the old were held together.'

The tables of elective attraction are divided, so that they may be more easily consulted: they are those of Bergman; but, by altering Bergman's characters, he has increased the general difficulty arising from their use, which we lately men-

tioned as likely to render them less commonly employed, because less readily comprehended. The changes which he introduces are, however, on the whole, advantageous.

As we have given our opinion of the execution of the Lexicon, it is necessary that we should mention some instances in support of it. The whole article, relating to the smoaking liquor of Libavius, is incorrect, from our author's not being acquainted with the nature of the dephlogisticated marine acid. When he says, that the mineral anodyne liquor of Hoffman is not anodyne, we shall refer him to Mr. Tickel; but his observation, that it is no more than the sweet spirit of vitriol of the shops, can arise only from his haste, and want of reflection. In the distillation of the sweet spirit, the process is stopped before the oil begins to come over, or at least in a proper quantity. We shall transcribe the article relating to the magistery of bismuth, as a specimen of our author's criticisms, and his inaccuracy.

'**MAGISTERY of Bismuth**, is the calx of this semi-metal precipitated from its solution in nitrous acid by the addition of water; for nitrous acid diluted with water cannot hold bismuth in solution. This calx may also be precipitated by alkaline salts; because acids prefer alkalis to metals; but the precipitate obtained by means of fixed alkali, is not quite so white as that procured by precipitation with water: "The cause of this (says M. Macquer) is that the calx of bismuth very easily recovers its phlogiston; alkalis, however pure, always contain some superabundant inflammable matter, and apply it to the metallic calces which are precipitated." *Chem. Dict.*—If it were not for the pun, I should call this a *precipitate* conclusion: it seems very extraordinary, that fixed alkali, containing superabundant inflammable matter, should, when laid on a red-hot iron, exhibit neither flame nor smoke; nor, in any other experiment, shew the least sign of inflammability. The truth is, that in this precipitation of bismuth with alkalis, there is no phlogiston in the case. If caustic fixed alkali be used, the alkali unites with the acid, and the calx falls down, combined with water only: if mild alkali, a double attraction takes place; the acid combines with the alkali, and the fixable air with the calx. If an hundred grains of bismuth were dissolved, the calx precipitated by water will weigh 113; with caustic mineral alkali, 125; with mild mineral alkali, 130. But if, according to M. Macquer's hypothesis, the bismuth be precipitated by a substance superabundantly loaded with phlogiston, how comes it to pass that the precipitate is a calx, and not the metal revived?"

Is it not a little remarkable, that the author could write this article and not reflect on his own *precipitate* criticism?

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He owns that fixed air is combined with the calx; and, in p. 25, he has brought many experiments to prove, that fixed air contains phlogiston. He confesses that the composition of the aerial acid (viz. from vital air and phlogiston), is a plausible opinion; but that the experiments are not sufficient to establish the fact: we suppose he means relative to the vital air, or to there being no other ingredient; for every experiment, however diversified, shows that fixed air does contain phlogiston as *one* of its ingredients. Indeed, Lavoisier felt their force so strongly, that, for this purpose chiefly, he was obliged to allow of the existence of a coally matter instead of phlogiston. As to the concluding paragraph, we must refer Dr. Berkenhout to Bergman's Treatises on Metallic Precipitates, and on Elective Attractions. He will there find, that metals may be united with very different proportions of phlogiston, without being reduced. An error of this kind is very often repeated. On the subject of mortar, there are numerous mistakes; the water which was employed in some experiments furnished the fixed air, and our author could not surely expect to find much lime in *old* mortar. Of what use then is the lime and the sand? Dr. Berkenhout seems not to know, but we can tell him, that the lime is supposed to crystallize, the sand to furnish fixed points to facilitate the process of crystallization, and that the hardness arises from the number and strength of these crystals. If he reflects on the state of lime, in mortar, and the kind of sand reputed to be most useful in this operation, he will find the opinion sufficiently probable.

But we must now leave our author; and while we recommend his work as a very useful one, in general, we would beg to caution him against too much haste in writing and in publishing. A treatise of this kind cannot be kept nine years, but it might be carefully read, and the different parts more properly connected.

Morsels of Criticism, tending to illustrate some few Passages in the Holy Scriptures upon philosophical Principles and an enlarged View of Things. (Concluded, from p. 247.)

THE next morsel in this literary banquet is a commentary on the promise of our Lord to Nathaniel, in the 51st verse of the first chapter of St. John, and is designed to show that a communication with Heaven, through the medium of angels, at some future period, is probable; not only from the words of our Saviour but from various other passages of holy Writ, and events already recorded. In one of the arguments, in support of this opinion, Mr. King digresses a little in consequence of his having quoted the 29th verse of the 26th chapter of St. Matthews

* But I say unto you, that I will not drink of this production of the vine till that day, when I shall drink it with you. new, in the kingdom of my Father.' And he shows, from different texts, that, though our Saviour often eat, in the presence of his disciples, after his resurrection, he never drank. The kingdom of my Father, our author thinks, is expressed with great caution, and the term Heaven, or Heavens, carefully avoided. There is a digression too, for Mr. King often wanders, on our Saviour's saying that he had flesh and bones. He does not mention blood, for reasons which our author gives at length, but with more fancy than judgment. A slight reflection might have suggested, that there could not be flesh without blood; and even Shylock's trial would have supplied proofs of the general interpretation. The following remark, on the scripture term of judge of the whole earth, applied to our Saviour, we shall transcribe.

'There is one mistake, which perhaps ought to be rectified; and which runs uniformly through the whole of our translation of the New Testament; and that is, that, from modern ideas, derived from the state of things since the introduction and establishment of the feudal system, and of European customs and manners, we annex to the word *κρίνει*, or judge, merely the idea of a great person, sent to try and condemn criminals. Whereas the true original Eastern, as well as etymological idea, is that of a great person, or supreme lord, sent to rule, and to order all things; and to appoint to every person, and being, a proper station and lot.'

The sixth section is a commentary on the 24th chapter of St. Matthew. Mr. King wishes to show, that the destruction of Jerusalem; the second coming of our Lord, to *judge* and to *rule* the nations, and the final destruction of the *present* habitable earth, are three distinct events, which are to happen at distant æras. The day of judgment, in particular, is supposed to be a long period of deliberate arrangement; in which every thing is perfected according to the word of God. We are sorry that, from the nature of a commentary, we cannot abridge our author's arguments; but we must remark that, in general, they are not very convincing ones. In the 34th verse of the chapter *ἡ γὰρ αἰὼν* is translated, this race of mankind, or this manner of man's existence upon earth. The great day of judgment, or the duration of *each* one of the servants of God upon earth, Mr. King suspects may be a thousand years.

The next subject to which Mr. King applies his enlarged views, is the parable of the unjust steward. He considers the parable as addressed to the Scribes; Pharisees and the rich men, assembled around; and, by an allusion which they could easily comprehend, and by a practice which *they* would approve, our Saviour inculcates the necessity of kindness to the believers, if *they* themselves continue without the pale of the gospel. If *they* they

they should fail, the disciples of Christ may receive them into *their* habitations. This is a doctrine nearly bordering on that of supererogation. The illustration which this interpretation is supposed to afford, and the elucidation which it suggests of many passages of scripture, are the subjects of the remaining part of the dissertation; but, as we cannot agree with Mr. King in his interpretation, we shall not enlarge on what is drawn from it, or the numerous discussions which our author, in his usual digressive manner, engages in.

The eighth section contains reflections on the account which our Lord has given of the day of judgment. From this description our author suspects, that the good men will not only be raised up, but be brought to that tribunal together with the angels; and that bad men, even previous to that time, 'will be comforted with the evil angels.' The high importance of the duty of benevolence is strongly inculcated from the events of that day; and the indispensable duty of faith is well supported from various concurring passages of scripture, which are collected in this section. The reason of one duty being insisted on so strongly in the latter day, is supposed to be, that the immediate servants of God, few indeed in number, are saved by faith alone; but that benevolence and charity may cover the numerous sins of those who are not peculiarly distinguished by faith.

The fourth verse of the sixth chapter of the Revelations is the next object of attention, with an explanation of the series of events in that work. The seals, the trumpets, and the vials, occupy much of Mr. King's enquiries. The seals, he supposes, represent the events, previous to the establishment of Christianity; the trumpets, those which occur subsequent to that establishment; and the vials point out some changes that should ensue, *particularly in the West*, during either æra. The great error, our author thinks, is in the second seal; and he would translate in the following manner, the description of the first and second seal, in the second and fourth verses.

'And I saw, and behold a white horse, and one sitting upon him, having a bow. And there was given unto him a crown, and he went forth conquering; and for the [sole] purpose of conquering.

'And there went forth another horse of a reddish colour; and to him that sat upon it, to him was given to receive peace from the earth; and that men should [be left to] massacre one another, And there was given unto him a great sword.'

The first, it is supposed, evidently refers to Trajan, the first and greatest conqueror after the period of the prophecy; and the latter to Adrian. Men were to be left to massacre each other as the Jews did in their revolt, under their false messiah Barchochebas, and he was armed with a sword of justice, since justice was very rigorously executed during the latter part of Adrian's reign. Glorifying in the success of this interpretation, Mr. King

goes on to explain some other descriptions in the same chapter. The third seal relates to Antoninus and Marcus Aurelius; the fourth seal prophesied the plague and slaughter, about the end of the reign of Aurelius, the whole reign of Commodus, and his short-lived successors. The fifth seal relates to the eighth persecution, under Decius Gallus, and Valerian, as well as to the tenth. The sixth seal represented the events which preceded and accompanied the fall of the Roman empire, instead of describing, as has been imagined, the terrors of the last day. The seventh seal comprehended all that remained, all that the consequences of the sounding of the seven trumpets portended.

The first trumpet is believed to be prophetic of the calamities which occurred after 337, the year of the death of Constantine. The silence of half an hour is the peace of 25 years: our author consequently calculates the duration of prophetic years, hours, days, from this hypothesis, with great security. The great mountain, burning with fire, cast into the sea, implies the union of the Goths with the Roman armies, and the devastations which ensued in consequence of this junction. The third trumpet relates to the ravages of Attila; the fourth to the establishment of the Visigoths; the fifth to Mahomet, and the conquest of the Saracens; the sixth to the conquest of the Saracens, beyond the Euphrates; and the passage (chap. ix. v. 14.) is translated *by means of* the river Euphrates: the events of the seventh trumpet are yet to be explained.

The vials are supposed to portend various calamities of different eras. The first, those which occurred from 713 to 1042, including the leprosy and the venereal disease, which our author, without sufficient reason, refers to this period. The second vial points out the enthusiastic infatuations from the year 1096 to 1273; the third, the history of civil wars and tumults, from the last period to 1493; the fourth, the despotic tyrannies of the time between 1519 and 1713; the fifth answers to the events relating to the church of Rome, and its powers, from 1713 to 1780; the sixth relates either to the discoveries in navigation, the quick conveyances to different places, or to the expulsion of the Turks. The seventh is still to be completed.

We have given a short abstract of these opinions, without many remarks, where they coincide with other interpretations, or where they are founded on the basis of reason and truth. We must own that, in very few instances, they are so striking and appropriated as to meet with our assent; but we ought to add, that to judge of their propriety, the reader should attend to the reasons by which the different interpretations are supported, in the work itself. It would be too long even to give a very slight account of them in our Journal.

The tenth section, into which these Morsels are divided, contains observations, on the interpretation of Daniel's prediction, under the emblem of the little horn, of the he-goat. After stating some

some difficulties, in the way of Bishop Newton's interpretation, Mr. King gives his own opinion, that the two horns, that on the fourth beast, and that on the he-goat, represent the two opposers of the truth; the Roman power in the West, and the Mahometan in the East. This opinion is supported by various arguments, and reasonings on different parts of the prophecy of Daniel. Prophetic years come in also to support our author, and, from this computation of the time mentioned in Daniel viii. and 12. of the cleansing of the sanctuary, he observes that it is brought down to the year 1762, when the present empress of Russia began to reign; and if we take the whole period, from the time when the power of the ram was complete, in consequence of the conquest of Egypt in 525 A. C. it will point out the year 1775, when the peace was signed between the Turks and Russians, by which the Mahometans ceded so much of their former territories. We shall make no remarks, on those computations, till we see whether the Russians or the Turks conquer in the present war. In the same chapter of Daniel, from the 15th verse to the 26th, our author still sees prophecies of the downfall of the Mahometan power.

Another prophecy of Daniel is supposed to have a similar meaning, especially when viewed through the medium of the Septuagint: the chapter alluded to is the 11th, verse 40 to 45. The 40th verse our author would translate, from the LXX. in the following manner;

“40. And in the time [about] the end of things, a king of the North shall have conflict with the king of the South, and shall be united with him, with chariots, and with horsemen, and with many ships, and shall enter into the land, and shall grind [and shake] it, and shall pass over.”

The king of the North is supposed to be the Turkish power, which entered into the East from Scythia; this power contended with the Saracens, and were at last united with them. From verse 44, our author sees, with equal clearness, the end of this united force by the efforts of the Russians; but, ‘ad hoc sub judice hic est.’

The fatal event of Ananias and Saphira furnishes Mr. King with some singular observations, and an opportunity of supporting his peculiar opinions. After this had happened, the author of the Acts, (chap. xi. 13.) according to our author's interpretation, adds, ‘Of the rest’ that is of the believers, no one dared to associate himself in that intimate bond of fellowship and community of goods with them; yet the people extolled them.’ This interpretation, though very near the words of the text, might bear some criticism respecting its meaning; for it is not very creditable to the new converts, or highly honourable to the apostles. Our author, however, argues from it, that societies and institutions, particularly of the monastic kind, are not suitable either to the spirit or the practice of the apostolic age.

age. We believe it most sincerely, though on other, and, we think, better grounds.

Another passage from which a false conclusion, in consequence of a new translation, has been drawn, occurs in the 4th verse of the Epistle of Jude. This verse our author would translate in the following manner:

‘ 4. For there are crept in privately certain men, who have been *before written against* on account of *this very opinion* [of theirs.] In devout men, turning the grace of our God into lasciviousness, [or substituting a most perverse injurious doctrine, in the room of the favour of our God], and denying the only ruler, God, and our Lord Jesus Christ.’

The great force of the emendation rests on the words *παρακατακειμενοι* and *κατα*. The author is very right, in many parts of his argument; but the first word can never signify ‘written *against*,’ and *κατα* must still be judgment; and in a severe and unfavourable sense, condemnation: *ferre sententiam* is to form a judgment; and this is Harry Stevens’s opinion, and the force of the passage in Aristotle, to which he refers. The other passage, in St. Paul’s opinion, does not assist Mr. King; for the judgment (Rom. iii. 8.) as we have just now observed, is truly a condemnation.

Our author’s object, in the 14th and last section, is to explain the meaning in which the word *πνευμα* is used in the Septuagint. He supposes that it means spirit, in contradistinction to soul, and to body. Dr. M’Knight has adopted the same interpretations (Thess. v. 23.)—In many passages, it is supposed also to mean a dead corpse; but in these instances, as we sometimes find the adjective added, it is highly probable that it is always understood. In Leviticus xix. 28. *ψυχης* can have no such meaning as Mr. King attributes to it: in chap. xxi. 1. it cannot easily be allowed: in the 11th verse of the same chapter, the adjective is added. In Numbers xix. 11. the adjective is also added; and in many verses of the ninth chapter of Numbers, it is as obvious that the adjective is implied, and that the *departed* spirit is meant, though the word is translated *dead corpse*. We cannot perceive that Linnæus’s opinion of bulbous roots, or Mr. Hunter’s of the living principle residing in the blood, can influence the question; if the term *dead* be considered in the instances where it occurs as a pleonasm, we have an equal right to style it, when omitted, an ellipsis. We still less agree in the following observations. The dead body and the seed or bulbous root is supposed to contain the *ψυχη* of the vegetable.

‘ As the ancients, from tradition and speculation, had most unquestionably much more science and knowledge than we are apt to suppose; they seem to have adopted apprehensions, both with regard to dead bodies, and with regard to vegetables, of the kind here mentioned. And from the first of these, per-
verted;

ported, arose the Egyptian idea concerning embalming; though every philosophical person must perceive, it tended most probably to produce directly the contrary effect to that which the vulgar supposed.

And from the latter perhaps arose the prohibition of Pythagoras to his scholars, not to eat beans.

Both, however, are only proofs, how idle every metaphysical didactic conclusion is, that ventures to demand assent; without proceeding from, or being positively authorized by the word of God.

The distinction of the compound nature of man, receives perhaps a most illustrious explanation, from those most remarkable words of St. Paul, in the xvth chapter of the First Epistle to the Corinthians. Where we find the word *ανωμα*, the rational, and sublimely heavenly soul, so nicely distinguished from the predominant characteristic of the first Adam, the prevalent, mere animal nature.

Although in Adam were the rudiments of both, since he had not only the *ψυχὴ ζων*, the living spirit; but also, what every one of his posterity has, the *ανω ζων* breathed into him: "the breath of life;" the principle of the "heavenly soul," see Genesis, ch. ii. ver. 7, by virtue, indeed, of which alone it was, that he even first became *ψυχὴ ζων*, a living spirit.

The Appendix contains two sections or rather hints, because as they are not founded on the full positive evidence of scripture, they are not joined more intimately with the former work. The first relates to the destruction of the earth by fire. The different passages, in scripture, are to be reconciled, in our author's opinion, by supposing that, from some change in the orbit of the earth, this planet either falls into the sun, or passing its perihelion, becomes a comet. The quotations are too numerous for us to transcribe.

The second section of the appendix is on the different expressions in scripture, relating to the lower parts of the earth. These lower parts are, in our author's opinion, too pointed to be eluded by an enquirer into the words of scripture, on philosophical principles; and he concludes the words mean a cavity in the centre, which is truly a bottomless pit, because each part of the earth is its roof, and, in turn, its bottom; so that no part can be properly distinguished by either denomination.

In this wretched state, if their organs are at all similar to ours, they must needs have no light, except what proceeds from inflammable matter bursting forth interiorly from that shell. And, instead of a bright sun to illuminate their atmosphere, they must continually behold above them, a black globe of darkness in the part, in the centre, to which the beams of their inflammable matter can hardly reach sufficiently to cause any illumination.

'This

‘ This is a dreadful lucubration. Yet it is neither a presumptuous one (since we are led to it by the words of Scripture), nor an unphilosophical one.

‘ For, I may add, that to speculative minds, it must appear, upon the truest philosophical principles of gravitation, that if the earth is indeed a mere shell (as the Holy Scriptures seem, in so many places, to declare it to be), the sea would never descend, by the power of gravity, into this cavity, to fill it; but would be confined to the two, convex and concave, surfaces of such a sphere.

‘ And it must moreover appear, that, considering duly the component parts of all those solid substances which we are acquainted with; and apprehending rightly how very great a part of them is found now (in consequence of recent experiments and discoveries) to be merely fixed water, fixed air, and even fixed fire; and how very little *caput mortuum*, or real solid earth, is ever left in any, after a chemical analysis; it must, I say, moreover appear, even on the truest philosophical principles, that it is much more likely, that the marvellous consolidation which exists, and which we call earth, should be confined to a shell above the interior water, air, and fire; and below the superior water, air, and fire; (i. e. in reality in the midst of both;) than that it should continue solid down to the centre of the earth; where, upon philosophical principles, the lower it descended: in that case the more remote it would be from these three substances, which are now discovered to constitute the greatest part of all solid, or consolidated, bodies whatsoever.

