

THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

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OCTOBER, 1827.

THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

No. XLVII.

ABOLITION OF FLOGGING IN THE INDIAN ARMY.

[As we have the strongest desire to place every good deed of the Indian Government (so few are they in number) in the most conspicuous light, we give insertion to the following 'General Order' in this part of our work, that it may be sure of being seen by all who open it.—Ed.]

' INDIAN ARMY.

' FLOGGING ABOLISHED IN INDIA.

' *Head-Quarters, Calcutta, March 19, 1827.*

' The Commander-in-Chief is satisfied, from the quiet and orderly habits of the Native soldiers, that it can very seldom be necessary to inflict on them the punishment of flogging, while it may be almost entirely abolished, with great advantage to their character and feelings.

' His Excellency is therefore pleased to direct, that no Native soldier shall, in future, be sentenced to corporal punishment, unless for the crime of stealing, marauding, or gross insubordination, where the individuals are deemed unworthy to continue in the ranks of the Army.

' Whenever, in such cases, corporal punishment is awarded by a Regimental Detachment or Brigade Court-Martial, the proceedings are to be referred, with a descriptive roll of the prisoner, and a report of his previous character, to the General or other officer commanding the division, before the sentence is carried into effect; and if he confirms it, and does not see cause to remit the punishment, he will, at the same time, direct the man to be discharged from the army.

' This order is to be clearly explained to every Native corps.

' By order of his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief.

' W. L. WATSON, Adjutant-General of the Army.'

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No. XLVIII.

THE SPHYNX.

It having come to the knowledge of the Proprietor of 'THE SPHYNX,' that a dismissed Servant of that Establishment, lately employed as Publisher and Advertising Clerk to 'THE SPHYNX' and 'ORIENTAL HERALD,' has, since his dismissal, been surreptitiously endeavouring to prevent the usual transmission of Advertisements to these Works, and otherwise injuriously affecting their interests; PUBLIC CAUTION is given, not to attend to any application for Payment of Outstanding Accounts, or to any Notices respecting Advertisements connected with 'THE SPHYNX' or 'ORIENTAL HERALD,' either from the Individual mentioned, or from any other Person whatever, who may not bring with them a written authority, under the signature of the Proprietor himself.

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27th October.

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DECEMBER, 1827.

THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

No. 46.—OCTOBER 1827.—VOL. 15.

ARBITRARY TAXATION OF THE BRITISH INHABITANTS OF CALCUTTA.

THE all-absorbing topic of interest connected with British India, is, at present, the pending Stamp Act, by which an attempt is to be made to tax the British residents of Calcutta more especially, but eventually, no doubt, of every other part of India, to the utmost verge of their capacity to pay, and at the mere will and pleasure of their 'Honourable Masters.'

There are some persons who think that they richly deserve this and every other infliction that tyranny can impose upon them, for the willing homage which they have, generally speaking, so indiscriminately paid to power and authority, during the last fifty years, but more especially for the unresisting manner in which they permitted themselves to be ignominiously fettered, insulted, and condemned, as totally unworthy to be trusted with the exercise of that privilege, by which more than every other, the free are distinguished from the enslaved—the privilege of giving utterance to their honest opinions, without dread of any other penalty than the verdict of a jury should adjudge. If the whole body of the British residents in India had petitioned for the abolition of that disgraceful power, by which the Governors of that country can banish, without a trial, any man who dares utter an opinion contrary to their wishes;—if they had resisted, as they ought to have done, the odious imposition of a law more degrading than any that exists in Turkey or in Spain, which prohibits them, on pain of exile and ruin, from printing, buying, borrowing, lending, reading, or even possessing any newspaper, book, pamphlet, or publication, which the Governor-General may choose in his caprice to denounce;—if they had the sense to perceive, or the courage to act on the perception, that the greater evil always includes the lesser, they would have insisted on the importance of a Free Press, as including, as well as securing, every other species of freedom—and then, Stamp Acts, and every

other species of arbitrary exaction, might have been so subjected to the test of discussion and public opinion, as to be opposed with ten times the effect that they can now be met by humble petitions, to which the parties petitioned will pay just as little attention as such humble solicitations of rights, as boons, deserve.