‘ And as the idea of such a configuration of the earth is no ways inconsistent even with mathematical principles; so we find this idea of the solid earth being a mere shell, to be exactly consonant also (considering the great vacuity within) to that expression, in Holy Scripture, of its being founded upon nothing; and stretched over the empty place.’

‘ To these remarks there is only one answer: it is evident, that from experiments with the pendulum, the earth, instead of being a shell, is more dense in its interior parts, than near its surface; and this fact all our author’s ingenuity cannot elude, unless he can prove, on philosophical principles, that the density does not increase uniformly. Every planet may have its pit for the confinement of the wicked; but Mr. King flatters us, that if we are condemned to this prison, that we may, in time, be delivered again from it. Some other speculations respecting the reality of the residence of Jonas in the whale’s belly, with remarks on other subjects, are subjoined.

The volume concludes with some additional notes; and we must conclude, with a few general remarks.

‘ We have perused this work with great pleasure, and have seen, with much admiration, a very extensive knowledge, joined with
great

great erudition, employed in the service of religion : we have seen with regret, that by applying them to subjects which they were unable to explain, the author has in most instances failed, and in some, we fear, may have drawn a little ridicule on that religion which he venerates, and which he wishes to support. If, in the course of our examination, we may have ever seemed to treat the subject too lightly, we are at least certain, that it is owing to no disrespect for the author : our whole conduct must have assured our readers that it could not have proceeded from a more improper source.

Discourses on Scripture Mysteries, preached before the University of Oxford in the Year 1787. By William Hawkins, M. A. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Rivingtons.

THE Bampton Lecture is the arena into which the modern polemic descends to combat with heretics, and with sectarists. He dictates *ex cathedra* with confidence, and assumes the high ground of mystery and inspiration ; ground which his antagonists dispute at the first onset. Mr. Hawkins succeeds the lecturer whom we have examined in our present Number, (See p. p. 489.) and flatters himself that he has chosen more advantageous ground than many of his fellow-foldiers in this field. The event is, however, to be decided in the contest ; and we are cautious of giving a positive opinion, lest we should be numbered ourselves with the combatants. We shall mention the subjects of Mr. Hawkins' enquiries, and give a short account of his principal arguments.

The first discourse is on John xviii. 38. 'What is truth ?' He deduces the excentricities of sectarists from the abuse of the exercise of private judgment, in matters of religion ; a foundation which is sufficiently strong, yet which we would not willingly allow, without some explanation. Vanity and obstinacy are undoubtedly connected very intimately with ignorance ; and of course, the vagaries of a weak understanding, when applied to religion, may be often injurious. But *all* private judgment should not be put on the same footing ; and even its abuses, if not carried into action, and become obnoxious by innovation, should be left untouched. It is one of those important subjects, where the line cannot be properly drawn, and where a little abuse may be allowed, rather than chain the mind by the fetters of authority. The question of the text is examined in various ways ; and our author is led, by the answers, to the doctrines of the Trinity, and the resurrection of the body, which form the subjects of the lectures : he is led to state, what mysteries are ; and to show that the doctrines, which in religion are deemed mysterious, are not more so than many which must necessarily be admitted. Mystriousness and incomprehensibility do not, in his opinion, preclude our assent, for infinite space and infinite time are incomprehensible ; the consistency of free will with necessity ;

cessity; and of the divine perfections with the existence of evil, are mysteries, though they must be admitted. We are not quite certain, that these arguments will be deemed forcible; and we suspect that the Arian will change his ground, and allege that they are not fairly stated, since the different doctrines do not rest on the same undeniable basis. The subject of free-will is a very doubtful one; and, instead of its being *consistent* with necessity, many metaphysicians think that our feelings on this subject are delusive, and that it has no real existence.

But, in the subsequent part of the volume, in the second discourse, Mr. Hawkins endeavours to put these different subjects on the best foundation that can be laid, the authority of scripture. It is from John v. 39. "Search the scriptures." The introduction is somewhat singular.

‘Without laying before you at present all, or the principal texts by which the doctrine of the Trinity is supported, or in which the absolute divinity both of the Son and of the Holy Ghost is explicitly asserted, or necessarily implied, we may previously remark that, supposing them to be authentic, unequivocal, and intelligible, the infidel is in fact precluded from taking advantage of those passages which are declarative either of the acknowledged humanity of Jesus Christ, or of the gifts and operations of the blessed Spirit: that humanity, and those operations being things manifestly distinct from the divine essence, and real personality. What we shall have to do therefore will be to enquire, in due time and place, whether the exceptions which have been made against the texts with which the catholic doctrine is fortified, are grounded in principles of common candour and common sense; or, in other words, whether the interpretations of anti-trinitarians are critically just, and agreeable to the rules which are generally allowed to govern interpretation.’

In this manner, all argument is precluded; the contest is terminated without a blow, since the antagonist is immediately disarmed. But we must attend to the evidence, which, though indirect and collateral, appears to our author to be irresistible; the various scriptural proofs which fill the second sermon will not furnish any new information to intelligent readers on this subject.

In the third sermon, our author adduces many observations to prove that the great mystery of the gospel was gradually expanded, and perfected only by our Lord's resurrection, which at once attested his divinity. He then endeavours to show, that the subsequent accounts of the propagation of the gospel are uniform and consistent on this hypothesis, and open to us the whole of the Trinitarian system: this is evinced by a careful and exact enquiry into the conduct of the apostles and their preaching, as recorded in various passages of the Acts. This enquiry

enquiry fills the remainder of the third and a part of the fourth ſermon. Mr. Hawkins proceeds to the writings of the fathers ; and he thinks that he finds the leading truths of Chriſtianity, though incidentally and not ſyſtematically alluded to, uniformly taught. The ſecond Epiſtle of Clement our author ſuppoſes to be genuine. The incidental arguments, from ſome practices of the primitive church, and other leſs reſpectable ſources, are of very unequal value.

In the fifth diſcourſe Mr. Hawkins begins with the ſolemn declaration from John v. 20. ‘ This is the true God.’ He thinks that the divinity of Chriſt has in the preceding pages been, beyond all reaſonable doubt, aſcertained ; and he proceeds to conſider more particularly the Socinian and Arian ſystems. Our Saviour is not ſpoken of by the prophets, as a mere legiſlator, as a mere moral inſtructor. His moral code is not ſupereminently diſtinguiſhed, ſince its firſt precepts our author finds in the philoſophical works of other authors. It is his divinity which diſtinguiſhes him : it is the ſupreme God who has put on a human form, but ſtill retains the divine eſſence. We are not willing to confirm theſe opinions, with our approbation, for reaſons which we wiſh to avoid enlarging on. The morality of the Goſpel ought not to be compared with tranſient paſſages in a few authors, or a patch-work from the various unconnected ſyſtem of the Pagans. Its precepts are pure and unſullied ; uniform and conſiſtent ; extenſive and practical. Antiquity muſt be ſearched to find occaſional paſſages, which reſembles its tenor ; but no ſearch will diſcover a code, which diſplays at once its ſpirit and conſiſtency. We have no objection to fixing religion on its proper baſis ; but we think, that few will ſuppoſe it can ſtand more ſecure, if this baſis be rendered more narrow, or if the ſuperſtructure be unconnected with what can afford it additional ſupport. Would any arguments eſtabliſh a religious ſyſtem, whoſe tendency was immoral ? Why then ſhould we reject, as an aid, what would be ſo materially injurious in oppoſition ? On the Arian ſuppoſition his obſervations are more concise ; and there is, he thinks, no difference between ſuppoſing two Gods and twenty. But it is reſerved for his ſixth ſermon to ſhow, that the anti-trinitarian cauſe is ſupported only by ‘ diſingenuous evaſion, ſlimzy ſophiſtry, or wilful miſ-conſtruction.’ The particular answers to the various Anti-trinitarians we cannot abridge, but ſhall ſelect one, in our author’s own words.

‘ There are two remarkable paſſages in St. Paul’s Epiſtles, which, as they are claimed by our adverſaries with more appearance of right than the foregoing, it will be proper to take into conſideration. “ Who (i. e. Jeſus Chriſt) being in the form of God, thought it not robbery to be equal with God, but made himſelf of no reputation,” &c. This text is often quoted as aſſerting the true divinity of our Saviour. I am therefore concerned to deliver it from the conſtruction which the

the Arians with much assurance put upon it; and which many amongst ourselves have, I think, very unwarily admitted; subjecting themselves thereby to the necessity of having recourse to a hackneyed, and after all mere verbal distinction between self-existence and necessary existence, in order to reconcile their admission with orthodox principles. 'Thought it not robbery,' &c. *ὃς ἀπαυγμὸς ἡγοῦντο*, i. e. (says Novatian and many with him,) he never compared himself with God the Father, nunquam se Deo Patri aut comparavit aut contulit; the reason follows, memor se esse ex suo Patre. Every Arian will abide by this explication; and how do the advocates for Novatian get clear of the imputed consequences? "Why, says Dr. Waterland, 'this interpretation of the text (supposing it just) implies no more than this, that Jesus Christ never pretended to an equality with the Father in respect of his original, knowing himself to be second only in order, not the first Person of the ever-blessed Trinity.'" Dr. W. observes, that the whole passage in Novatian, rightly understood, affords a strong proof of the co-equality of the two Persons; and that it is quoted accordingly by Dr. Whitby in his treatise *De vera Christi Deitate*. But as this can only be done by help of the above distinction, I must ask why Novatian's sense of this text must be admitted as the true one? He did not affect, say some, did not claim, did not take upon him, &c. to be honoured as God. Notwithstanding the great authorities of Grotius, Tillotson, and Clarke, &c. with which this interpretation is fortified, I cannot help thinking the reading in use, thought it not robbery to be equal with God, not barely to be the more eligible, but indeed the proper reading. For, not to insist on one circumstance in its favour, which is the non-agreement of the several interpretations of the learned gentlemen above mentioned, it deserves to be noted, that though the phrase *ὃς ἀπαυγμὸς ἡγοῦντο* would admit the construction contended for, yet the context will be found absolutely to revolt against it. Granting the phrase, being in the form of God, to be in itself of undeterminate signification, yet when predicated of him who is one with the Father, who was in the beginning with God, and really and truly was God, it certainly is to be regarded as synonymous with those expressions; and consequently as importing an entire equality with God. But herewith the construction of Novatian, and of the Arians, not to say of Dr. W. himself, is totally incompatible. The reading in use therefore must be allowed to be not only natural, but necessary. He thought it not robbery, i. e. to be no violation of right, or justice.'

The two last sermons are on the resurrection; and Mr. Hawkins not only examines the scriptural evidence of a resurrection, but the opinions of the earlier fathers. He engages also in a disquisition on Dr. Sykes' opinion on the subject, and on Mr. Locke's controversy with Dr. Stillingfleet. In general, he is pretty successful; but our respect for Mr. Locke, notwithstanding the

many errors and heresies, to which his works have given occasion, makes the terms 'pitiful evasion,' 'cavils' 'quibbles,' 'captiousness,' &c. appear much too harsh and illiberal.

The annotations are useful to illustrate many passages which, from the nature of the composition, would not admit of particular extracts or more minute criticisms. They display much learning, and an intimate acquaintance with the subject. Though Mr. Hawkins often advances opinions, in which we cannot coincide with him, though he assumes positions which we think indefensible, yet his erudition and labour demand our commendation. In our late polemical contests, we have seen too much of the illiberality of an intolerant age, to be always able to commend the temper or often the decorum of the combatants.

A General Description of China. Translated from the French of the Abbé Grosier. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THIS vast empire, and its inhabitants, have occasioned various speculations. A people, though insulated among barbarians, who possess arts in a perfection unknown to the most cultivated Europeans; whose political state has assumed a form which a series of ages alone can bestow; whose antiquity is said to exceed every thing but what the neighbouring inhabitants of Indus boast; and whose pure morality is excelled only by divine inspiration, must necessarily excite the curiosity of the speculative philosopher, and render the result of any enquiries interesting. The jealousy of the Chinese have hitherto, in a great degree, disappointed us. They anxiously conceal those arts in which they fear a rival; and, with a cautious jealousy, exclude the prying eyes of strangers. From the missionaries we have received some satisfaction; from the Chinese paintings more particular information has been obtained; but they still excel us in many arts, which we have attempted to imitate in vain. When we enumerated their peculiar advantages, we did not mean to copy the panegyrics of some authors, who declaim with as little foundation as others blame. China has been evidently long a kingdom; and whatever changes the incursions of Tartars, or even a Tartar prince, may have occasionally introduced, we find the conquerors soon melt into the conquered, and the arts avenge the victory which the sword has gained. Their antiquity is uncertain, for their boasted pretensions are extremely fallacious; but, whatever it may be, and it is probably considerable, their progressive improvement seems to have been small. To the advantages of their soil, the peculiar qualities of their vegetables, we must attribute their varnishes, their tea, and some of their lighter kinds of manufactures. We are not certain that we should attribute the perfection of their porcelain to this cause. The materials which have been transmitted to us are not of a superior quality to ours; and, in the substance of their porcelain, we have

have equalled them. Their colours, and the manner of laying them on, we cannot yet reach. If the Chinese have not deceived us in the specimens of the materials which they have sent, we may yet hope to equal them. The other objects of commerce we must resign. When we speak of their deceptions, it does not contradict what we have observed of their morality. The system of Confucius is, in many respects, admirable. If it is not universally attended to; if it enters the mind, without influencing the conduct, it will only show more clearly that the best digested system of morals is of little avail without being enlightened or enforced by inspiration or by religious tenets. In one sense of the word the Chinese may be styled stupid: they seem to practise what they know by a kind of instinct. Their science has not kept pace with their arts; and their language, encumbered with synonyms, and with difficulty understood even by their mandarines of letters, is not equal to the various exigencies of scientific discussion. Yet, if we look at their works, they are ingenious; if we examine their political regulations, they are enlightened; if we look at their manners, they are comparatively elegant.

These reflections have occurred, on perusing, in an English dress, the General History of China, which we receive with great pleasure. Our attention was long since directed to this work, and, in a series of articles, in our LXIII^d and LXIVth volumes, we gave a pretty full account of the contents of the History, and it now remains only to appreciate the translator's labours.

The Preface contains some account of the virulent invectives of M. Paw, who, in his retirement, surveyed distant nations with a prejudiced eye, and reserved his stock of venom to poison successive publications. His attacks on the Americans and Egyptians, as well as the Chinese, are sufficiently known; and we have had occasion to notice some of his misrepresentations. The translator reprehends him with proper severity; and inserts, from the preliminary discourse to the History of China, in twelve volumes, 4to. the abbé Grosier's particular answer to his invectives.

In other respects, the translator's abilities are very conspicuous. In some instances, his language is not polished with sufficient care, but we have not observed any material errors. We shall give some extracts from this translation, as, in our extensive analysis, we were obliged to decline any particular specimen. The part most interesting to Europeans relates to the tea. The two kinds (our green and bohea), seem to be varieties only. The first is styled songlo-tcha, and the second vou-y-tcha. The word tcha corrupted into tha is the origin of the term for tea, in every European language:

‘ From these two first kinds of tea, three others are composed, the difference of which results from the choice of the leaves, and the time when they are gathered. That which contains

contains only the fresh and tender leaves of young trees, is called *mao tcha*, or *imperial tea*. This is the most delicate, and is that which is transported to court for the use of the emperor. Although it is seldom ever distributed but in presents, it may sometimes be bought on the spot where it grows for twenty-pence or two shillings the pound.

‘The second sort is composed of older leaves. It is what is sold under the name of *good vou-y tcha*. The rest of the leaves that are suffered to remain on the tree till they grow larger, form the third kind, which is sold to the common people at a very cheap rate.

‘The flowers of this shrub also furnish another kind of tea; but those who are desirous of procuring it, must bespeak it, and pay an exorbitant price for it.

‘The *lou-ngang tcha*, which is the third kind of tea we have mentioned, grows in the neighbourhood of the city of *Lou-ngan-tcheou*. It differs in nothing from the *song-lo*, either in the configuration of its leaves, or the manner in which it is cultivated; but it has none of its noxious qualities; it is neither so heating, nor is it so harsh and corrosive—properties which result, no doubt, from the difference of the soils in which they grow.’

There are some other varieties.

‘The fourth kind is procured from a village named Pou-eul, situated in the province of Yunnan, on the frontiers of the kingdoms of Pegu, Ava, Laos and Tong-king. This village is become considerable by its commerce: people resort to it from all parts; but the entrance of it is forbidden to strangers, who are permitted to approach no nearer than the bottoms of the mountains, to receive the quantity of tea which they want. The trees that produce this tea are tall and bushy; they are planted irregularly, and grow without any cultivation. Their leaves are longer and thicker than those of the *song-lo tcha* and *vou-y tcha*; they are rolled up in the same manner as we roll up our tobacco, and formed into masses, which are sold at a dear rate. This kind of tea is much used in the provinces of Yun-nan and Koei-tcheou. It has nothing harsh; but it has not that agreeable taste and flavour which distinguish other kinds: when infused, it tinges water with a reddish colour.

‘The *kaiel tcha* is a kind of tea used by the Mogul Tartars. It is only the refuse of the leaves of all the different teas which have been suffered to grow hard, and which are mixed indiscriminately. These people, who feed on raw flesh, are subject to continual indigestions whenever they give over the use of tea: on that account, they transport great quantities of it from China; and, in exchange, furnish the emperor with all the horses necessary for his cavalry.

‘We must not confound with real tea every thing that the Chinese call *tcha*. What is sold in the province of Chang-tong as a delicate tea, is properly but a kind of moss, which grows

on the rocks in the neighbourhood of the small city of Mang-ing-hien. A like kind of tea is distributed in some of the other northern provinces, which is not composed of real leaves, although the merchants vend it under the name of *tea-yé*, *tea-leaves*.

'If this delicious commodity is adulterated even in China, can we flatter ourselves, that the tea we have in Europe is pure and without mixture? Perhaps we taste nothing else, like many of the Chinese, but moss from the rocks of Mang-ing-hien.'

We hope we shall be excused for adding an extract from Kien Long's poem on tea, as it is descriptive of the manner of making it in China.

Put, says he, 'on a moderate fire, a three-legged vessel, the form and colour, of which bespeak long services; fill it with limpid water procured from melted snow, boil it to that degree which is necessary to whiten fish or redden crabs, and immediately pour it over the tender leaves of choice tea put into a cup made of the earth *yue*. Leave it at rest, until the vapours, which at first rise in abundance, form thick clouds, afterwards gradually disperse, at length vanish, and leave only some light exhalations floating on the surface; then, at leisure, sip this delicious liquor. It will effectually dispel those five causes of inquietude that generally assail us, and disturb our repose. We may taste, we may feel, but we cannot express the soft tranquillity occasioned by a liquor prepared in this manner.'

We must not conclude, without repeating our commendations of the work, and thanking the ingenious translator for this valuable addition to the English stock of entertaining descriptions of the manners of foreign nations. A correct map of China is prefixed, and the work is adorned by various plates, which illustrate the manners and ceremonies of the Chinese.

A Defence of the Constitutions of Government of the United States of America. By John Adams, LL. D. Vol. II. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Dilly.

AMERICA is now in the situation which every speculative legislator has wished for. A vast body of people, scattered over an extensive country, advanced in science, in arts, and in civil policy, have now to form their own government, uncontrouled. If we employ the American language, a nation who has purchased its own freedom is now to lodge its power in hands that will not abuse it, and to check the powers that are granted, by restrictions sufficiently coercive to retain its real liberty. Yet such is the perverseness of the human mind, so inadequate are the multitude to judge of what is proper to be done, that, what their ablest politicians have designed, a great number disapprove. Their federal government, as we

formerly predicted, is opposed; and it will be impossible to unite America, but by the conquests of the more powerful over the weak, or the impending destruction of some common danger. Mr. Adams' design, in his former volume, was rather to shew the distinct states the necessity of different powers, to balance each other, and of dividing the legislative from the executive power. This object he pursues in the second volume, now before us.

In our account of the first volume, (Cr. Rev. vol. lxiii. p. 248.) we pointed out Mr. Adams' sentiments on government in general: his object was to prove, that no pure democracy ever existed; we may add, till human nature changes, it is not probable that it will ever be found to exist. A democratical government is one of those ideal fabrics, which a slight experience will destroy; a scheme incompatible with the passions and the ambition of mankind.

The Italian republics, in the middle age, have been brought, as exceptions to this opinion; and to examine their pretensions to this government, as well as to consider its consequences, is the design of the present volume. A very slight acquaintance with their history will soon convince us, that, if their government was democratical, a similar one should be avoided with anxious care; and the system of having all authority in one centre will, by their experience, be found most pernicious. In reality, if the government appeared to be democratical for one moment, in another it was changed for anarchy, and for confusion; for rebellion, and the severest despotism. The first letter is on the government of Florence; the facts are selected with great care from the best historians, and not a doubt must remain of the misery resulting from this fancied perfection. The second letter contains remarks on Machiavel's Plan of a perfect Commonwealth; but Mr. Adams thinks, with some reason, that it would not have removed the evils which had been felt. The appointment of officers, in the council of a thousand, would have prevented the benefits arising from the other divisions of power; besides that the legislative and executive powers were not sufficiently separated.

The object of the third letter is the constitution of the Tuscans; it consisted of united states, who formed a fœderal union of great strength and importance. The outline of the original constitution of Rome, and many of its forms, were taken from this nation. Siena was in the centre of the twelve cities; and, from its historian Malavolti, with the assistance of other authors, Mr. Adams deduces the account of the disputes, which arose in consequence of the democratical government of Tuscany, down to 1390. It was afterwards united under one duke; for, while the executive power remained in an assembly, anarchy and confusion, aristocracy or oligarchy, alternately prevailed. The following reflections are bold and new; when their novelty is a little worn off, they will be found also sufficiently, though not entirely, correct.

‘It is often said, that the republics of Greece, Rome, and Tuscany, produced in the minds of their citizens great virtues, an ardent love for their country, undaunted bravery, the love of poverty, the love of science, &c. But if a little attention is bestowed upon the subject, these will be found to be very feeble arguments in their favour. It was not the love of their country, but of their faction. There was in every city three factions at least; every citizen loved one third of his fellow-citizens, and hated the other two thirds. It is true that, in such a state of things, affection for friends strengthens in proportion to the fear and hatred of enemies, and the desire of revenge becomes as strong a passion, and demands gratification as imperiously, and perhaps more so, than friendship. How was it possible when men were always in war and danger, that they should not be brave? Courage is a quality to be acquired by all men, by habit and practice. When scenes of death and carnage are every day before his eyes, how is it possible that a man should not acquire a contempt of death, from his familiarity with it, especially if life is made a burden, by continual exertion and mortification? The love of poverty is a fictitious virtue, that never existed. A preference of merit to wealth has sometimes existed under all governments; but most of all under aristocracies. There is wisdom and virtue in all. But can much of this be found in the histories of any country, that was not poor, and obliged to be so? Can you see much of it in Florence and Siena? The love of science and literature always grows, where there is much public deliberation and debate, and in such governments where every faculty as well as passion is always on the stretch, great energy of mind appears. But there is a form of government which produces a love of law, liberty, and country, instead of disorder, irregularity, and a faction; which produces as great and more independence of spirit, and as undaunted bravery; as much esteem of merit in preference to wealth, and as great simplicity, sincerity, and generosity to all the community, as others do to a faction; which produces as great a desire of knowledge, and infinitely better faculties to pursue it; which besides produces security of property, and the desire and opportunities for commerce, which the others obstruct. Shall any one hesitate then to prefer such a government as this, to all others? A constitution in which the people reserve to themselves the absolute controul of their purses, one essential branch of the legislature, and the inquest of grievances and state crimes, will always produce patriotism, bravery, simplicity, and science; and that, infinitely better for the order, security, and tranquillity they will enjoy, by putting the executive power into one hand, which it becomes their interest, as well as that of the nobles, to watch and controul.’

The subject of the fourth letter is the government of Bologna, and a detail of the calamities which arose from its effects. These misfortunes are contralled, in the fifth letter, by a short history

history of Neufchatel, where the king of Prussia is only first magistrate, and whose government is that of a limited monarchy, with a proper ballance of the three estates.

We have not examined this volume very extensively, because it is chiefly abstracted from different authors. Mr. Adams has, however, shewn himself well acquainted with his subject; and, whenever he turns, he finds the strongest proofs of the justness of his sentiments; of sentiments which we formerly commended, and which, on the maturest reflection, we still approve of.

A New Literal Translation, from the Original, of the Apostle Paul's First and Second Epistle to the Thessalonians. With a Commentary and Notes. By James Macknight, D.D. 4to. 7s. 6d. in Boards. Robinsons.

IT will be universally acknowledged, that the translation of the sacred writings ought to be executed with all possible accuracy, perspicuity, and precision. That the common version might admit of many amendments in these particulars, will likewise not be denied: but provided it corresponds with the most obvious sense of the original, that it is affected with no errors in point of doctrine, and with no essential blemishes in expression, there is perhaps reason to question the expediency of any new translation of those divine and important oracles. There is some danger lest simplicity of diction be sacrificed to refinement; or, if this should happily be avoided, that the venerable solemnity of the common version should be injured by an attempt to polish it with more perfect exactness. Dr. Macknight, we are sensible, has undertaken the work from the purest and best of motives: his well-intended industry merits the highest praise; and, in many instances, his critical sagacity demands approbation. But, notwithstanding all these circumstances, we must acknowledge that his version contains such innovations, as lay us under the necessity of withholding our assent from the proposal of adopting it. On what reasons our opinion is founded, we shall proceed to specify by a few examples.

Dr. Macknight informs us, that he has endeavoured to make the translation an exact image of the original, by giving the literal meaning of the Greek text in common use, as nearly as the nature of the English language would allow; and if any Greek word or phrase admits of more senses than one, that which appeared to agree best with the context is preferred, though perhaps it is not the most common signification. The examples which he gives of this kind are the following.

<i>English Version.</i>	<i>Text.</i>	<i>New Translation.</i>
1 Cor. vii. 6. But I speak this by per-	Τὸτο δι' ἁλῶ κατὰ	But this I speak as
mission, and not of τὰ γιν.	ἡ κατ' ἐπι-	an advice, not as an
commandment.		injunction.

In this verse, Dr. Macknight has not only affixed a very extraordinary signification to the word *συγγνωμην*, but converted that of the preposition *κατὰ* into an adverbial sense, with the view of forming an antithesis not authorised by the expression in the original. By the construction of the Greek, which is adopted in the Vulgate, both *συγγνωμην* and *ἐπιταγην* are used as proceeding immediately from God to the apostle; but by Dr. Macknight as proceeding entirely from the latter. The sense, however, being in effect the same according to both interpretations, we cannot approve of an alteration apparently arbitrary, and which requires, towards its establishment, such a departure from the common signification both of the noun and preposition above mentioned.

Gal. iv. 4. God sent forth his Son *Εξαπεμψεν ὁ Θεὸς* Son born of a woman, made of a woman, *ἐκ γυναικὸς, γενομένου ὑπὸ νόμου* under the law. made under the law, *νόμου.*

The word *γενομένου* admits of either of these interpretations; that of Dr. Macknight is, indeed, most conformable to analogy; but in so peculiar a case, perhaps the other, as less common, may be deemed the more suitable term.

2 Pet. i. 20. Know- *Τὸτο πρῶτος γινώσκον* Knowing this first, *τε, ὅτι πᾶσα προφητεία* that no prophecy of *ἡσάφης, ἰδίας ἐπιλυσεως* scripture is of private *ἢ γινεται,* *discovery.* *tation.*

What precise meaning Dr. Macknight affixes to *discovery*, is not very obvious; but in any sense which he can be supposed to intend, he has wrested the word *ἐπιλυσεως* to an extremely uncommon signification.

21. For the pro- *Οὐ γὰρ διημαλ* For never was a *ἀνθρώπου, πνεχθη ποτε* prophecy brought by *προφῆτια, &c.* the will of man, &c, of man, &c,

The sense of the preceding verse is so little altered by the new translation, that Dr. Macknight seems to have founded his chief amendment entirely upon the opinion, that *πνεχθη* being in the passive voice, *was brought*, not *came*, was the true grammatical interpretation. But the doctor will please to

consider, that in the passive voice of Greek verbs, the second aorist frequently, and sometimes the first, ought to be interpreted in the sense of the middle voice. According to this rule, the meaning of *πνεχθῆ* is precisely that which is adopted in the Bible translation.

Ephes. iv. 16. And *Και συμβιβάζομενοι* And compacted compacted by that *δια πάσης ἀφῆς τῆς* through the aid of which every joint *ἐπιχορηγίας.* every joint. supplieth.

Dr. Macknight's translation of the above verse is more perspicuous than the common version, but adheres less closely to the signification of the terms in the original.

Dr. Macknight supplies an ellipsis in the text with propriety, in several instances. We give the following as examples.

The first of the subsequent verses is introductory to the second.

Rom. vii. 24. Who *Τὴς με ῥυσσάσει ἐκ τοῦ* Who shall deliver shall deliver me from *αἵματος τοῦ θανάτου τοῦ* me from the body of the body of this death? *τοῦ;* this death?

25. I thank God, *Εὐχαριστῶ τῷ Θεῷ,* I thank God *τὸν* through Jesus Christ *διὰ Ἰησοῦ Χριστοῦ τοῦ κυρίου* delivers me through our Lord. *ἡμῶν.* Jesus Christ our Lord.

Rom. xv. 18. For *Οὐ γὰρ τέλησθω* Yet I will not dare I will not dare to *λαλεῖν τι ὃν ἢ κατὰ* to speak any thing of speak of any of those *γασατο Χριστὸς δι' ἐμὲ,* what Christ hath not things which Christ *ἡς ὑπακοῇ ἔθνη, λε-* wrought by me; *ὅτι* what he hath wrought by me, to make the Gen- *γὰρ καὶ ἔργῳ.* in order to the obe- dience of the Gen- tiles obedient, by *ῥῶμα καὶ ἔργῳ.* dience of the Gen- tiles, by word and deed.

1 Cor. xiv. 27. If *Ἐὰν ἑλθῶσιν τις λαλεῖν,* If any one speak any man speak in an *κατὰ δύο (sup. λόγος),* in a tongue *ἡ ἑκαστὸν* *ἀκρόαται* tongue, let *ἢ το πλῆθος τρεῖς, καὶ* let it be by two, or at it be by two, or at the *ἀνὰ μέρος καὶ ὡς δια-* the most three *μνηστέον.* sentences, and separately; and let one in- that by course; and *μνηστέον.* terpret. let one interpret.

The sense of the following verses in the new translation is singular.

Heb. ix. 16. For *ὅπου γὰρ διαθήκη,* For where a cov- where a testament is, *θανάτου ἀνέγκη φερόμε-* nant is, there is a ne- there must also of ne- *θαί τε διαθήμῃ (sup. cessity* cessity that the death cessity be the death *συμματος).* of the appointed sa- of the testator. *ς* crifice be presented.

17. For a testament διαθήκη ἐστίν. For a covenant is of force after men περὶ (sup. θυμάτων) firm over dead sacrifices are dead; otherwise, βεβαία, ἐπὶ μὴ ποτὶ σφίσι, seeing it never it is of no strength at ισχυρὴ, ὅτι ἔτι δὲ δια. is of force while the all while the testator θύματος. (sup. μωσχοῦ, appointed animal liveth. τραγός, &c.) eth.

We cannot help thinking that Dr. Macknight is mistaken in applying to a particular case, what the apostle seems to have meant as a general observation. The sense, as rendered in the Bible translation, appears to be both the most obvious and the most consistent with the common signification of the Greek terms.

Many of the alterations proposed by Dr. Macknight are founded upon the Greek particles, in the interpretation of which he is an advocate for unjustifiable latitude. It is certain, that in our own language, several of the particles may be used in the place of others; yet, it does not follow, that the true meaning of those particles varies. For example, it conveys the same idea to an English reader, to say, 'Keep the feast not *with* the old leaven,' or, 'Keep the feast not *in* the old leaven.' The latter, however, is the more literal; but because the former, in English, is admissible, we surely ought not thence to infer, that the Greek preposition *σύν* signifies *with*, as Dr. Macknight supposes in page lv. where other examples of the same sort occur.

The particle *καί*, *and*, or *also*, Dr. Macknight interprets into a variety of significations. Mat. xi. 17, 'We have piped unto you, *but* ye have not danced;' we have mourned unto you, *but* ye have not lamented.' Surely the passage may be rendered as it is in the common translation, with as much propriety, and without any violation of the Greek particle; 'We have piped unto you, *and* ye have not danced; we have mourned unto you, *and* ye have not lamented.'

Mat. xii. 37. 'By thy words thou shalt be justified; (*καί*) or, by thy words thou shalt be condemned.' Dr. Macknight. The Bible translation properly renders it, *and* by thy words, &c.

1 Cor. xv. 45. 'Οὕτω καὶ γέγραπται. 'For thus it is written,' Dr. Macknight. The Bible translation reads, 'And thus it is written;' which is both conformable to the sense of the passage, and the signification of *καί*.

Luke ix. 33, 'Master, it is good for us to be here; (*καί*) therefore let us make three tabernacles.' Dr. Macknight. The Bible translation has, 'And let us,' &c. which is certainly more proper; for there can be no occasion for affixing any illative sense to the particle *καί* in this verse, as the doctor imagines.

Luke

Luke xii. 28. 'How much more will he clothe you, O ye of little faith; (*καὶ*) *therefore* seek not what ye shall eat.' Dr. Macknight. The Bible translation says properly, '*and* seek not;' for *καὶ* joins the sentiment in the 29th verse to the first clause in the 27th.

1 Cor. v. 13. *Καὶ ἐξαρσῆτε*, &c. 'Therefore put away that wicked person from among yourselves.' In this verse Dr. Macknight adopts the Bible translation; but the version should be, 'And put away,' &c. for *καὶ* has the force of a copulative, as in the preceding example.

The significations which Dr. Macknight ascribes to *καὶ* are so various, that, according to his doctrine, this single particle might supersede the use of a great number of the most heterogeneous words in the Greek tongue. Besides *and*, its common signification, he interprets it into but, or, for, therefore, as, when, though, yet, so, certainly, especially, namely, and the relative pronoun who, or which. Several other Greek particles are likewise invested by Dr. Macknight with such an authority as seems inconsistent with the genius of a copious language. In some instances, the doctor seems to have been influenced by Vigerus and Hoogeveen, and in others, by a supposed expediency of accommodating the Greek to the preconceived import, and particular station, of different English particles.—A commentary on the Scriptures, by Dr. Macknight, we are of opinion, would be a valuable work; but we cannot equally approve of his proposed translation of the New Testament. By multiplying unnecessarily the signification of one and the same word in different positions, and assigning to particles an arbitrary and almost unlimited power, the plan which he has adopted would, in many cases, sacrifice justness of conception to ideal propriety; and, through fastidious discrimination, overturn the simplicity and determinate expression of the Greek language.

The Present State of Sicily and Malta, extracted from Mr. Brydone, Mr. Savinburne, and other modern Travellers. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Kearsley.

THE work before us is said to have been 'originally compiled by a person of distinguished abilities, for the use of some young people;' and we were pleased to think that we should find much information in a small compass. We were aware of 'people of distinction,' and were suspicious of 'distinguished abilities;' but we must retract our suspicion. The term is a guarded one, and if our compiler's abilities are to be distinguished, it is for marring a plain tale in telling it. We never saw stronger instances of the employment of scissors and paste.

paste. We have marked many passages, where the scissars were not dexterously used, or where the paste was applied so late, that a paragraph or two was lost in the process; but we can select a specimen only of different kinds, and, to avoid the suspicion of improper severity, we shall take them in the order in which they occur.

Even so early as in page second, we are told of the tyranny of Phalaris of Agrigentum, of a legion of tyrants who succeeded him. In the following paragraph, we find that the Sicilian Greeks 'did not long enjoy the sweets of this delightful situation'—What! the sweets of slavery? But this may be ironical:—no, the period is 100 years, and the next event was the conquest of the island by the Carthaginians. Why was not the compiler's room swept before the book was sent to the press?

In a note of page tenth, we are told that sir William Hamilton visited Calabria *during* the earthquake: in another note in the same page, *depressing* the boggy ground is said to squeeze the water out. In page thirteenth, Vesuvius is said to form a '*broad, unbroken tract in the air*, to the utmost verge of the horizon.' We think the tract must be broken, and what forms the horizon must undoubtedly reach its verge. In the same page, a wave, rolling on the land, is said to have ' *dashed the unfortunate prince, with 2473 of his subjects, into the ocean*:'—this can only mean the ocean behind the land.

This knight of the scissars has not only cut to pieces modern travellers, but modern and ancient historians.—The passages themselves are patted sometimes in good order; sometimes they are thrown together without much design: yet, if Brydone, Swinburne, and Watson, with some other authors' works, contain any thing very good, this work must be also excellent; for the compiler has endeavoured to '*cull the choicest*:' and his motto may very properly be, *e pluribus unum*.

Emmeline; or, the Orphan of the Castle. By Charlotte Smith. 4 vols. 12mo. 12s. Cadell.

AS we have lately been able to fix a new æra in novel-writing, we are happy at being able to point out another example of this new species, which reflects so much credit on its author. We might, perhaps, be censured as too easy flatterers, if we said, that this novel equals *Cecilia*; yet we think it may stand next to Miss Burney's works, with so little inferiority, that to mistake the palm of excellence, would neither show a considerable want of taste or of skill. Mrs. Smith is not equal to Miss Burney in elegance of language: she is not, perhaps, entirely equal to her in the mellowness of description, or in the highly worked pathos of distress. Our present author does not sink into the class of middle life, and produce scenes of that kind,

kind, so nicely discriminated, or pourtray characters so minutely diversified. We speak only by comparison, for there are no instances, in which the language of Emmeline is incorrect; in a few only it does not seem to be polished with sufficient labour: the descriptions are neither faint nor imperfect; and, though our author scarcely steps out of higher life, the characters are well drawn in the lighter sketches of lower scenes. The characters which she introduces in the active business of the novel are not discriminated with less propriety, or supported with less skill, than those of any novellist we are acquainted with. Lord Montreville, Fitz Edward, Delamere, Crofts, and Godolphin, are excellent copies from nature; nor is it easy to say that they for a moment quit the style or the sentiments suitable to them. The ladies are equally distinguished; and Emmeline, Mrs. Stafford, Augusta Delamere, and Lady Adelina, with characters equally amiable and soft, cannot be ever confounded with each other. The characters which display the greatest skill are those of Lord Montreville and Adelina.

The story is well imagined, and the incidents so well conducted, that every one hastens on the event. The scenes are often drawn with great beauty: Mrs. Smith excels in landscape painting; and the moral of every part is excellent.