But though some may argue thus, and on that ground contend, that a people who will make no effort for their own liberties deserve no advocates to plead their cause, we confess that our hatred of arbitrary power is so purely unconnected with personal considerations, and withal so interminable as well as intense, that notwithstanding the great mass of the pretended 'independent' British inhabitants of India appear to us to have hugged their chains with an unaccountable and debasing fondness, and to have joined in the general hue and cry against the few who had nobler spirits than themselves, condemning all who dared to write or speak of liberty in that despotic land, as miscreants who desired only the destruction of all that was sacred and established;—notwithstanding, we say, the general prostration of all the faculties of thought and powers of action to the supreme will of the ruler for the time being, by which the English name and character has been so disgraced in India for years past, still, for the sake of the few noble spirits still existing amidst this subservient body of Englishmen, as well as for the helpless many among the Natives of the country itself, from whom nothing better than slavish submission could yet be expected, we think it a duty to raise our voice against this new attempt at trampling under foot every consideration for the interests of the subjugated people, which the Government of India, acting under orders of their superiors at home, are making, under cover of the Stamp Act, now about to be introduced into Calcutta.

In our last Number, in the article on the East India Company's Monopoly, we took occasion to show that no individual member of that Company, or in other words, no Proprietor of East India Stock, benefitted, in the remotest degree, from any increase of the Indian revenue, as the dividends on the amount of his stock remained, under all circumstances, the same; yet that, for the sake of the increased patronage connected with an increased expenditure in the government of these possessions, the twenty-four Directors were always glad to promote any scheme by which more money could be drawn out of the pockets of the people, and placed at their (the Directors') disposal. There is another reason why new taxes can rule a large body of foreigners is by keeping them ignorant and disunited; the surest way of effecting this is by keeping them poor. The same rule applies equally to the smaller body of their own countrymen whom they hold under their authority in India. The rule has been long since applied to the Army, whose officers, being kept in a state of perpetual dependence on the possible continuance

of a retiring pension, of which any act of independence on their part might for ever deprive them, and never being permitted to grow sufficiently rich out of their continually curtailed allowances to resign the service rather than submit to any indignities offered to them, are retained in the most manageable state of dependence on their superiors that could be desired. The Civil Service are only not in the same condition, because the civilians are the law-makers both in India and at home, and contain too many relatives and connections of the Directors themselves to be in much danger of any serious injury to their fortunes from any cause but their own indiscretions, which are far from being always unwelcome to the higher authorities, as their poverty, when it happens, produces the same happy effect of placing the individuals so affected at the entire mercy of those, by a subservience to whose will they can alone become rich. This is a melancholy and humiliating picture; but the chief question is, is it not true?

That portion of the British inhabitants in India, composed of what are miscalled independent gentlemen, divided into free merchants and free mariners, neither of whom are, however, free to do any thing that the Governor for the time being chooses to prohibit, is, one would have imagined, sufficiently under the power of the Government, by the simple condition of their residing in India on sufferance only, and being liable to be turned out of the country for any thing or nothing, without trial or without cause assigned, as well as without hope of redress from appeal. But the pleasure of impoverishing and trampling down those who are already destitute and prostrate, is one which is too dear to despotism not to be gratified at every favourable opportunity. And as the free merchants and free mariners of India are just as helpless and as incapable of offering any effectual resistance to their rulers as the enslaved natives of the country, the Directors at home, and their Governors abroad, are, no doubt, equally glad of an opportunity of showing these self-called 'independent' inhabitants of British-birth, that they are powerless and contemptible, and can be treated just as their rulers, in their sovereign will and pleasure, see fit. The issue will show whether there are any limits to their tyranny or not. In the mean time, treating the question as one to be decided by law and reason, (to which the petitioning inhabitants of Calcutta, after all their experience of the inefficiency of these guides, still appeal, as though these were to settle the dispute!) we shall record what has been said and done in the matter; earnestly desiring, though certainly not much encouraged to hope, that the end may be a triumph of right and justice over unbridled avarice and power; and that the inhabitants of India, British as well as Native, if they can be taught to hate despotism by no other means, may, after they have tamely submitted to all sorts of insults on their integrity, their independence, and their understanding, be roused to resistance by an attack on

their pockets, that meanest of all channels, and one through which a high-minded spirit would be least likely to be moved, but, which, in the present instance, at least, seems to have stirred up a feeling that no previous aggravation could create.