While we have given this cheerful tribute of praise to an author, whom we know only by her publications, and have hinted at faults, we must add, that in one or two instances, she seems to have aimed at persons. We hope that she has not looked at home, in the misfortunes of Mrs. Stafford. We have sometimes thought, that the work hung heavy on our hands; yet, on trial, we know not what should have been omitted. Each little, seemingly unimportant incident, develops the character in question, or elucidates it. Even the little artless scenery of the introduction contributes to explain the catastrophe. If we were to mention the parts which seemed the most interesting, they would be, the introductory parts: the scenes at East Cliff, in the Isle of Wight: the adventure on the banks of the lake of Geneva: and the discovery of Godolphin on board the packet.

We will not mutilate these pleasing volumes by taking one line from the story: Mrs. Smith will excuse us for transcribing one of the sonnets. It was reserved for her, and one other author, to show, that a species of poetry, the most artificial, might be rendered natural and pleasing in our language, by taste and judgment. Even fetters may be made to hang with grace, and add to beauty, though our fair author does not always put on the chains which so strictly bind the Italian sonneteer.

‘I love thee, mournful sober suited night,
When the faint moon, yet lingering in her wand
And veil’d in clouds, with pale uncertain light
Hangs o’er the waters of the restless main.

In deep depression sunk, the enfeebled mind
Will to the deaf, cold elements complain,
And tell the embosom'd grief, however vain,
To sullen furies, and the viewless wind,
Tho' no repose on thy dark breast I find,
I still enjoy thee—cheerless as thou art;
For in thy quiet gloom, the exhausted heart,
Is calm, tho' wretched; hopeless, yet resign'd.
While, to the winds and waves, its sorrows giv'n,
May reach—tho' lost on earth—the ear of heav'n!

The History of the Revolution of South Carolina, from a British Province to an independent State. By David Ramsay, M. D.
2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THE late unfortunate war in America is more memorable for its termination than for the steps which led to that event. More than one general history, however, of its progress has already been published; and these seem sufficient to gratify the curiosity of those who are desirous of information on the subject. After a narrative of the military transactions in the different parts of North America, the attention of a reader can be but weakly solicited to those in a particular province, and that too, excepting the revolutions in the fate of Charlestown, not the most distinguished for the variety or importance of the operations which took place during the continuance of the war. But the author of the present work, actuated by a provincial partiality, has submitted to the public a particular account of the occurrences in South-Carolina alone. So far, indeed, as concerns information, he seems to be well qualified for such a task; having been an ocular witness to many of the events which he records. But, as an active agent in the American army, and, during one year, a member of the continental congress, we cannot likewise consider him in the light of a perfectly unbiassed historian.

Dr. Ramsay commences his work with a short view of the province of South-Carolina, and of the events introductory to open hostilities. He thus describes the situation of the colonies at that period:

‘Every thing in the colonies contributed to nourish a spirit of liberty and independence. They were planted under the auspices of the English constitution in its purity and vigour. Many of their inhabitants had imbibed a large portion of that spirit which brought one tyrant to the block, and expelled another from his dominions. They were communities of separate independent individuals, for the most part employed in cultivating a fruitful soil, and under no general influence, but
of

of their own feelings and opinions; they were not led by powerful families, or by great officers in church or state. Luxury had made but very little progress among their contented unambitious farmers. The large extent of territory gave each man an opportunity of fishing, fowling, and hunting, without injury to his neighbour. Every inhabitant was or easily might be a freeholder. Settled on lands of his own he was both farmer and landlord. Having no superior to whom he was obliged to look up, and producing all the necessaries of life from his own grounds, he soon became independent. His mind was equally free from all the restraints of superstition. No ecclesiastical establishments invaded the rights of conscience, or fettered the free-born mind. At liberty to act and think, as his inclination prompted, he disdained the ideas of dependence and subjection.

From the conclusion of this extract, it is evident that the seeds both of ecclesiastical and civil anarchy were plentifully sowed in the colonies. A toleration in religion is a proof of the wisdom, as well as moderation of a government; but the total exemption from an ecclesiastical establishment affords an unfavourable opinion of the principles and morals of a people, and tends rather to the encouragement of licentiousness than the maintenance of genuine liberty.

The author afterwards proceeds to relate the history of the revolt, and the formation of a regular constitution among the disaffected inhabitants of the provinces. The following account of the mutual rancour, which broke forth between the two parties after the commencement of hostilities, is, we doubt not, related with fidelity, and corresponds with the usual unhappy effects of intestine commotions.

The distinction of Whig and Tory took its rise in the year 1775. Both parties in the interior country were then embodied, and were obliged to impress provisions for their respective support. The advocates for Congress prevailing, they paid for articles consumed in their camps; but as no funds were provided for discharging the expences incurred by the royalists, all that was consumed by them was considered as a robbery. This laid the foundation of a piratical war between Whigs and Tories, which eventually was productive of great distress, and deluged the country with blood. In the interval between the insurrection of 1775, and the year 1780, the Whigs were occasionally plundered by parties who had attempted insurrections in favour of royal government. But all that was done prior to the surrender of Charleston was trifling when compared to what followed. After that event political hatred raged with uncommon fury, and the calamities of civil war desolated the state. The ties of nature were in several instances dissolved, and that

reciprocal good-will and confidence, which hold mankind together in society, was in a great degree extinguished. Countrymen, neighbours, friends and brothers, took different sides, and ranged themselves under the opposing standards of the contending factions. In every little precinct, more especially in the interior parts of the state, king's-men and congress-men were names of distinction. The passions on both sides were kept in perpetual agitation, and wrought up to a degree of fury which rendered individuals regardless, not only of the laws of war, but of the principles of humanity. While the British had the ascendancy, their partizans gave full scope to their interested and malicious passions. People of the worst characters emerged from their hiding-places in swamps—called themselves king's-men—and began to appropriate to their own use whatsoever came in their way. Every act of cruelty and injustice was sanctified, provided the actor called himself a friend to the king, and the sufferer was denominated a rebel. Of those who were well-disposed to the claims of America, there were few to be found who had not their houses and plantations repeatedly rifled. Under the sanction of subduing rebellion, private revenge was gratified. Many houses were burned, and many people inhumanly murdered. Numbers for a long time were obliged, either entirely to abandon their homes, or to sleep in the woods and swamps. Rapine, outrage and murder, became so common, as to interrupt the free intercourse between one place and another. That security and protection, which individuals expect by entering into civil society, ceased almost totally. Matters remained in this situation for the greatest part of a year after the surrender of Charleston.

In drawing the characters of some individuals, we think the author discovers a degree of prejudice; but he seems, in general, to give a fair representation of public transactions, and the narrative is written in a clear and unaffected style.

An Address to the Deist: or, an Inquiry into the Character of the Author of the Book of Revelation. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

THIS very able and intelligent author marches fearlessly to the trenches of the Deist, and challenges him to contend on ground which has been distrusted as dangerous, or avoided as fallacious. He is contented to draw his proofs of Christianity from a book which many (and, indeed, we have been of the number), touch with a timid hand, and look on with distant awe:

‘The following question therefore is well worth the discussion, and his (the Deist’s) most serious consideration; viz. Whether the book of Revelation is (what it claims to be) the work of divine inspiration; or (what the Deist would have it to be) the offspring of enthusiasm or imposture?’

Now

‘Now common sense tells us, that where we cannot arrive at certainty, we ought, if we mean to act as reasonable creatures, to be content with probability. And indeed human actions in every part of common life, where common sense prevails, are invariably influenced this way: I should therefore hope, that if in the following observations it should be made appear the Deist has espoused the most improbable side of the question, he will have the honesty and the resolution to quit it, and come over to the other; even though the consequence should be his belief of Christianity.’

The author then states, that if this book be not of divine revelation, it must have been the work of an impostor or an enthusiast. Either supposition is improbable, as there could have been no sufficient motive for imposition; and the work, at the time when it was written, was too highly valued to be supposed the offspring of enthusiasm. The same opinion is also well supported by extracts from the first four chapters, chap. xiv. xv. xix. and xxi. and observations on different passages, tending to show, that the language of this work is neither characteristic of one or the other.

The second part is designed to prove, that this book is really prophetic, from the coincidence of various events with the predictions contained in it. The predictions drawn from the first trumpet, for instance, are clearly connected with the imposture of Mahomet; the ravages and manners of the Saracens; those contained in the description of the sixth trumpet are fulfilled by the destruction of the eastern Roman empire, and Greek church, by the Turks; while the beast with seven heads and ten horns is obviously descriptive of Popery. These passages are particularly examined; the author recapitulates the argument, states it with much force, and shows the Deist and the Sceptic, that there is really great danger in unbelief. There is much slight skirmishing in these attacks; but there is so much real knowledge, such a clear understanding of the subject, as must render the author a very formidable antagonist. The notes are judicious illustrations of some passages which seemed particularly to require it.

The Appendix attacks Mr. Hume’s great argument ‘experience,’ and his assertion, that no evidence can establish a miracle, unless the falsehood of it be still more miraculous. We shall conclude with a short specimen from the Appendix:

‘And here it may not be improper to repeat again, that neither Celsus, Julian, nor Porphyry denied the miracles recorded in the Gospels; though they ascribed them indeed to magic.

‘Unpleasing as this piece of history may be to the Deist, or however unwilling he may be to press it close, I think if he has any regard to the propriety of his *creed*, he will do well not to turn from it, with a disdainful indifference, as a matter beneath his consideration. I leave it to his ingenuity to reconcile his rejecting the whole account of miracles with so easy an air, with

with the belief of them by such learned and noted enemies of Christianity. There appears to me no other way of his getting rid of this difficulty but by denying the fact. This however is rather dangerous. For where will he fly to next, if he should be driven from this hold—if it should be made appear, on the issue of the trial, that there is reason to believe the fact? Alas! what a situation is this of a Deist? on how many sides is he hard pressed! and at best, what a comfortless state it is. If Christianity is an imposture, what will be his gain? If it is a serious truth, what may not be his loss?

The Conversion, the Practice of St. Paul, and the Prayer of Jabez, considered. By the rev. Daniel Turner, A. M. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Cadell.

THE Conversion and the Practice of St. Paul form the first subject of consideration in this ingenious miscellany. It is taken from that part of the Apostle's reply to Tertullus, where he professes to exercise himself, to have always a conscience void of offence towards God and towards men. Mr. Turner considers the circumstances of St. Paul's conversion, so far as they contribute to the support of the Christian religion; and, having brought down the narrative of his life, with the reflections which it furnishes to the period mentioned, he considers this passage of his defence. Our author explains the operations of this silent monitor, with great propriety, and adds the necessary directions, to keep the conscience void of offence. One passage only seems to us a little reprehensible, as it raises the indispensable duty of faith into the only duty. The loaded conscience, besides a faith in Christ, will find consolation in reflecting on a genuine repentance, and an active change of the course of life which has contributed to its burthen. We shall, however, transcribe the passage, which is, perhaps inadvertently, put into too strong and too unconnected a point of view.

'To prevent or get rid of this, there is but one way. Conscience must have satisfaction from some solid source, or it will torment. Fly to the gospel, trust in the Saviour's name and merits: it is here where the wearied dove may find the olive of peace. Hence of enemies we become sons, and if sons, then may we both expect and challenge, not only careful provision, and safe protection on earth, but an everlasting patrimony above. By the shedding of blood is the remission of sins, and upon remission follows reconciliation, and on reconciliation peace. After this should conscience alarm, bring forth the acquittance signed in blood, and sealed from heaven upon thy faith and virtue; straightway shalt thou see the fierce and terrible look of thy conscience changed into friendly smiles: and that rough and violent hand, which was ready to drag thee to prison, shall tenderly uphold thee, and fight for thee against every adversary.'

In other respects, the Sermon is plain and practical, and deserves our commendation.

The second Sermon is on the prayer of Jabez, from 1 Chron. iv. 9, 10. 'And Jabez was more honourable than his brethren: and his mother called his name Jabez, saying, Because I bare him with sorrow. And Jabez called on the God of Israel, saying, Oh, that thou wouldest bless me indeed, and enlarge my coast, and that thine hand might be with me, and that thou wouldest keep me from evil, that it may not grieve me. And God granted him that which he requested.' In this Sermon, our author shows the state of mind with which prayers should be offered, and particularly explains the prayer of Jabez, which is simple, comprehensive, and pious. In the former part, the preacher's animation would be suspected, by some, to border a little on enthusiasm. The allusion to Themistocles' carrying his son in his arms, is undoubtedly carried too far into the regions of fancy.

Devotional Exercises, for the morning and evening of each day of the week, follow, in which, with much spirit and animation, with true piety, and a Christian resignation, we perceive the fault already alluded to. Indeed, when the imagination is once permitted to soar, it will soon attain a complete empire.

The Sermon preached before the society of free masons is on Micah vi. 8. 'He hath shewed thee, O man, what is good: and what doth the Lord require of thee. but to do justly, and to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God.' Its great object is to explain the moral and religious duties; it is an excellent one; and the defence of masonry, though abruptly introduced, and pursued seemingly in haste, contains some good, and, we believe, just remarks. Yet, on the whole, we have been usually best pleased with those masonic sermons, which point out the advantages of fraternal union, and the connection of the benevolence and affection, which characterize masonry, with the spirit and tenets of the gospel of Christ. At last, Mr. Turner falls, for a few lines, into the language of the Society, which generally appears to us disgusting, and sometimes impious. He has stepped over this, perhaps necessary part of his task, with much rapidity.

The Ode to Masonry, in many of its parts, does not rise superior to the numerous odes of this kind which we have seen. The following air is, however, better than the rest; and, though not above exception, deserves to be transcribed.

' Unfinish'd still the great intent,
Once more the Almighty word was sent,
To fill the wond'rous plan:
The new form'd dust in majesty arose,
And in his Maker's image glows,
Prince of creation, man.'

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Histoire de la Société Royale de Médecine Années 1782 and 1783, avec les Mémoires de Médecine & de Physique Médicale pour les mêmes Années. 4to. Paris.

AS, at this æra, it is necessary to establish a fixed rule for examining these volumes, which may unite the fullest information with the indispensable conciseness, after some reflection, we have determined to transcribe only the new questions from the History of the Society; for, in the subsequent volumes, the most important Essays, which have obtained the prize, usually occur in the Memoirs, where we meet with the author's name.

The first new prize is for the following question:—To determine the Cause of the Disposition to Calculi and other analogous affections, to which children are subject; whether they depend on any defects of ossification, and what are the means of preventing them, or stopping their progress? 2dly, To determine what are the precautions with respect to the temperature of the season, and the nature of the climate necessary to preserve the health of troops in winter quarters, after a campaign; and to prevent the epidemics with which they are then attacked. 3dly, To determine the characters of nervous diseases; such as hysteria and hypochondriasis, and the distinction between them and melancholy: what are their principal causes and general indications? 4thly, To determine, by a comparative examination, the physical and chemical properties of the milk of women, goats, asses, ewes, and cows. 5thly, To decide in what species, and in what periods of chronical diseases, fever may be useful or dangerous; and with what precautions it may be excited or moderated, in their treatment. The Eloges are those of M. M. Lorry, Girod, Macquer, Targioni Tozzetti, Spielman, Cuffon, Bergman *, and Van Doeveren. A short account is added of some of the French associates, who died during these years. A pretty full list, and a somewhat partial account of works published by members of the Society, next follow.

The meteorological observations are abridged by P. Cotte; but we can only examine the general results. Of so many facts, it is not easy to give a short view: we shall select some of the most important consequences. The year 1782 was cold and moist: the premature heat of January was succeeded by a sharp and cutting cold in February; and the following months, particularly May and August, were very cold and moist. The heat of July was considerable, but of short duration. Winter succeeded immediately to summer, and concluded the year. The winter and spring of the following year were very moist and

* Bergman is said, in this Eloge, to have left some valuable manuscripts. Why are they not published? and why are not his other works collected & damp?

damp: the summer was over-cast with dry mists, and the cold of winter was piercing. This was the year of the devastations in Calabria; and earthquakes were not uncommon in other parts of Europe. Storms and fiery meteors were unusually frequent. In 1782, the new moon influenced the cold, and the full moon the heat. The highest elevations of the barometer coincided with them: the depressions were at the quarters. In 1783, the moon seemed not to have the same influence. The least heats were at the full moon; and the greatest in the intervals. The greatest elevation of the barometer coincided with the descending equinoxial, the least with the northern lunestice.

In the department of the Practice of Medicine, there are observations by M. Desperriers, on two cases of St. Vitus' Dance, which, after many things had failed, were cured, the first by four drachms, the second by three drachms of camphor in a glyster; or rather, as we suspect, divided into two glysters. The second patient, however, lay in a kind of stupor for near ten weeks. This was a bold practice, and we believe that it may be advantageously imitated, though it should be imitated with caution. The glysters were injected every four hours.

The second observation is by M. Tessier, on a hernia, which occasioned the loss of a portion of the intestine. It does not appear that any portion of the *continued* canal was evacuated, but only that side of the intestine next the wound. The gut was undoubtedly contracted in its diameter, for the man was subject to frequent colics, which were relieved by glysters; but they gradually went off, and the gut seemed capable of distention again.

Some remarks follow on palsy of the lower extremities, and of one side. These were greatly relieved by a strong tincture of cantharides, used as a lotion on the affected parts, and to the spine (cantharid. pulv. semiuncia ad aq. vitæ sesquilibrium.) Tincture of cantharides was taken internally, but in a moderate dose, and seemingly without any benefit. Blisters, the authors (M. Hallé and M. Vic d'Azyr) think more transitory in their effects, and often injurious in old debilitated constitutions, by the excess of the discharge.—At the end of this history, some proposed objects of enquiry are subjoined, particularly how far medicine, not usually employed externally, may be efficacious in consequence of absorption from the skin, particularly aperients, and dissolvents of the soapy kind. These academicians add another case, from the Memoirs of the same author, M. Chevillard, viz. of puerperal fever of the chronic kind. The successful remedy was repeated doses of ipecacuanha. The woman had been nursing so long, that she was again with child, when she was attacked with a double tertian, and her breast inflamed. On the application of a poultice, the inflammation suddenly subsided, and the belly swelled, the urine was suppressed; stools were few, and faintings ensued. We suspect

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that

that the case is not fairly told ; at any rate, the disease was very different from the puerperal fever, and the metastasis of the milk is seemingly imaginary *.

In the department of Chemistry and Materia Medica there are observations on some of the medical properties of camphor, by the elder M. Laffonne. They are truly valuable ; and the greater part we can confirm from experience. In moderate and repeated doses, it is an efficacious sedative, and particularly relieves inflammations, and too great sensibility of the bladder. It corrects some of the inconveniences of opium, and is particularly useful, when joined with it, in cancerous and malignant ulcers, for opium alone renders the discharge more copious and sanious : it moderates the operation of drastics, and assists the effects of mercury, particularly when united with Plummer's pill, in chronic eruptions, or venereal complaints, and adds to the febrifuge and antiseptic virtues of the bark.

The next essay in the materia medica is in the effects of the calcareous sea-salt, by M. Fourcroy. He contends, that to this ingredient of sea-water, its chief virtues are owing ; for, when deprived of it, sea-water is very slightly laxative. He teaches us how to prepare it in the greatest perfection, and recommends it as a powerful dissolvent in scrophula, tabes mesenterica, obstructions in the viscera of adults, and lymphatic tumours in the joints. He suspects also, that it may be useful in humid asthma, dropsies in the early state ; for, notwithstanding its bitterness and acrimony, it does not excite thirst or pain in the stomach, but produces a flow of urine. It has procured the evacuation of tæniæ and lumbrici, and removed the faulting of the voice, after some slight attacks of apoplexy. From twelve to twenty-four grains in a day are given to children, and a drachm to adults : in these doses, it produces some evacuation ; and, beyond these quantities, it is purgative. The doses should be small, for it easily produces nausea, and they should be given in distilled water, since the salt is easily decomposed, even by vegetable decoctions. Externally, it appears to be a dissolvent ; but inferior, in its effects on lymphatic concretions, to the volatile alkali fluor. We have given M. Fourcroy's observations at some length ; but we suspect that he has attributed too much to his remedy.

In the class of Natural History and Botany there is an extract from a valuable memoir of M. Cusson, on umbelliferous plants. This author thought, that the stamina and pistils were too uniform to furnish the distinctions of genera, and proposes

* At the moment of writing this, we saw an instance almost exactly similar, and differing only in degree, in a woman three months after lying in. The suppression of urine and stools had been removed, and we can now add, that a little bark, with the camphor, were alone sufficient for the cure. The woman had, however, laboured under a tertian the whole time of pregnancy. The suppression of the milk came on with a febrile attack, in consequence of fatigue : pætechiz also attended.

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that these should be taken from the seeds. He has examined them with great care, and described them with accuracy. So far as we can perceive too, this arrangement will not greatly disturb the genera already established. The new ones, particularly those composed of the newly discovered plants, will be better defined, more natural, and correct. He avoids the opposite extremes of Linnæus and Haller, and is inclined to adopt the forms of the involucria, among the essential characters, when they are particular and constant.

M. Butini's memoir on the *tænia*, with short rings, the solitary worm, as it has been, or the compounded animal as it may be called, is very curious. Our author examined the head of the *tænia* with great care, and thinks it composed of an opaque substance, divided by a transparent one, more flexible and more soft than the former. This may undoubtedly admit of a little lateral motion of the segments; but we cannot allow, with our author, that there actually is such a motion. The nicest attention could not discover a mouth; so that, in the head of this animal, there is neither nose, eyes, ears, nor mouth; but in this part is the power of attachment and reproduction: in this the will and the determination reside; for, when all the rings are discharged, if the head and neck remain, the animal appears again: if in a living state (the experiment has been tried in a dog) it is taken from the intestine, it escapes from the fingers, and again endeavours to fix on it. Each ring is, in reality, found to have a mouth, and a little protuberance, from which a kind of proboscis issues, and with which it sucks. Each ring has also intestines of different kinds, analogous to the small and the large intestines in man, an anus and a valve, to prevent the regurgitation of feculent matter. The rings are subject to decay, and are again capable of being renewed from the corpuscles of the neck; and we suspect, that the corpuscles, described at the bottom of each ring, are capable of producing a succeeding one. We know not how far a *tænia* may, in this way, extend.

On the subject of Anatomy, M. Vic d'Azyr gives a most surprising relation of a horn growing from the head of a shoe-maker, 39 years old, between the right eye and right ear. In 1784 he cut himself in shaving that part. A very thin soft cicatrice soon covered the wound, which at first bled a little. Eight days after, he wounded the same part in the same operation: no blood followed; but a little hard sharp excrescence was soon perceived, whose size increased half an inch in two months. Its present form (unfortunately the date of the letter is omitted) is conical: the horn is not quite straight, but a little twisted. The diameter of the base is an inch and one-fifth nearly. Its circumference is irregular; but, as it arises from the skin, it is three inches and $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch. The whole length is three inches, and the diameter about the middle of its length is $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch nearly. Its circumference there is less rough than

at the base. Near the base is a furrow produced by a thread tied round, without success, to remove it. The point is soft, and at about $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch from it, there is a slight wound, produced by a former attempt to tie it.—It rises from an evident protuberance, is furnished with numerous vessels, and is extremely sensible. Its substance is striated and horny, like warts or corns. The pain, when touched, is very acute; and the slightest touch, on the hairy scalp, is soon felt in the excrescence. It is suspected, that the base adheres to the periosteum or the bone.

M. l'Aumonier relates a very extraordinary case. A woman came to the hospital at Rouen, about five or six weeks after lying in, with a hectic fever, tense and tumid abdomen, without milk, and extremely weak. A hard tumour was felt on one side; and it seemed to be the ovarium. This enterprising surgeon opened the integuments, evacuated the pus, extirpated the ovarium, and the patient recovered. In the language of the French surgeons, it is styled a milky deposition on the Fallopian tube. One remarkable fact occurred during the cure. The catamenia came on, and, at their first appearance, the dressings were tinged with blood. Do the Fallopian tubes furnish any part of this discharge? Or, at that period, is the whole uterine system turgid? The fact must remain unexplained. The success of this operation, though M. l'Aumonier seems not to be aware of it, evidently depended on the adhesion of the intestines to the peritonæum, in consequence of the previous inflammation.—That it existed is evident, because our author attempted, imprudently, to destroy it; and that it prevented the access of the air to the cavity of the peritonæum, which every English surgeon knows would be highly injurious, is equally certain.

M. Marquart read a memoir on the treatment of the virulent gonorrhœa, which is to be published entire. His method consists of very frequent injections of the juice of liquorice, in the proportion of a drachm to two ounces of water. After the general remedies have been employed, he gives, in the space of four or five days, ten or twelve glysters, with about a grain of corrosive sublimate in each, with due allowance for the difference of age, constitution, &c.

We cannot, in this article, give any account of the memoirs as we intended; for they are so curious and important, that they would lead us too far. We have extended our account of this volume, because it is so little known in England, and its contents are of the greatest consequence to science.

Commentaire sur la Loi des Douze Tables par M. Bouchaud Professeur Royal du Droit de la Nature & des Gens, Paris.

THE civil law has so intimate a connection with the laws of France, that this admirable 'Commentary on the Law of the Twelve Tables' is peculiarly adapted to that kingdom; and it is with

with more propriety noticed at present; as, in our review of Mr. Gibbon's new volumes, we must necessarily be concise on the subject of Roman jurisprudence. M. Bouchaud dedicates his work to the king, and he tells him, 'that it is with great propriety his majesty is now considering a new plan of study, by which means, the Roman and the French system will be more carefully brought to resemble each other.' Whether our neighbours will have reason to congratulate themselves on this change, will be more evident, after we have examined our author's account of this system, which has been for so many ages lost, though it has been the acknowledged foundation of the civil law.

Our author's public office induced him to publish this corner-stone of the Roman system. The most modern and the ablest lawyers have earnestly joined the scholars and philosophers of the first rank, in collecting the fragments of the Twelve Tables, and in illustrating them, since they are considered as the precious remains of a system, borrowed in part from the wisest legislators of Greece. Though they have done much, they have not done all. Some clouds are still to be dissipated; and in this vast field of erudition there are still some valuable gleanings; even M. Bouchaud will leave a little for his successor.

In the preliminary discourse he discusses different points of history, antiquity, and criticism, connected with the relic which is the principal object of his labours. The questions which he examines, are the following:—From what cities of Greece did the Romans borrow this law? Were the laws of the Roman kings, and the ancient customs of the Romans, inserted in it? Is its origin to be traced to the law of Moses? Is it possible, or indeed is it useful, to recover its old language? He distinguishes the genuine fragments of this law from those which have been improperly attributed to it; and shows that, notwithstanding the extreme rigour of some parts, it is in general distinguishable for its wisdom and justice.

Those who examine the Roman law, in its full vigour, may reject the consideration of the state of its first shoots. Yet the old laws are objects of curiosity and utility; we trace their influence in the newer system, and they throw light on the spirit of the subsequent institutions, and explain the reason of the varieties or additions which occur in them. Whatever changes time and a variation of manners might have produced, the Romans always respected the old stock, and kept its spirit and its designs in view. Besides, the law of the Twelve Tables illustrates different passages of poets and historians, who allude to many of its injunctions. Justinian, in the preface to the Institutes, has observed that, from this work, students are to draw their knowledge of jurisprudence, and not from antiquated fables; and this term has always disturbed the admirers of the Twelve Tables, as it has been supposed that the first code was alluded to by it. M. Bouchaud is persuaded, that he could not despise the source from which he had drawn so much, and asks, with some indignation, 'how could he treat as a

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fable, a law, by which it was necessary to ascertain what was a *legitimate* tutor, succession, space, and a hundred other things of the same kind? A law which is constantly invoked; whose spirit and letter are so much respected, that lawyers are scrupulous of deciding against any of its injunctions; a law for which, if we may believe Aeron, the Romans had so great a respect, as if the Muses themselves had dictated it from the Albanian mount.

Our author takes notice of Godefroy's list of the interpreters of the law of the Twelve Tables, and thinks that the person whom he calls Lælius should be styled, according to Aulus Gellius, L. Ælius. He was the author who interpreted the word *leffus*, by mournful cries. Godefroy's merit, in elucidating this old law, and enumerating the list of commentators, is generally acknowledged; but our author thinks that some errors have escaped him. He thought that the *jus prædatorium* was the right of the public funds. M. Bouchaud, with many other critics, understands it to be the right, in virtue of which the public funds were mortgaged to the treasury by way of security. He is wrong also, in our author's opinion, on the subject of *fratres aruales*, which he interprets judges on the differences arising from the limits of the fields. The object of this institution was a religious one; and the brothers were to sacrifice to the gods, that the fields might abound with fruit. These feasts were styled *Amburuales*.

The law of the Twelve Tables has often been reproached with a barbarity which has shocked humanity, particularly relating to debtors. We shall extract, therefore, a little more exactly, what M. Bouchaud thinks on this subject, premising only the outline of the old law. It first orders, that thirty days delay shall be granted to the person who acknowledges himself the debtor of another, and who, by the sentence of the judge, is legally condemned to pay the debt. He is then to be seized, dragged before the judge, that he may be carried by authority to the house of the debtor; and if the debt is not discharged, that he may be loaded with irons of fifteen pounds weight, or lighter ones, if the creditor pleases, that the prisoner may not be prevented from working. In this state the debtor may live at his own expence, if he chuses it; otherwise the creditor must allow him a pound of meal, or more, if it is agreeable to himself. Within a limited time, the debtor may compound with his creditor: if he does not, he is to be kept in chains sixty days; to be taken out of prison three public market-days following, and conducted to the prætor, where the serjeant shall proclaim with a loud voice, the amount of the sum, for which he is condemned, *Postea de capite addicti pœnas sumito, aut si volet, ultra Tibesim peregrè venum dato. At si pluribus addictis sit, tertiis nundinis secanto: si plus minusve secuerint, sine fraude esto.* — Literally: Afterwards he may take the debtor's life; or, if he pleases, sell him in some foreign country, beyond the Tyber, If he is indebted to different persons, they may divide him on the third market-day; if they cut more or less, let it be without fraud. The first part of this clause, some interpret that the debtor

debtor must pay the interest on the capital : but neither classical authority, or the tenor of the law, admit of this interpretation. It undoubtedly gave the life of the obstinate creditor, or some compensation, by the sale of his liberty. Hoffman and Bouchaud think, that *caput* signifies liberty, and that *de capite pœnas sumere*, &c. signifies, deprive him of his liberty at home, or sell him abroad ; but authorities are wanting for this interpretation. The last clause is horrible, whether the debtor is to be cut in pieces on three market-days, or as we have rendered it, on the third. This clause has been softened into a civil division by sale of his person and goods ; and if, on dividing the goods which are afterwards sold, there is a surplus in the hand of any one creditor, beyond the proportion of the debt, in consequence of an advantageous sale, a second distribution is directed to be made : *sine fraude esto*.

Unfortunately there is more humanity than justice in this interpretation, though we have seen it supported by a passage in Cicero's *Tusculan Questions* (II. 53.) *At vero C. Marius, rusticus vir, sed plane vir, cum secaretur, ut supra dixi, principis vetuit se alligari : nec quisquam ante Marium solutus dicitur esse sectus*. Here, says the author ' is an instance of the execution of the punishment, and of the debtor's heroism.' He had caught the passage from an index ; but if he read the whole book, he would have understood the sense better : *secabantur solum modo varices Caio Mario* (II. 35.) yet perhaps we may draw this consequence from it. When Cicero is talking of fortitude in bearing pain, if this punishment had been adopted he might perhaps have produced some instances of heroism that may have occasionally occurred in its execution.

We have a more useful commentary on this passage in Aulus Gellius (XX. 1.) The lawyer Cæcilius undertakes the defence of this clause, against the philosopher Favorinus, who adopted the cruel meaning which the literal interpretation gives it. He does not, however, deny the meaning : it was designed, says he, for that reason, that it should never be put in execution ; and ' I never heard or read, adds he, in any old record, of a debtor's being dissected.' This must have been a traditionary account ; for Aulus Gellius lived in the second century. Machiavel's directions to an usurper, in his 'Prince' are of a similar kind ; we quote from memory. To reign safely, you must cut off the whole house, and the most distant branch ; nay, if you hear only of any person of the same name, you are no longer safe while he lives.—Is not this indirectly saying, that an usurper can never reign in safety. But to return—Tertullian and Quinilian, who mention this law, consider it also as a liberal statute ; and even our author, when treating of existing laws become obsolete, speaks of this among the rest ; so that he is not very consistent in explaining it in a metaphorical sense. If we consider the state of the Roman manners at that time, we shall not expect much humanity from their decisions ; and if we reflect on the policy which dictated many

many of the institutions, we shall see some little foundation for this threatened cruelty. In the original constitutions, the votes were accumulated in men of great property. The first class of Romans, for instance, those who possessed 100,000 asses, had ninety-eight votes, though all the inferior classes together, six in number, had only ninety-five. While the custom of giving the suffrages in public remained, this law gave, of course, an Aristocracy to the men possessed of money; and while the law was so severe, no debtor could refuse his creditor what he demanded. It seems, therefore, evidently intended as a state-engine, to compel the subordination of the poorer sort, who were all probably in some degree debtors. It spoke daggers, though it used none: but these daggers were harmless, when the tribunes had substituted tribes to centuries, and a secret ballot to an open declaration of the vote. The law then had no object, and it became obsolete and of little importance; for the pound of flesh would have been of as little use to the consul as to Shylock.

There is another passage in the Roman law which has greatly puzzled and divided the interpreters,—the search after a robbery, *cum lance & licio*. M. Bouchaud examines the various interpretations with great learning and sagacity; but we shall transcribe his own opinion. ‘When the proprietor of any thing stolen, says he, had obtained permission of the magistrate to pursue it per *lancem & licium*, he, or more probably, the lictor, entered the suspected house; but for fear of those tricks, which were but too frequent, and that the innocent might not suffer; or rather, lest perhaps the person who enquired should have worse views than detecting the robbery; or that the inquisitor might be more active, he was covered only with a kind of petticoat, called *licium*. He also carried a bason, in which the stolen goods were placed, if they could be put in a bason, and publicly conveyed to the Forum. But the principal use of this bason (*lanx*) was to carry the magistrates’ permission to examine, or, in more modern language, the search-warrant. It might be supposed that this permission was called *fides*, as the word occurs in Petronius; but some interpreters give a very different sense to this term. The passage in this author, is the following: *Afcyltos stabat amictus discoloria veste, atq. in lance argentea indicium et fidem præferēbat*. From this it is inferred, that the bason served also to carry the sum of money promised to him who gave the information; this is the signification of the word *indiciū*, which, in the passage of Petronius, means a thousand pieces of silver. In other respects, this custom might have passed from Athens to Rome: Aristophanes alludes to it in the ‘Clouds.’ Plato speaks of it in his twelfth book de Legibus, a work, where he constantly keeps in view the genuine customs of Greece, and separates those of other nations with great care. Yet it is remarkable, that no Roman work gives us any particular information of this inquest per *lancem & licium*. It was probably explained in an old Roman law-book de Furtis, which if it had remained, would probably have saved us many mistakes.

mistakes. We own that we do not think our author's system very probable; but we have nothing better to offer.

Yet we ought to thank M. Bouchaud for his valuable collection of what all the ancient lawyers have said or supposed, that might contribute to our knowledge of the laws of the Twelve Tables. An immense work, varied and profound disquisitions, and instructive discussions, prevent the reader from turning over the mouldy systems of antiquity. His knowledge of law, criticism, and the classics, are brought in to explain the different subjects; and if we have felt a deficiency, it is that, without a table of contents, we are left to wander in an immense wood without a clue.

Nouveaux Memoirs de l'Academie de Dijon, pour la Partie des Sciences et des Arts: pour l'Année 1785. 8vo. Dijon.

AS it is impossible to examine, at a great length, every work of merit published on the continent, it is necessary to chuse the most important. In our selections for this purpose, we originally considered the Dijon Memoirs as one of these; but we have delayed the account for reasons which we have often alledged; and we make the first use of our extended limits to acquit ourselves of a promise which we, some time since, made. The delay is not indeed wholly ours. The Memoirs are not published very punctually, and we can only receive them, except by accident, after they have reached Paris. Of this collection four volumes have been published, and we believe a fifth is nearly completed; but it is not yet received. They are published in semestres, at the end of every six months, though not always at the end of the six months, which their title implies.

At the beginning of the year which we have chosen to begin our account, we find a kind of history under the title of Historical Information. It is in this volume that the improvement first occurs; and it is designed to contain observations for which the academy could find no room in their volume: we shall give a short account of them.

Mr. Chauffier describes the manner of administering vital air, in diseases of the breast. He has found it useful in a phthisis, following an hæmoptoë. M. Soucelier gives two cases of the advantages derived from the solanum scandens, in rheumatism. A drachm is boiled in a quart of water to a pint; and half of it is taken daily, with an equal portion of cows milk. After some time, it is necessary to make the decoction stronger, in order to promote perspiration. Mess. Morveau, Maret (who is since dead), and Chauffier, next give the analysis of a stone which was supposed to be proper for mill-stones. Though they did not find it of the nature which was represented, they think it may be useful for that purpose. The abbé Boullemier communicated an observation made the 11th of September, 1784, at six in the evening, on a meteor resembling falling stars, which

which appeared about a foot in length, and about eight or nine inches wide, passing from S. S. E. to S. S. W. It was at about six leagues distance; elevated from 25 to 30 degrees; remained 30 or 40 seconds, and disappeared, without explosion. M. Angulo, after a very careful enquiry, found that phosphorus was not decomposed by the dephlogisticated muriatic acid. M. Chauffier froze two pounds of concentrated vitriolic acid, and found that it lost three grains when thawed again. M. de Gouvenain tried water in the same way, in glass vessels hermetically sealed, and found a sensible increase of weight when it was in the state of ice. M. Morveau shewed the academy many curious mineralogical productions, and mentioned various additions which the commissioners of the course of chemistry had made to their demonstrations.

The first memoir is a continuation of an essay in the last volume, by M. Gauthey. It is on the thickness which walls must have to resist the force of earth.

The second is by M. Morveau: it is an enquiry into the natural dissolution of quartz. From a curious experiment of M. Achard, by which he made an artificial rock crystal of great hardness, an experiment that failed indeed in the hands of many chemists, but which would probably succeed in some circumstances, it is probable that the agent was mephitised water. It is evident that this alone will not dissolve many of the ingredients of quartz or precious stones; but M. Morveau proposes to enquire whether, if it dissolves one, it may not become a compound solvent, capable of suspending the rest. After many trials, it appeared pretty certain that mephitic water, dissolving calcareous earth, would dissolve iron; and that together they would take up a minute portion of quartz, which would be found in crystals on the iron. He gives the necessary precautions for the success of this experiment, and seems to entertain no doubt but that it will be in our power to imitate by art, the most beautiful productions of the fossil kingdom.