We have received from Calcutta an official copy of the Stamp Act; but as it fills twelve entire sheets, and is full of technical and minute details, we shall not tax the reader's patience by its insertion. The only great question that can interest the public mind is the principle on which the Act is framed,—namely, the assumption that the East India Company and its Government in India have the power to levy, at their will and pleasure, contributions in any shape, and to any amount, not only from the Natives of India, (for, poor wretches! not even the complaining English petitioners seem to dispute that,) but from all British-born subjects residing by sufferance in their territories. We shall see the principle of the Act in its preamble: though this is a formality which, if the powers recited by it be justly assumed, might well be dispensed with altogether. This preamble is as follows:

‘Whereas Stamp Duties have long been raised, levied, and paid within the PROVINCES subordinate to this Presidency; and whereas it appears EXPEDIENT, with a view to the improvement of the revenue derived from the said duties: and is otherwise JUST AND PROPER that a similar tax should be levied and paid WITHIN THE TOWN OF CALCUTTA, the Vice-President in Council, under the powers vested in him by virtue of the 98th and 99th section of the Act 53d Geo. III. cap. 45; and with the sanction of the Court of Directors of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies; and with the approbation of the Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India, has enacted the following rules to be in force within the Town of Calcutta, from and after the 1st day of May next ensuing.’

This is really a pattern of a preamble which might serve for all time to come. It might be thus fairly paraphrased:

‘Whereas floggings and tortures have long been inflicted on slaves within the PROVINCES subordinate to this country, (namely, the West Indies, the Mauritius, and the Cape of Good Hope;) and whereas it appears EXPEDIENT, with a view to the improvement of discipline, and is otherwise JUST AND PROPER that similar floggings should be inflicted WITHIN THE ISLAND OF GREAT BRITAIN ITSELF, the prime minister, with the sanction of the West India planters, (the ‘honourable masters’ of the well-flogged slaves,) and the secretary of the colonies, (or commissioners for the affairs of our colonial dependencies,) have enacted the following rules (for a graduated scale of effective flogging) to be in force within the island of Great Britain, from and after the 1st day of May next ensuing.’

It is difficult to treat so absurd a preamble seriously. It is one of the finest instances of the *non-sequitur* that we remember, even in Indian legislation; and is only to be paralleled by the argument of Sir Francis Macnaghten, who, when he gave his sanction to the law for licensing the Press in India, used a very similar train of deduction: contending that—

‘Whereas the Legislature of England (to their shame, be it recorded) gave to the Government of India an instrument for effectually restraining the freedom of Englishmen, in the power to banish from that country all British-born individuals, (but these only,) without trial, for any act displeasing to the ruling authorities: THEREFORE, it was lawful for the Government of India (without the sanction of the English Legislature) to place a similarly effective restraint on all Indian-born individuals; and, if there were no existing law by which this could be done, to make a new law to meet the case.’

In the same spirit, the India Company assumes, that because they have for a long time oppressed the helpless Natives, by a Stamp Tax in the PROVINCES, therefore it is just and expedient that they should similarly oppress the equally helpless English at the PRESIDENCIES; and the logic is indisputable, because it can be enforced if necessary at the point of the bayonet, and because if any Englishman refuses to admit its cogency, he can be transported without trial, which is a far more effective mode of silencing a man than by answering his arguments.

Arguments, it is true, have been advanced, some of them with great spirit and force; though, as yet, they appear to have made but little impression. Having repeated, however, the preamble to the Act, in which the whole principle of it is included, we shall first give the Petition of the inhabitants of Calcutta against its passing; and then add what may better follow than precede it. The Petition is as follows:

‘To the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council, the humble Petition of the British and Native Inhabitants of Calcutta.’