The third memoir is on an earthquake that happened at Boug, in Bresse, the 15th of October, 1784. It is described with great exactness, and its limits pointed out by M. Riboust. It was not very violent, or attended with any uncommon circumstances. Its centre was in the mountains between Grenoble and Chambery: they contain many metals, and among the rest iron and pyrites, which our author supposes, as in the experiment of Lemery, may ferment and expand. He accumulates all the horrors of the years 1783 and 1784, which, if we examine the whole globe, were not few or inconsiderable, and congratulates the inhabitants of Bresse, that from their situation, *very* near the sea, or in the neighbourhood of volcanos, or of pyritous mines, they cannot be subject to these convulsions in any great degree. We do not, however, rely very greatly on our author's philosophy.

The

The essay on the question, whether sugar enters unchanged in the composition of the saccharine acid, by M. Morveau, we have already mentioned. He decides against it; but since he has acceded to the system of M. Lavoisier, his opinion may be altered.

Observations on a fossil tooth, found at Trevoan, by M. Morveau, are not of great importance. He thinks that it is of the same kind with that found in Peru, and on the Ohio. What must be our reflections, he adds, at finding the same animal in places so distant, and in climates so different!

A memoir of M. Morveau, on the fabrication of utensils in platina follows. The best way of fusing this metal, after various trials, was found to be, to add a pound of platina, as much white calx of arsenic, and twelve ounces of common salt, to four ounces of pot-ash. M. Morveau gives various directions for the success of the experiment. They make excellent chemical vessels for various purposes; but they will not serve to melt metals or nitre. We formerly mentioned some ornamental and useful utensils of this kind; but we apprehend, that they have not all the beauty which their inventors attribute to them, or indeed so much as M. Morveau's vessels are said to possess. The arsenic, in melting, is burnt away, and the mass is without an air-bubble.

M. Carmoy is an advocate for medical electricity. In his 'reflections on electrical commotions, with respect to the human body,' he endeavours to show that electricity is not injurious, and may occasionally be useful. In his experiments on birds, very strong shocks were necessary to kill those of a larger size; and we should undoubtedly avoid similar ones, when used as a remedy, if they are directed through the head. Shocks alter the state of respiration, and are sometimes fatal, he observes, if they pass through the viscera only. Among other remarks a little singular, he says, that it is not always necessary that the diseased part should be in the chain of communication, since the spark is distributed all over the body, and that it is probable the shock acts in the manner of mephitic gasses. He seems, however, to dread this remedy, since he wishes that there were means of carrying off or destroying a too copious stream of electricity. Volatile alkali had no effect. Ducks, struck senseless by electricity, he thinks, recover sooner, by being immersed in water. Heat may have some influence, but flame has more. In fact, after the shock is given, the mischief is done, and it is useless to seek for a remedy in conductors of electricity. The case of an intermittent, with very peculiar symptoms, is related. It was relieved by electricity; but we have some suspicions of imposition in the patient, for the influence of the remedy was very irregular. She was once, however, nearly killed, by an accidental discharge of the battery, when simple electricity was intended.

The next memoir is by M. Baron, on the folle avoine, the *avena sativa* of Linnæus, our bearded oat-grass, the sterile *avenæ* of Virgil. Our author thinks it, with some reason, capable of being propagated by seed, though it more frequently spreads from the roots, and is, in this way, the most troublesome weed with which corn is infested. The best means, in M. Baron's opinion, of preventing this weed, is to chuse carefully the seed of corn; of destroying it, to leave a field two years in fallow, to sow lucerne, or vetches, and pease successively, and cut the last before they come in bloom. In our improved drill husbandry, it is easily eradicated by the hand-hoe.

M. Maret's memoir, in which he 'examines if crude antimony, the antimonial and mercurial æthiops, taken internally, can be dangerous by their decomposition in the *primæ viæ*,' is a very important one. From various experiments he concludes, that the union of the constituent parts of the crude mineral is very weak, and may be destroyed by the least powerful acids; that the antimonial æthiops, prepared by trituration, may be also attacked by acids; but their action is always on the metal: that the æthiops prepared by fire, resists their action more strongly. The mercurial æthiops is not affected by acids; and when prepared by fire, the affinity of its ingredients seems still more strong. These facts will suggest sufficient cautions; but M. Maret adds, that during their use, no mineral acids must be employed, not even dulcified ones.

A memoir by M. Durande 'on the custom of burying the dead' follows. He gives a very correct history of the disposal of the dead in various countries, and the ceremonies of the funerals. He speaks of reputed deaths, and premature burials, with much horror; and concludes, that the bodies should not be buried at all, or not till so long after death, that it is certain no life remains. The account of the English customs, in these respects, is not quite exact.

A meteorological, nosological, and æconomical history of the year 1783, by Mess. Maret and Picardel, is next inserted. The zoological and botanical history concludes the first part. We are sorry that it is not in our power to give any abstract of these articles.

The second semestre begins with 'an examination of a salt, given to a patient, under the name of the sedative salt, with reflections on the danger of selling salts in powder, by any but people of skill'—by M. Morveau. The salt was a badly prepared calomel with a mixture, consequently of corrosive sublimate. An instance is mentioned by this author of calcined alum being sold for soluble tartar.

The next memoir is remarkable. The tower of the hotel of the city of Arras is two hundred and sixty feet in height. It has on the top, a sun of copper gilt, and, by accident from this sun, there is a continued metallic chain, by means of gutters, cielings and galleries, consisting of lead down to the earth. Ma-

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ty of the towers of Arras have been struck with lightning, but this has always escaped, though higher than any other, in consequence of this accidental conductor. M. Buissart has obviated some objections which have been made to the efficacy of this kind of conductor. He shews that, in more than one instance, it has been perceived to conduct the lightning. He gives some account, from the abbé Bertholon, of other natural conductors, viz. mountains of old lavas, or of iron ores, which have, at least, preserved the great church at Spa, by their vicinity; and of some accidental ones, of a similar kind to that at Arras, from a pamphlet of M. de Saussure: these are found at Geneva. There is another, it is said, at Nenschatel; though the column of vapour which arises from the neighbouring lake, may have equally prevented the great church from suffering by lightning. Michaëlis gave, some years ago, good reasons to suppose that the temple of the Jews enjoyed an accidental conductor of this kind, from the descriptions left of its construction, and thought that it was owing to it, that it had never been struck with lightning. There is a supplement to this paper by M. Chauffier, giving a history of conductors in France; the principles of M. Morveau in their construction, and some striking instances of their efficacy.

M. de la Lande's 'considerations on the present state of astronomy,' are very useful. They fix the period of discoveries and establish an æra, from whence other descriptions of the progress may commence. At this time, they offer nothing very new to astronomers, or philosophers.

The next memoir, by M. Durande, is on the wrinkled boletus, and some other plants of this family. It is the boletus rugosus of Linnæus, and was discovered in Burgundy by our author, since the period of his publishing a catalogue of the plants of that province. It was first described by Jacquin, in his *Flora Austriaca*. Our author has also discovered, near Gévrey, the draba airzoides Lin. athamanta cretensis ejusd. and above Velars, the astrantia major Lin. The rest of his dissertation is an examination of the question, whether mushrooms are really plants, arising from seeds. This is now no longer a question; but, in this memoir, we find a valuable abstract of the different opinions.

M. Maret's 'reflections on the inductions, which have been drawn from the death of a young man, which happened forty days after his wounds,' are of some consequence in the science of medicina forensis. If death happens within this period, after wounds, they are considered in many codes as the cause; but M. Maret contends very properly, and illustrates his argument by many examples, that peculiar causes of death, which were not evident, may concur with the wounds; or that, in bad constitutions, the wounds may induce an event which, from their nature, could not be expected, and for which they should not be answerable. Our author's arguments and facts display much judgment and candour, and they deserve very particular attention.

tion. The conclusion chiefly relates to the customs of France, and the proceedings in these cases. M. Maret arraigns them with great justice.

M. Godart's 'reflections on some of the means to prevent contagion,' are more extensive than new. After much reasoning of a very uncertain kind, on a subject where facts have decided, he determines that free air is necessary: that fires in houses contribute to destroy the fumes of contagion, though, in open air, they are of little use. The second and third sections contain many remarks on hospitals and church-yards, which show more of fancy than judgment, and more refinement than wisdom. Some of the remarks indeed deserve attention; but the greater part is of little real utility. The third part relates to the management of beasts, during the epizootics; and contains several reasons to explain, why epidemics, after some continuance, are less virulent than at first.

The next memoir, by M. Maret, is 'on the epidemics which prevailed in Burgundy during the spring of 1785.' These it is impossible to abridge; but there is a very judicious account of an epidemic catarrh, where the practice was decisive and successful.

The following memoir, by the same author, is on the disease of St. John de Pontallier, a kind of typhus with catarrhal affections, cured by emetics, by camphor, and at last by bark. It is attended with considerable pains about the chest; and there seems to have been occasionally an inflammation of the liver.

M. Morveau examines the facts on which the theory of the conversion of iron into steel is founded. He shews that all iron by itself is capable of this change: that the heterogeneous matters, sometimes present in it, may render the change either more easy, or more difficult. He then describes the most successful process, and shows the manufacturer the different experiments of Bergman and Rinman, to explain other methods which may be occasionally substituted; in reality all that determines, and that hinders its production. On this subject we had occasion, in our review of the third volume of Bergman's essays, to enlarge. M. Morveau adds little to what has been formerly discovered, and wishes to wait for farther experiments, before he attempts to explain the principles of the change.

A journal of the observations on the barometer, which M. Lavoisier presented to the academy, by M. Picardet, next follows. It is continued from August to December.—Its range was from twenty-seven inches nine lines eight tenths to twenty-six inches seven lines nine tenths.

The continuation of the meteorological register we must omit: it would lead us too far, though we hope to be able to make some extracts from this part of a future volume. The continuation of M. Picardet's register we can only at this time mention. As soon as we receive the succeeding volume, we hope to give some account of it; and as from our more extensive range we shall probably be less burthened with numerous claims, we hope also to render our account more full and satisfactory.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued, from p. 472.)

WE must now return to the subject of natural philosophy, since we find the novelties in that science most numerous and most important. In this Number we, perhaps, shall only be able to pursue the meteorological researches; but, if they are not too extensive, we shall give some account of subjects pretty intimately connected with them, heat and light.

The controversy between M. de Luc, and M. de Saussure, has been pursued with some illiberality; but the little that we can say of it shall be impartial. In England it has been too common to give an account of the publications on one side only. M. de Saussure remarks, that M. de Luc, signior Chiminello, and Peré Jean Baptiste, have been all inventors of peculiar hygrometers, and enemies to his invention; that it is in justice to M. Paul, the maker of his instrument, that he engages to defend it. He first offers some arguments in favour of his term of extreme moisture; but his method of fixing this point is the most vulnerable part. The hygrometer is designed, he says, to measure the moisture of air, not of water; but this is not exact, for in fogs, the water is almost in its fluid form, and we have remarked that, in fogs on the Alps, M. de Saussure's hygrometer exceeded the extreme point of the scale. On the other hand, when M. de Saussure's instrument is stationary, M. de Luc trusts too positively to the certainty of the motion of his own. Our present author pursues the argument in favour of his own instrument; and he alleges, that the formation of dew always takes place when the instrument points at 98 or 99; so that 100 must be the extreme point. This part of the subject is, therefore, brought to an issue capable of being decided, though the former fact must stand a little in the way: and we can see a difference between a fog, and a dew beginning only to fall. The difference of M. de Luc's experiment is accounted for from the different nature of whalebone, which, in consequence of its great proportion of mucilage, admits of a relaxation in consequence of its solution, beyond what the mere elongation of its fibres would warrant. Our author supports this opinion with some just remarks; and from this source explains why M. de Luc's hygrometer admits of such irregular variations. The point of extreme dryness, as fixed by M. de Luc, in M. de Saussure's opinion, is somewhat doubtful; and he seems to think, that the method adopted by his antagonist was suggested by his mode of determining it. The retrogradation, which M. de Luc remarked, arose either from the imperfection of the instrument, or some injury which it had received: the latter is rendered very probable. Some decisive experiments are then proposed; and our author claims M. de Luc's theory of evaporation, and his principles of hygrometrical affinities. The first part of M. de

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Saussure's remarks concludes with the defence of the motion of his hygrometer in rarefied air; and this defence we think very satisfactory.

To this memoir we have *seen* no reply: the answer of M. de Luc, which we have read, is directed against some objections of M. de Saussure, in a French journal, and relate rather to the journey to Mount Blanc than to this letter, though there are many remarks on the hair-hygrometer, and objections not the most liberal: indeed, the controversy begins to grow a little acrimonious; but we shall follow it as soon as we can.

The next author who opposed M. de Saussure is signior Chiminello, assistant astronomer at Padua, who received the prize given by the meteorological society at Manheim, for the best comparative hygrometer. His instrument is the tube of a goose-quill, filled with mercury. Its extreme points are determined by immersing it in water, and keeping for four hours before a moderate fire. The objections are to the expence of a complicated instrument; to the uncertainty of preparing the hair; to the uncertainty of the points of extreme moisture and dryness, and to the inconveniency of the process for determining these points; to the weight which opposes the contraction of the hair; to the irregularity of the progress of different hygrometers; to the danger of its being injured by dust and cobwebs; to the limited extent of the scale; and to the rules for determining the absolute quantity of vapours in the atmosphere, while the attention should be directed only to the moisture and dryness which the air exhibits; and to the variable nature of hair. Some of these objections have undoubtedly weight; and M. de Saussure endeavours to diminish them; others are trifling, and answered satisfactorily.

P. Jean Baptiste is capuchin of the convent of St. Martin at Vicence. His hygrometer differs from that of M. de Saussure only in the substance, which is gold-beater's skin, usually made, we believe, of the nervous coat of the intestines of a bullock, or the internal membrane of the bladder. The hair, he says, is too small; the instrument too complicated and expensive; while the skin admits of a greater extent of variation. The chief answers are short: to render the instrument less complicated, the principal parts, which contribute to its accuracy, are taken away by the ecclesiastic; and, in his eagerness for publishing, he has not waited to see whether the first and most necessary part of his instrument is durable. On the whole, we have not seen any very great or formidable objection to our author's hygrometer. We think it, for various reasons, the best that has been hitherto invented; but it is by no means perfect, for the science is yet in its infancy. Many objections may arise, which cannot be, at present, foreseen; and it will reflect no discredit on the philosopher who shall adopt it, if in some future time inconveniencies are discovered, and prevented by substituting either ivory, whalebone, goose-quills, or any other body.

The

The electricity of the atmosphere, and its effects, though discovered more lately, are better understood. Electricity acts silently some very important parts; and we owe to it some of the greatest advantages which we enjoy. It was not surprising that philosophers, astonished at its extraordinary appearances, should attribute to it more offices than it really possessed. We have begun to reform their excentric fancies; and M. Ingenhoufz has, very lately, contributed his share towards the reformation. We mean not to say, that his arguments are decisive; though they are important: the subject must be farther examined; but he has made some useful discoveries.

Nothing was, for a long period, allowed to be more certain, than that electricity accelerated the progress of vegetation. Our author, with M. Schwankhard, made some experiments on the subject; and, as his enquiries into the effects of light and other circumstances, on vegetation, made him unusually acute in perceiving changes, and attributing them to their proper causes, he found that, in situations perfectly similar, electricity had no effect. He examines the most decisive experiments, in Gardini's Prize Dissertation, on the effects of the electricity of the atmosphere on vegetation; in the abbé Bertholon's treatise on the electricity of vegetables, and in the same author's very late work on the electricity of meteors: he finds, that they are incomplete in themselves, and contradictory to each other. His own experiments are also added; and they seem to show, that electricity has, in reality, no effect in promoting vegetation. Every one must have observed that, after thunder-storms, every thing seems to thrive and look more gay. It is true; but somewhat is borrowed from our own feelings, for we are often relieved from languor and oppression by these convulsions; and much, we believe, is owing to the rain, since long drought usually precedes. There is one argument seemingly decisive; if electricity is the stimulus of vegetables, the exciting cause of vegetation; the opposite electricity, whatever it be, must have a contrary effect: but this no experiments have pointed out. If it be alleged, that it is the passage of the fluid through the plant either way, which produces the change, it is pretty well known, that this must be regular and constant, since all plants that contain moisture are conductors. In our Intelligence, Vol. lxiii. p. 379. we mentioned M. Ingenhoufz's experiments on the mimosa, designed to show, that the electricity acts not as a peculiar fluid, but by its mechanical impulse on that irritable vegetable.

As we have mentioned the abbé Bertholon's 'Electricity of Meteors,' we shall give a short account of it, intending to reserve a more full criticism, if it shall be ever in our power to resume the subject: with increasing avocations, though with less disproportionate limits we cannot, however, engage for too much. This work was published about the latter end of last year, in two volumes octavo. It treats of natural electricity in general, and the various electrical phenomena, which have been recorded before

electricity had a name. He then proceeds to the meteors, which he divides into the fiery, the watery, the aerial, and luminous. The phenomena of thunder, and the experiments designed to prove that its cause is electrical, engage much of his attention. The abbé Bertholon claims the discovery of the ascending thunder. Lord Stanhope's returning stroke is a peculiar kind of it, observable only in particular circumstances. Buffon, whose loss we have lately had reason to regret, and to whose memory we hope to offer some tribute, paid our author the highest compliments on this discovery. M. Gueneau de Montbeliard, M. d'Alembert, and many other philosophers, joined in the applause. On the subject of conductors he is very copious, and gives several instances, where they have been completely successful on buildings repeatedly destroyed, before, by lightning. Volcanoes and earthquakes are, in his opinion, electrical phenomena also; and he proposes other conductors * to carry off the superabundant matter to the clouds. The more partial appearance of meteors in the air, and the aurora borealis, are also noticed in this work, and are supposed to depend on electricity. The watery meteors are, clouds, fogs, dews, rains, &c. which are connected with our author's favourite subject, and explained on its principles. Whirlwinds, hurricanes, water-spouts, and winds, are electrical phenomena; and M. Bertholon adds one other kind of wind, the gaseous, or that which arises from 'effervescences and fermentations, in consequence of heat and fire in the earth.' The electrical winds are owing, in his opinion, to the friction of currents of electrified air against others that are not electrified, or the friction of air against electrics *per se*. The aerial meteors are, the various halos, parheliæ, rainbows, &c. which are explained on the general principle. The instruments necessary for atmospherical electricity are described, and a comparison between electricity and magnetism, in the way of experiment, is subjoined.

An instance of lord Stanhope's returning stroke occurred last summer at Tancon, a village in Beaujolais. The relator, the marquis de Victry, was not aware of the principle, or the peculiar cause of the fact. Two men stood under a tree, in a thunder-storm: one was killed; the other was struck senseless, and remained so for some time. Two holes were made in the ground near them, in the shape of a funnel whose end was downwards, and a circle of iron which one had on his shoe, as well as the hair and some fragments of the cloaths of each, were carried to the branches of the tree. The marquis is aware, that the stroke came from the earth; and, from the circumstances, we are confident that it passed through the body of the man who was killed, before it reached the tree. But, the remarkable fact, which renders it of importance to lord Stanhope's system, we shall translate. 'I forgot to tell you, that a few moments before the

* Para-tremblemens,---conductors of earthquakes.

stroke, when the sound was short and dull (bref & sourd) a clap was heard, 'excessively smart.' (excessivement eclatant.)

The utility of conductors has induced many electricians to enquire, how they may be rendered more cheap and simple in their construction. Among the rest M. Geanty, of cape François, in St. Domingo, proposes twisting wires, and inserting them in the groove of a staff, which is to be raised in the air above the adjoining buildings. One extremity is to be covered with silver leaf, and the other end to be sunk into the earth, at some distance from the foundation. It has been suggested that wire, from its size, is not capable of carrying off a stroke of thunder; and that, as metals conduct by their surfaces, the rust would soon destroy their utility; or, if varnished, they may prove no longer conductors. To this it has been replied, that varnish does not destroy the conducting powers; for that a rod discharges the electricity only by its surface, but that it conducts by its substance. Yet it is at the same time acknowledged, that it is highly advantageous to increase the surface of a conductor. The instrument of M. Geanty is undoubtedly erroneous from the smallness of its wires; but if they were somewhat increased in size, the form of his instrument would be very advantageous; and then the wires may be of copper, without great expence. Before we leave this author, we ought to observe, that he has found the electrical machine act very well in the Windward and Leeward Islands, though it has been supposed that electricity could not be collected in the torrid zone, as the machine is not powerful in our hottest summer days. At St. Domingo, indeed, with a north-east wind the machine is useless; but it is on account of the moisture of the air from the Atlantic: with a south-west wind it acts very strongly.

An Italian author, P. Bartholomew Gandolfy, in his *Memoria sulla Cagioni del Tremuoto*, has attributed earthquakes to a very different cause from that which the abbé Bertholon has assigned. They arise, in his opinion, from a certain quantity of water, suddenly changed to the state of vapour. 'Those, says he, who deny that electricity is their principal cause, cannot help allowing, that electricity frequently accompanies terrible earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. We must believe then, that it is at least a consequence of these phenomena, if not a cause. The friction of the solid parts of the earth, and even of the air, may excite electricity in each; and from this may arise the destruction of the equilibrium, the lightning and the thunder. It is not the thunder, for instance, that sets Vesuvius in a flame; but when it is violently agitated, successive claps follow. The thunder could not penetrate the glassy crust of the lava. If we blow strongly into a glass, it will be electrified; and the air may, in this way, electrify the surrounding bodies.' This is the system of the reverend father, who lectures at the Nazarene college; it is enough to mention this revival of an opinion as old

as Thales, who thought water one of the best things in the world, and proved it to be the most destructive.

To finish this meteorological account we shall extract some of the most important parts of M. Prudhomme's description of a whirlwind, which occurred near Bourdeaux, in October last. It was a descending one. The sky, during the whole morning, was covered with rainy clouds; the air was a little agitated, and the wind without any determined direction. On a sudden, the clouds were heaped one on another, as if driven by many winds opposed to each other. Every part of the horizon seemed in motion, at the same time tending to unite in a point. The motion of the clouds gradually increased; and, at some distance from the point of re-union, they fell with inconceivable velocity towards the earth. The centre of this mountain of clouds, which soon assumed the form of a reversed, truncated, cone, was of several colours, and together had a livid appearance. The cone had, on its axis, a very rapid and irregular rotatory motion, from the top to the bottom; and, by this motion, seemed to attract all the clouds of the horizon. A dull bellowing noise, which resulted from it, was soon drowned in the dreadful crash which the destruction of the covering of the houses and the splitting of a large strong tree occasioned. The cone reached from the earth to the clouds; from its upper parts flashes of lightning were frequent, and these seemed to be excited by the clouds, which were drawn into the whirlwind. The tree was at first broken off, and afterwards torn from the ground: its size is not mentioned; but its remains sold for 200 livres (8l. 6s. 8d.) This is an admirable description; and the whole of it leads one to suppose, that the effects are owing to a sudden vacuum formed in one part of the air, and the violent agitation of the surrounding atmosphere, hurrying to replace it. M. Langsdorf, inspector of the salt-works at Gerabronn, comes in this subject to our assistance. He has lately published a new theory of the principle of hydromatics and pyrometrics. In the first chapter he endeavours to support Toricelli's rule, which is applicable to fluids of every kind, that the rapidity of falling fluids is in the ratio of the altitude from which they fall; and as all strata of the fluid cannot fall with equal velocity, the circular motion and the spheroidal figure are the consequences. This work, which is lately published, in German, at Franckfort and Leipzig, is in many other respects valuable. He prefers Kestner's system to that of Mariotte and Belidor; and treats, to much advantage, of steam as employed in fire-engines.

On the subject of magnetism we have only to remark P. Cotte's observations, made at Laon, during the year 1787, on the variation, with M. Coulumb's compass. The needle in M. Fortin's instrument was almost stationary, as well as the declination needle of M. Brander, sent by the elector Palatine, patron of the meteorological society at Mannheim. It was almost always fixed at $21^{\circ} 35'$

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In M. Coulumb's instrument, the motion of the needle was considerable: it seemed in perpetual agitation, particularly in November and December last, when it was also greatly agitated in Germany. During the course of the year, so exact was the good father's attention, that he made 4423 observations. We cannot give a very particular account of them; but may extract his conclusions. The needle has a regular diurnal variation: it declines from the north about nine in the morning to two in the afternoon; and from three in the afternoon to six in the morning returns to it again. There was some little irregularity, from seven and eight o'clock in the morning, and at six o'clock in the evening. This regular variation has been observed in Holland and in England; so that it is as well established as any fact in natural philosophy can be. Secondly, the needle is less agitated as it approaches to its maximum of western variation: its greatest agitation occurs at eight or nine in the morning, and at nine at night. This remark too accords with the observations of former years; but it were to be wished, that the variation were observed in different latitudes, since it is probable, that the result would contribute to explain the theory of magnetism, which is still obscure.

The little room that remains we shall employ in mentioning a few astronomical novelties. M. Muller, preacher at Schwelm, has published tables of the height of the sun, with a sextant fitted to determine, with accuracy and convenience, the true time, to regulate watches by the sun, and to draw a true meridian for those parts of the world, whose pole is elevated from 51 to 52 degrees. We mention these tables, because we have found them very useful and well adapted to many parts of England. The tables give, for every day of a bissextile year, the commencement of twilight in the morning, the different equations, and most important particulars mentioned in the title. He prints the work in his own house. M. Boscovich's Abridgement of Astronomy, as it is connected with navigation, is taken from the fifth volume of his works, and published separately. It has been since translated into German, at Leipzig. This work is a good elementary one: the author was astronomical tutor to the duke de Chartres (the present duke of Orleans) who had the command of one of the divisions of the fleet opposed to lord Keppel.

But the most important work, in this department, is M. Jean Jerome Schroeter's memoir on the rotation and atmosphere of Jupiter, abridged by himself, from a great number of observations. The variations that occurred in the appearance of Jupiter were considerable. The obscure bands changed their breadth; luminous bands sometimes appeared in their neighbourhood; and these changes were frequent, and sometimes sudden. The greyish colour that appears near the two poles of Jupiter, our author thinks, is owing to 'a fine fluid of the same nature as the darker bands, because it forms many beautiful, strait, and interrupted rays, which (and this deserves attention) were parallel with the

great bands, had all the same direction from east to west, and seem to show the same atmospherical tract, which leads us already to suspect a spheroidal figure of Jupiter's globe, and the parallel situation of all its bands. In those polar zones the colour seemed constantly changing: in the midst of one of them, a very white, long, but strait, band of light was observed; and, in its motion, the period of M. Cassini was observable. Another zone of the same white light was afterwards observed above this band, which seemed interrupted and decaying. Besides these bands M. Schröter observed different white spots, whose motion was confused and irregular. In a northern declination of 12° in the clear northern zone, a very white spot was perceived, whose motion sufficiently corresponded with the period of M. Cassini; but in this too there were some little irregularities. The motion of the band was evidently greater than that of the spot, and the acceleration of the band in $9^h 55' 17.6''$ was $1^h 10' 21.8''$. These spots, our author thinks, are not in the planet, but in its atmosphere, and arise from its changes, or the difference of climate, seasons, and illumination of the planet. He thinks it probable, that somewhat depends on the winds of Jupiter, which have different degrees of force, and, like our monsoons, have a direction parallel to the equator. The spots described by Cassini and Maraldi seem to him to be of the same kind; but, though liable to an irregularity from this cause, he thinks the period of Jupiter assigned by Cassini to be correct; that it is 9^h and from 55 to 56 minutes, or between $55' 17''$ and $55' 52''$. Much curious information will, we expect, be found in this treatise, from his calculation of the motion and celerity of the winds, from the irregularity in the motion of the spots; but it cannot be obtained till the publication of the observations, which we have reason to hope will soon appear, under the care of M. Bode, astronomer to the king of Prussia.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

(Continued, from p. 488.)

P O L I T I C A L.

Lo!!! a Panegyric on the King; with a faithful Portraiture of his Minister. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

The author of this Letter appears in the character of a political trimmer, rather than that of a real panegyrist or satyrist. If sincere in his praise, he is often too equivocal in expression; and if he ever means to be ironical, he wears not the mask with much address. In either case, we must pronounce him to be a frothy and affected writer, not free from the charges, however seemingly inconsistent, both of petulance and adulation.

A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, on the Reform of the internal Government of the Royal Boroughs in Scotland. By Robert Graham, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

It appears that, in February 1787, Mr. Graham sent a letter to the Minister, communicating to him the objects of the bur-
gesses

ges of Scotland, in their proposed application to parliament for a reform in the internal government of the boroughs. But not having the honour to receive any answer, a circumstance which he very properly ascribes to the multiplicity of important affairs that have engaged the Minister's attention, he now repeats in a public manner the purpose of his former application.

Nothing is more evident than that the government of the boroughs of Scotland has been conducted, for many ages, upon a system not only repugnant to public freedom, but to rational policy. The burghesses, it seems, have not the right to elect their own magistrates and common counsellors, the choice of the successors in office resting entirely in the old council; a plan by which the magistrates are totally independent of the burghesses, whose affairs they are intended to conduct.

The impropriety of this mode of government appears the more extraordinary, since, as the law of Scotland, we are informed, has lately been explained by judgments of the supreme courts in that part of the kingdom, there is no judicature in existence to take cognizance of magistrates and councils for any misapplication of the public property and revenues. The importance of this defect, in the present constitution of the boroughs, must be readily acknowledged, when the revenues in the hands of men thus liable to no responsibility are estimated at 100,000*l.* sterling per annum.

In the proposed application to parliament for a reform of these grievances, the burghesses appear to be actuated by motives of the most pressing expediency alone, uninfluenced by such considerations as may be supposed to have their origin in faction or party: for they do not extend their claims to any reform in the mode of parliamentary election; and they mean to communicate the right of electing the common councils not to every inhabitant, but to resident burghesses only, employed in trade and manufacture. With such reasonable objects in view, and conducted with such moderation, it is not probable that the voice of nine thousand aggrieved and petitioning citizens will apply in vain to a British parliament. — Mr. Graham's Letter is written with a manly but respectful freedom; and breathes the spirit of one who is deeply interested in the prosecution of a national object of great importance to his country.

A Letter to a Member of Parliament. 8vo. 1*s.* Rivingtons.

This author endeavours to show the necessity of an amendment of the laws relating to the woollen manufacture, so far as respects the wages of spinners. He observes, that in Suffolk, in particular, the spinners are subjected to an extraordinary grievance, which arises from a practice of deducting a part of the established price of their labour. To remedy this evil, he proposes that a discretionary power should be vested in the Justices of Peace. This, however, seems to be an expedient of so dangerous a nature, that it ought never to be adopted without the most mature deliberation.

The

The Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. Part I. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway.

This part comprises an account of Mr. Hastings' trial from the 19th of February, the time of its commencement, to the 28th of the same month, when the proceedings of the high court were adjourned until the Judges should return from the circuits. The editor gives a regular journal of the proceedings in this interesting trial, with the substance of all the speeches, and that of the evidence of the several witnesses. The whole appears to be faithfully compiled, and will amply gratify the curiosity of those who wish for information respecting this celebrated enquiry.

Answer of Philip Francis, Esq. to the Charge brought against Sir John Clavering, Colonel George Monson, and Mr. Francis. By Sir Elijah Impey, Knight. 8vo. 2s. Jarvis.

A Refutation of the Answer of Philip Francis, Esq. to the Charges exhibited against him, General Clavering, and Colonel Monson, by Sir Elijah Impey, Knight. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

These two pamphlets relate to charges more fit for the cognizance of a court of judicature than of criticism: we shall therefore dismiss them, with observing only, that the refutation is accompanied with a fac simile copy of the petition of Nundcomar, burnt as a libel by the hands of the common hangman, in consequence of a motion of Mr. Francis.

A Vindication of the Conduct of the English Forces, employed in the late War, under Brigadier General Matthews, against Tippoo Sultan. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The troops vindicated in this pamphlet are those which had the misfortune of being obliged to surrender to Tippoo Saib, who, notwithstanding the capitulation, treated them with the most merciless severity. The whole were thrown into prison, where they experienced every species of hardship; and the general, with many of his officers, were basely put to death. According to the statement of facts, with which we are presented in this pamphlet, the conduct of those unfortunate troops must be acquitted of every dishonourable imputation. The truth of the narrative is confirmed by fifty-three of the surviving officers, whose signature is dated at Bombay, February 15, 1787; and, in reliance on whose veracity, we have the pleasure to think that the vindication will be universally admitted as decisive.

Laws of Parliamentary Impeachments. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Whieldon.

Impeachments having been for some time a common topic of conversation, the author of this pamphlet has, for the gratification of the public, compiled a summary of the mode of proceeding in criminal trials at the bar of the House of Lords. The materials are copied from approved authorities, and are likewise arranged in a methodical manner.

Observations on the late Increase of the Dividend on Bank Stock.
6d. Sewell.

The author of this pamphlet censures the conduct of the Directors of the Bank, in withholding from the proprietors an earlier participation of the accumulated profits of the stock; as the suspension of them (supposing them to have existed) has deprived a considerable number of the proprietors of a benefit to which they were justly entitled. He observes, that all those who, either from necessity or any other motive, may have been led to dispose of their stock at any period subsequent to that at which the state of the Company's affairs would have authorized the usual increase of one-half per cent. per annum of the dividend, have been excluded from their portion of that advantage.

Substance of the Speech of Henry Beaufoy, Esq. to the British Society for extending the Fisheries, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

Mr. Beaufoy sets out with giving a general account of the conduct of the Directors of the British Society, from their appointment in August 1786, to that of June in the following year, at which time the Committee of Inspection took its departure for Scotland. He next lays before his hearers such observations on the general state of the country in the North-west of Great-Britain, and on the peculiar circumstances of its coasts, as his late tour had suggested; and he afterwards states to them the principal proceedings of the directors, from the return of their committee of inspection to the present time. From the laudable zeal which seems to animate this patriotic society, there is reason to hope, that under a wise and vigilant direction, it will prove, in a few years, a source of great and important advantage to the public.

A Letter from a Gentleman at Bengal to his Friend in London.
8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The author of this Letter, which is dated at Calcutta, September 8, 1787, expresses his astonishment at hearing of the persecution which Mr. Hastings experiences in this country on account of his administration in the East-Indies; and he affirms that the sentiments of the people of that country, in general, are the same with his own on this occasion. We do not in the least dispute the truth of what he asserts; but we must disclaim all belief in the justness of the strange apprehension which he insinuates towards the conclusion of the letter.

D I V I N I T Y.

Characteristics of Public Spirit, and of National Virtue. 4to.
2s. 6d. Faulder.

The Characteristics of National Virtue consist in the late royal proclamation against immorality, and the agreement of many distinguished persons to promote this moral design. We hope it will be effectual; and yet we have some doubts, some misgivings, which tell us that the whole is about to evaporate
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in words only. The substance of the work is an exhortation (or a sermon, though it is not said to have been ever preached), to be zealously affected in a good thing, from Galatians iv. 18. It contains many remarks on zeal, and the object of zeal; which ought to be something good: this discourse is pious and moral, yet, with so few adventitious ornaments to attract, that the reader must have been *before* 'zealously affected in a good thing' to keep up his attention to the end.

Some hints for the exertion of national virtue are added; and we must join in commendation of the author's design, though his efforts might have been more successful, if he had assumed the garb of elegance, of polished periods, or ornamented diction, to allure those whom moral precepts alone will not attract.

A True Estimate of the Light of Inspiration, and the Light of Human Learning, before and since the Apostolic Age. 4to. 2s. 6d. Faulder,

Dr. Horsley's Sermon, as we prophesied in our review of it, p. 68th of the present volume, is already become the subject of controversy. It is attacked by the author of the *Characteristics* just mentioned, in one of those equivocal essays which have, perhaps, only the form of a sermon: from its unreasonable length, and other circumstances, we suspect that it was never preached, except perhaps in substance or an abridgment. The subject is the modest diffident speech of Elihu, 'I said, days should speak, and multitude of years should teach wisdom:—But there is a spirit in man; and the inspiration of the Almighty giveth them understanding.—Great men are not always wise: neither do the aged understand judgment.—Therefore I said, hearken to me, I also will shew mine opinion.' It is the 8th verse which is the chief object of the preacher: the subsequent ones seem to have been added in allusion to Dr. Horsley's dignity and character. Our present author contends for the immateriality of the soul, for 'extraordinary inspiration' in particular circumstances, and an 'ordinary inspiration' common to all true believers. It is this ordinary inspiration which is the great hinge on which the controversy turns; and, in our author's opinion, it is little connected with human learning. He seems to confound Dr. Horsley's argument, which, if we rightly understood it, allowed the full force of inspiration to the Apostles, but contended that, in their modern successors, this Spirit must be supplied by learning and study.

The author has no design in depreciating human learning, on account of his own deficiency. He is well acquainted with the languages, and with the various theological writers. On the whole, we object to the Spirit of this *True Estimate* rather than to the substance; there is too much asperity in it, as well as a little illiberality and want of decorum in some of the observations. Yet, on the other hand, he has not convinced us that Dr. Horsley is in an error. Where his arguments are most pointed, and seemingly most conclusive, we think that he

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has mistaken the great object of the learned author. We own too, that we are a little cautious of admitting, too freely, modern inspiration, since it is the parent of enthusiasm, and the most effective instrument of every fanatical impostor.

Thoughts on the distinct Provinces of Revelation and Philosophy.
4to. 2s. 6d. Faulder.

We have already been indebted to this author for the 'True Estimate of the Light of Inspiration and of human Learning;' also for the 'Characteristics of public Spirit and national Virtue.' The substance of the present work is pointed out by a text taken from Colossians ii. 8 and 9. Its great object is not to show that philosophy is useless, but that it has little connection with a religion founded on divine revelation. It is not in opposition to Christianity, but its province is entirely distinct. Our author treats, in a cursory manner, of the different philosophical sciences, and shows that they were unequal to the task of discovering what the inspired writings have revealed. Yet there is a philosophy, if we take the word in its original sense, which he recommends: it is the love of the wisdom which is from above. We fully agree with our author, that the Bible was not designed to teach us what we call philosophy: it speaks to the senses and to the heart; nor does it sanction the quibbling of the metaphysician, or the dreams of the cosmogonist.

Though much learning and some information is conspicuous in this work, yet it is written with so little compactness, that we often lose the idea in the words with which it is enveloped. We found it difficult to preserve our attention; and we can only recommend it for its good designs.

A Letter to a Friend, containing five important Questions relative to the Doctrine and Usages of the Church of England. 8vo.
1s. Bew.

An Anabaptist answers, in plain unequivocal language, the queries of his friend, relating to the doctrines of the church of England, and the conduct of its ministers. Sprinkling, and the common forms of ordination, are therefore treated with little respect, and the prayers of the church scarcely fare better. What, indeed, can we expect from an author who tells his friend, that 'little more can be said of the church of England, than that she has a more decent appearance of the same spirit which animates the church of Rome?'—He must own too, that she has a little more forbearance; for, under the dominion of the church of Rome, he could not have reflected so much on the national religion. To his Letter, a short Review is added of a former pamphlet, entitled, 'A Scriptural Illustration of the Doctrine of Regeneration,' probably lest it should be forgotten.