‘That your petitioners respectfully, but most earnestly, entreat the attention of your Lordship in Council to the Stamp Regulation lately promulgated, and which has excited the greatest apprehension and alarm among the British and Native inhabitants of Calcutta.’

‘2. In the preamble, it is stated to have been passed by the Vice-President in Council, under the powers vested in him by the 98th and 99th sec. 53d Geo. III., c. 155, and with the sanction of the Court of Directors, and the approbation of the Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India.’

‘3. Your petitioners have always understood that the statute adverted to, as vesting this power in the local Government, was limited to duties and taxes connected with Customs, and was passed for the express pur-

pose of obviating difficulties arising from the imposition of such duties and taxes, within the jurisdiction of the King's Court in India.

' 4. Your petitioners cannot think that the legislature intended to give to the local Government the right of unlimited taxation. They humbly submit, for the consideration of your Lordship in Council, that if the legislature had intended to bestow any general power of taxation beyond the subject-matter of Customs specifically mentioned, such power would have been introduced by a suitable preamble, reciting the expediency or exigency of the measure, and would have been strictly defined as to its extent. Your petitioners cannot think that Parliament would heedlessly bestow the dangerous power of unlimited taxation, by general expressions, unconnected with the subject-matter, and of dubious construction.

' 5. Fourteen years have nearly elapsed since the enactment of the 53d Geo. III., embracing periods of great public difficulty, when the country was engaged in expensive wars, yet no tax has ever been imposed under the authority of that statute; and your petitioners pray that a power which, if it exists, has thus slumbered since its creation, may not be called forth at a period of public peace and tranquillity, when they hope that the exigencies of the state cannot require its exercise, and in times of commercial pressure and difficulty, when individuals are ill able to bear it.

' 6. Your petitioners, in thus drawing the attention of your Lordship in Council to the legality of the regulation, and the important principle which it involves, cannot be misunderstood. They disclaim any wish or intention to question the power or authority of Government; they are only desirous of respectfully conveying to your Lordship in Council their opinion upon a subject of the greatest moment to their present and future interests.

' 7. With respect to the operation of the regulation, your petitioners are unable to express to your Lordship in Council the public inconvenience, embarrassment, and actual distress, that would inevitably follow its enforcement.

' 8. The Native Shroffs, in particular, have already taken the greatest alarm, and contemplate abandoning an occupation which they could not pursue without ruin, under the provisions of the Stamp regulation.

' 9. In every country such a tax must produce great inconvenience in its operation, and be attended with great vexation in its collection. But circumstanced as this country is, your petitioners avow their belief, that if the regulation should be carried into effect, commercial dealings would be impeded to a degree affecting public credit, and that money transactions would be wholly suspended.

' 10. Your petitioners have often experienced, and acknowledged most thankfully, the considerate attention always paid by Government to the opinion of the community when respectfully urged; and they entreat the attention of your Lordship in Council to the respectability and number of the signatures to this petition, evincing that it speaks the sentiments and opinions of the British and Native inhabitants of Calcutta.

' 11. Your petitioners abstain from troubling Government by going in detail through the regulation, and pointing out the evils likely to ensue from each provision. They do not believe that human wisdom could devise any regulation of the same general nature and character that would not, in its consequences, be injurious to the public and to Govern-

ment; and the prayer of their petition is, not for the modification, but total abolition of the measure.

' 12. In conclusion, your petitioners declare that no measure has ever been passed or proposed by Government which excited such general alarm and dissatisfaction; and they earnestly pray that your Lordship in Council will be pleased to allay such feelings, and restore public confidence, at a period of known commercial embarrassment, by annulling and abolishing the regulation in question, and your petitioners shall ever feel grateful.

To this Petition we shall append the legal opinion of one of the most talented and independent members of the Calcutta bar; whose name for the present we withhold, not knowing how far it may be safe to him to make it public through our pages, but vouching for its authenticity, and leaving the document to speak for itself. It is as follows :

CASE.