A Sermon preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, for the Benefit of the General Hospital. 8vo. Crutwell, Bath.

This Sermon was not designed for sale: a few copies were only printed, because it was 'delivered under much embarrassment,

ment, and very imperfectly heard.' The author, Mr. Badcock, does not presume to 'challenge criticism.'—He is now, it seems, removed either from the influence of praise or blame, and is equally insensible of severity or kindness. Yet it can never be improper to speak the truth; and it is only common justice to say, that this Sermon is an excellent one; and that it deserves to be known beyond the circle to which the author limited it. The subject is that of general benevolence; and though apparently trite and hackneyed, the arguments are pointed with much precision, and the duty enforced with great strength. The Sermon before us leads us deeply to regret that the source of so much elegant instruction is stopped for ever. The author's death, we understand, was unexpected and untimely; but we hope that this is not the only laurel left to adorn his tomb.

Letters from a Parent to her Children. By Mrs. Arabella Davies. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

Written from the confines of the Tabernacle; yet the precepts are often judicious; and the language is not disgraced by incorrectness or inelegance. But there is too much of what the French call onction, the cant of a sect, to please common readers.

M E D I C A L.

An Essay on the Nature and Origin of the Contagion of Fevers. By John Alderson, M.D. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

The object of our author is to show, that the contagious matter is dissolved in the air, and again precipitated on some body, by which it is rendered a fomes of contagion. In reality, this contagious matter may become injurious without its being actually precipitated; for it may again be in a free state, while it is precipitating, or may be dissolved by the breath after it has been deposited. In its solution, our author seems to think that it separates the pure parts of the air, or at least changes their nature; and that its precipitation is again owing to an additional portion of vital air. Whether this be true must depend on many chemical experiments; and, indeed, the whole system is somewhat doubtful: in its tendency, however, it is not injurious.

To prevent the effects of contagion, he recommends steam, or to pour boiling water from one vessel to another. He thinks too that, in consequence of the precipitation, the lower strata of the air of an infected room are most dangerous. He rests, in this opinion, on M. Maret's experiments, in a former volume the of Dijon Memoirs, which we have always considered as liable to some exceptions; but it cannot be doubtful, that the more complete every ventilation is, the more useful it will be. Where, therefore, it is practicable, we would advise that the windows of an hospital should reach down to the floor, and frequent washings are indisputably proper. We know, from experiment,

rimment, that steam will correct that foulness in the air which arises from burning charcoal; so that the danger of heating the water in tea-urns, by charcoal, is imaginary; but we know that it will not correct foul air, which has been injured from other causes. A tub of water in a new painted room is undoubtedly soon covered with a film; but it is of oil; not of paint; and it is pretty certain, that the injury from this room is only remotely connected with the smell. It is hurtful when all the smell is gone.—But, though we have expressed doubts of our author's system, yet it appears well supported; and we are convinced, that the practice suggested by it will be useful, though the utility may appear to arise from a very different source.

Cases of the Hydrocele. With Observations on a peculiar Method of treating that Disease. By T. Keate. 8vo. 2s. Water.

It was the author's intention to give some account of the success of a discutient lotion, consisting of sal ammoniac, dissolved in equal parts of vinegar and rectified spirit of wine; but, to cases of this kind, he has added a very singular and curious one of a hernia of the bladder, with two others of hernia incarcerata, in which ice was successfully applied. His discutient lotion seems to be very useful; and the case of hernia vesicæ would have been highly valuable, if the symptoms which it produced could have been properly distinguished from those of the intestinal hernia and hydrocele, with which it was complicated. The dissection, however, subjoined, is extremely curious. Indeed, every part of this pamphlet displays great skill, abilities, and erudition.

An Essay on the Bite of a Mad Dog. By Jesse Foot. 8vo. 2s. Becket.

The name of Hunter seems to rouse Mr. Foot, and we do not see for what reason the present pamphlet appears, but to reprehend this gentleman's conduct, in the case of Master R—, and to speak of his own success, by cutting out the part. The latter, indeed, is the only certain remedy. In other parts of the work, Mr. Foot is, as usual, positive, and, as usual, superficial. If he had fortunately read a few of the modern authors on the subject, he would not have spoken so positively of the inutility of mercury, or denounced a certain death to *all* who had symptoms of hydrophobia. There are some curious observations, on which we may make a remark or two.

‘The result of these experiments teach us not to lose our labour in search of an antidote to the bite of a mad dog; for if, after making six thousand experiments, Fontana is as far off as ever in discovering a specific for the bite of a viper, how improbable is it, that success should attend such an hopeless pursuit for the bite of a mad dog?’

In other words, it is in vain to look for a remedy in any disease, because one has not been found in a disease probably incurable. Would this have been an observation worth attending to

to on the introduction of the bark, or of mercury in the venereal disease? Yet it would have had equal apparent force. In another part, we are told, that *Haller* taught us to *reason* on the system of absorbents. A great part of this work is filled with quotations from Fontana and others: the rest is plausible and confident; but trite and superficial.

N O V E L S.

Memoirs of Miss Holmstys. By Sarah Emma Spencer, *Authoress of Poetical Trifles.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Smith.

Criticism is disarmed by the tale of woe in the preface; yet, though it has lost its dart, though it cannot wound, the power of consolation remains. Mrs. Spencer's work is not unpleasing, and it is strictly moral: poetical justice is rigorously dispensed. The poetry interspersed seldom rises above mediocrity.

Illusions of Sentiment, a Descriptive and Historic Novel. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Axtell.

That excess of sentiment is an illusion, we allow: the moral is, at least, good. The story picked up, seemingly by accident, in an old French novel, and done into English, with the proper trappings, to catch the attention of sentimental females, deserves no praise, either for its conduct or its characters. We must, therefore, bid this descendant of Henry the fourth of France adieu, without a wish to detain her, or to see her any more.

The Half Pay Officer; or, the Memoirs of Charles Chancely. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Robinsons.

The memoirs of Charles Chancely, though a connected, can be hardly stiled a continued narrative. Somewhat of pathos, a little novelty, and pretty good morality, pervade these volumes: we object only to the politics of the author.—The characters have nothing very striking; the events not uncommon; yet we are interested for the hero, and accompany him with some satisfaction. The preface and the address to the reader might, however, have been spared. They contain little more than the tritest and most hackneyed remarks.

The Inquisitor; or, the Invisible Rambler. By Mrs. Rowson. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Robinsons.

Mrs. Rowson looked up to Sterne as the object of her imitation, but she has really rivalled one of her own sex, the author of the *Rambles of Frankly*. The work is wholly of that kind, and in no respect inferior to it, except in having adopted a ring, by which the inquisitor is rendered invisible, a trick so artificial, as at once to disgust the more rational reader: it in fact destroys all the interest, because it occurs every moment, and shews the whole to be fictitious. Of Sterne, there are only a few faint rays. The chapter entitled, *The Slave*, in the beginning of the second volume, is written in his best manner. There are many pathetic traits which speak to the heart, and are drawn from

from nature: they are extremely affecting, when we forget the ring. Though the Inquisitor, like the Rambles of Frankly, consists of independent chapters; yet some connection is kept up through the whole; and, in that respect, as well as in pathos, this work may be said to excel its competitor.

The Adventures of a Watch. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

Adventures of this kind are so hackneyed, that genius itself could scarcely lend them grace, or learning convey to them importance. Neither have any share in this work. All has been told before, in a better manner; and the reflections are trite, and tediously expanded: in short, all the bookmaker's art is exhausted; all the typographer's ingenuity employed, to spin out the meagre materials into a trifling and insipid volume. The author of the Hackney Coach has wound up this paultry machine: it will go for a few hours, and then be silent, we hope, for ever.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Elegant Orations, Ancient and Modern. By the rev. J. Mossop, A. M. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Kearsley.

That youth should be habituated early to the practice of speaking in public, no doubt can be entertained: and it seems to be no less certain that for this purpose, orations are infinitely more suitable than the acting of plays, which have, in general, a tendency to corrupt the morals of youth. We therefore approve of the plan adopted by Mr. Mossop, in his boarding-school; but we cannot universally commend the selection which he has made of orations. Some of them are too tedious, some too much involved in intricacy and calculation; and there are others which, being taken from the parliamentary debates of late times, are in danger of instilling into young minds political prejudices and animosities. In the present compilation, the ancient orations are the best adapted to the design of the editor.

Letters written in Holland, in the Months of September and October 1787. By Thomas Bowdler, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Dilly.

These letters were written during the time when the Prince of Brunswick, at the head of the Prussian army, was proceeding in the restoration of the Stadtholder. They seem to contain a faithful account of the transactions of that turbulent period. The letters and papers relative to the journey of the Princess of Orange are in French, and afford likewise a satisfactory detail of the various negotiations on that subject. To the honour of Mr. Bowdler's benevolence, these letters are printed for the benefit of a charitable institution at Bath.

Original Stories, from real Life. Small 8vo. 3s. Johnson.

The little anecdotes which fill this volume are calculated to direct the youthful mind, and to give it force and vigour. We have perused it carefully, since a slight deviation of propriety,

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in the instructor, may be extensively injurious, when the instructions are widely disseminated. We think the lessons highly proper, and judiciously drawn from circumstances which are obvious and common, and, of course, admit of frequent application; they relate to moral virtues and religious conduct. We shall not transcribe any specimens, since we can freely and cheerfully recommend the whole as instructive and entertaining.

Defence of Usury. By *Jeremy Bentham, Esq.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. T. Payne and Son.

Usury has in all ages been so generally considered as opprobrious, that any defence of such practice may incur the imputation of singularity. The author of this treatise, however, disregarding the restraints of prejudice, investigates the subject with much attention, and adduces strong arguments to prove that the prohibition of usury is equally unjust and impolitic. It is his opinion that men should enjoy the liberty of making their own terms in money-bargains, as well as in any other species of traffic. He examines the reasons of the restraint imposed by the laws against usury; and these, he observes, are, the prevention of prodigality, the protection of indigence, and likewise that of simplicity. The author combats each of these reasons with a variety of sensible remarks; pointing out the mischiefs of the anti-usurious laws, and shewing their inconsistency in several important particulars. The authority of Blackstone on this subject is investigated with acuteness; and, upon the whole, Mr. Bentham acquits himself as an ingenious disputant in favour of usury; though he will find it difficult, with all his arguments, to obliterate the odium of a practice stigmatized by the general consent of mankind, and positively prescribed by the legislature of this country.

Speculations upon Law and Lawyers; applicable to the manifest Hardships, Uncertainty, and Abusive Practice of the Common Law. 2s. Robson and Clarke.

This pamphlet contains some strange, whimsical, unconnected reflections on the conduct of lawyers; the law's delay, as well as its glorious uncertainty. We could not account for this violent abuse, till we came to the end; and we may just observe, that in reviewing, though some reviewers have overlooked them, there are a great many advantages which arise from reading a book from beginning to the end: From the last page, however, we find, that the author means shortly to publish letters written from the confines of the King's Bench. Losers have always leave to speak. In the beginning, we are informed, that the substance of these scraps has been already published in a work, styled *Joineriana*; and from the middle, (p. 75, note) we learn that the author was a bookseller. Having now examined it, a capite ad calcem, we must recommend it for the author's sake; and we may truly add, that it contains some humorous remarks in a whimsical Shandean style.

Whilst we Live let us Live. A Short View of the Competition between the Manufacturer and Land Worker. 8vo. 1s. Cruse, at Norwich.

This pamphlet relates to the contest between the manufacturers and the wool-growers. The author inclines to the side of the former, and supports his opinion by strong arguments. The claims of the different parties have now undergone the examination of parliament, and any farther enquiry into the subject may now be postponed.

A Candid Review of Facts, in the Litigation between Peter Horsfoot, Esq. &c. with the Bishop of Winchester concerning the Right of Fareham Quay. 8vo. 4s. Green.

It is unnecessary to lay before our readers a statement of facts entirely local, and the subject of which is acknowledged to be of little consequence, with respect to its genuine value. The litigation of the facts was decided by the final award of Robert Pope Blackford, esq. of Osborne, in the Isle of Wight. The chief design of the author, in the publication of this volume, is to reprobate the mode of determining causes by arbitration; as a trial by a jury appears to be far more eligible. In detailing the circumstances of the case under consideration, he seems to be accurate; and, though he is not dispassionate in the recital of some of the particulars, we cannot accuse him of misconception in the prosecution of his argument.

An Account of the Culture and Use of the Mangel Wurzel, or Root of Scarcity. Translated from the French of the Abbé de Commerell. The fourth Edition. 8vo. 2s. Dilly

This is a fourth edition, illustrated by a coloured plate of the different parts of the vegetable. It is, in the editor's opinion, a variety, probably of the beta cicla, or a hybrid plant, from the union of this species with the beta vulgaris. To this edition there are two or three prefaces, with great encomiums on the root, which, so far as we have been able to observe, is very little, if at all, superior to the common beet. The numerous plantations of this vegetable will soon ascertain its real value.

Reports of the Humane Society: instituted in the Year 1774, for the Recovery of Persons apparently Drowned. Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Dodsley.

The Society proceed to relate their good deeds, in the same affected style which disgrace their former works. In the year 1786, 43 persons were recovered, who were apparently dead, and 14 preserved from drowning. There were 57 unsuccessful cases. In the year 1785, 15 were recovered, and 85 saved from drowning, that required no medical aid. In 47 cases there was no success; and we ought to add, that in the fatal instances of either year, in nearly one half of the cases, success could not be expected: of the other half, it is impossible to say, that no attack, in itself fatal, might not have occasioned the

person falling into the water. The cases are, in general, particularly, and perhaps faithfully related.

At the conclusion are three Letters from Mr. Sherwin of Enfield, recommending agitation, the transfusion of warm blood, and an inhaler. The two last may undoubtedly be useful; and, if the agitation be not continued long, with the head downwards, it might be of service. We do not perceive any other material improvement in the usual plan. The Society's funds appear to prosper; but they are still in want of pecuniary assistance. The reports are seemingly drawn up by Dr. H——, and executed very imperfectly. The finical language of an affected *petit-maitre* is ill adapted to a subject whose perspicuous and intelligible language should convey instruction; and where clear description should not for a moment leave a doubt. We candidly own, that it was only after repeated efforts, that we could finish this mawkish banquet.

We have been accused of inattention to this subject, and of cool praise, mixed with occasional sarcasms, when it has occurred. We own, that it is with no little indignation that we see the deeds of humanity made the engine of an interested policy; that we read exaggerated descriptions, and intemperate commendations of abilities which are, at least, equivocal, and of works which possess little real merit. If the institution cannot support itself by the real advantages which accrue from it to the public, it deserves no adventitious assistance.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

WE have received Mr. Howlett's very obliging letter, and will explain what we think he did not correctly distinguish. His argument was, that the price of labour was stationary, or at least did not rise in the ratio of the price of provisions. This, we observed, was true only of the labouring husbandman, or rather, as we might have perhaps expressed it with more accuracy, in those employments where labour alone was required. The manufacturer has, in many instances, increased his wages: the mechanic has done the same; but where this has not been done, the practice of working by the job, rather than by the day, has produced the same effect. We have considerable manufactures under our eye, and a largely increasing poor rate; so that we are, from experience, convinced, that it is the progress of luxury in a greater ratio than the price of labour, which really contributes to the increase of the number of poor. The facts which Mr. Howlett mentions are undoubtedly owing to the cause which he states; but when we take the mechanic and manufacturer from the list, we hope it will appear that it is not the most extensive cause. The mortality in the houses of industry was an object of great importance; but we hoped to have been able to obtain more extensive information on the subject. If that is within our reach, we shall certainly notice

it in our account of Mr. Howlett's second edition: if it is not, we shall there supply our defect.

Mr. Young, we find, intends to publish a second volume of his 'Essay on the Mechanism and Powers of Nature,' in which he purposes to consider all the difficulties which may appear to attend, or the objections which have been made to his first volume, and the 'Examination of the third and fourth definition of the first Book of the Principia.'

THE opinion of foreign Reviewers on English works is often influenced by peculiar circumstances; and it is not in our power, nor would it be advantageous, as our correspondent 'Publicola' recommends, often to enumerate them. We have, however, given a little specimen of their opinions, in the 'Intelligence' of this Number; but we can assure our correspondent, that we scarcely ever follow them implicitly, without seeing the books, or procuring some additional information. As we shall probably have no more proper place, we may inform him, that M. Michaelis speaks with much respect of Volney's Travels.

TO 'Another Correspondent' we can give only a very short reply. In our foreign communications we must necessarily make a selection; and we have determined to select subjects of science chiefly. As our limits are now enlarged, we may occasionally give a few works of entertainment; but foreign religion, and German jurisprudence, with which the presses of the continent are over-loaded, we never design to notice. We are sorry to be so peremptory; but our Correspondent's manner of writing is not the most conciliatory.

WE have received 'Chirurgus' letter, and will particularly attend to his remarks: he will permit us to observe, that our review of the Observations on the Old System of Physic was, in reality, concluded. The list of errors that we mentioned were preserved for our own security, in case our opinions had been called in question. It is true, as our Correspondent remarks, that the Foreign Literary Intelligence will preclude the necessity of many distant articles; but there are some important works which must be particularly examined, and, as we often feel the inconvenience of narrow limits, our author may be assured, that those in which we are permitted to range, will not be filled with unimportant remarks. A General Index we have had for some time in contemplation; and we are happy to inform our Correspondent that it is now executing. The particular Index to important passages will be the subject of our serious consideration. We feel the want of it ourselves, and will endeavour to supply it. If we find no important objection to this measure, we shall sacrifice our Table of Contents to it, which is of less value, and which will afford sufficient room.

To comply with the request of Chirurgus, as well as those who cannot speak from authority are able, we shall observe, that we do not undertake the College to direct the preparation of spirit of wine in their list of *materia medica*, but to point out the strength of what they design shall be used. If they had intended the *spiritus vinosus rectificatus*, and *tenuior*, to be prepared, they should undoubtedly have added it to the compositions: but, as they have directed a standard principle of a decided strength, it seems that they have only in view, to order a spirit of that given strength. If then the spirit usually sold be not so strong as to have a specific gravity of 815 to 1.000, less water must be added; if stronger, more. Common spirit of wine is not, indeed, so pure as it will be by the composition directed by the College; but the injury done to it by the impurities will not be considerable. There is a little oil, and sometimes a very little acid in it; but neither materially injure it for the composition of tinctures, or make a sensible difference in the specific gravity, when tried by an hydrometer. There is always a little acetous acid, which seems to be intimately combined with the spirit, and is not sensible till the spirit is destroyed. This cannot be separated by an alkali, and indeed has been supposed, by many, to be formed during combustion.

WE are much obliged to the gentleman who sent us an account of the fourth volume of the *Memoirs of the Bath Society*; but there are two circumstances which necessarily prevent our inserting it. We shall shortly explain them. The great utility of a Review arises from giving a connected account of the science, and its progressive improvements, as well as a character of particular works. This is chiefly effected by frequent references, and a view to what has been formerly said on the subject; so that a new associate cannot, without much attention and reflection, engage in the plan. Secondly; in an account of Collections of *Memoirs*, it requires great discretion to determine what articles should be considered shortly, and of what the account may be more extensive. A reviewer caters for different tastes; and while he cannot render his article disproportionately extensive, he should be cautious that no class of readers be wholly disappointed. What costs us much reflection to decide on, we cannot expect that our Correspondent should immediately determine, without being aware of the difficulty. He speaks of omitting many articles; but it is by no means certain that his rejected papers may not be among the most valuable: we are sure, from his specimen, that they must form the largest proportion of the volume.



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