' Mr. ——— will be pleased to give his opinion :

' 1st. Whether the words of the Act 53 Geo. III. c. 155, sect. 98 & 99, empowers the Government to introduce a stamp tax like the one at present contemplated.

' 2d. If Mr. ——— be of opinion that the words of that Act of Parliament do confer such a power, he will be pleased to advise whether the Stamp Regulation, about to be introduced, requires to be registered in the Supreme Court before it can be put in force.

' 3d. Mr. ———'s opinion generally on this important subject will be acceptable, and as to the measures most proper to be pursued in order to prevent the introduction and operation of the Regulation in question.

Opinion.

' In giving my opinion on the questions submitted to me, I have endeavoured as much as possible to consider them in a strictly professional point of view, and to divest my mind, during the consideration of them, of any objections which I may entertain either to the principle of the tax, the authority by which it is to be imposed, or the nature of the provisions and penalties contained in the Regulation imposing it.

' I trust it is a position, beyond all dispute, that within the limits of the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, and within the pale of English law in this country, every individual resident enjoys the same rights and privileges as those which are enjoyed by Englishmen resident in England, except where those privileges have been curtailed or taken away by the express words of an Act of Parliament, or by regulations of the local Government, acting within the limits assigned to it by statute, and taking for its guides and landmarks the provisions of the law of England in analogous cases. Now, I need scarcely remark, that the rights of Englishmen, with respect to taxation, are rights guarded with peculiar jealousy by the constitution. The power to originate taxation resides exclusively with the representatives of the people, and is a power which, however used, is never surrendered. In the laxity of colonial administration there have been occasional deviations from the principles of the English constitution in this respect, and duties have from time to time, and in many places, been levied under the sole authority of the Crown,

or local Government; but though such deviations have existed, they have always been regarded with anxiety by the House of Commons, and in the end, as very recently in the cases of New South Wales and Gibraltar, and some years ago in this country, Acts have been passed to legalize them for the future, and to indemnify, for the past, those who sanctioned them. There can be no doubt, at least there is none in my mind, that before the Act of 53 Geo. III. c. 155., and the Act of the succeeding year, c. 105, every farthing that was levied within the limits of Calcutta, by way of tax, was levied against all law; and I look upon all arguments, drawn from the practices that may have prevailed here before the passing of the Act last-mentioned as utterly valueless. A custom or usage to bind any one, and under any circumstances, must have a legal origin, and this would contradict all known principles of law.

However, there can be no doubt now, that the privilege of taxing themselves has been taken away from the inhabitants of Calcutta by different sections of the two statutes already mentioned, and that authority to impose certain taxes has been thereby granted and confirmed to the local Government; but I have thought it not superfluous to make some preliminary observations on the principles and doctrine of the constitution of England in regard to taxation, in order to show, that if ever the question of how far the authority of the local Government extends in this matter should become a subject of discussion before a court of English law, the words of the statute, conferring an authority, which in such hands may be so dangerous, will and ought to receive a strict construction, and the authority so conferred will be confined within the narrowest boundaries.

With regard to the first question that I am asked, I feel bound to answer, that I have no doubt whatever that the words of the 98th and 99th sections of the 53d of the late King, chap. 155, do empower this Government to introduce a stamp tax, like the one at present contemplated. At first I had some doubt, and I went over the two sections, sentence by sentence, and considered them long and anxiously before I could be satisfied in giving such an opinion. The Tax proposed is not, in any fair or ordinary sense of the words, and certainly not in any scientific sense, a tax either upon persons or upon property; it is a tax upon the transfer of property, and all the instruments specified in the schedule annexed to the proposed regulation fall without the legal definition of property. Some are mere muniments and evidences, others what are technically termed 'choses in action,' instruments which give a right to property, the amount of which is either ascertained or not, according to circumstances, but which are not properly in themselves such as can become the subject of taxation; but when I find that the latter words of the 98th section give power to the Governor-General in Council to impose taxes, to be levied and paid upon and by all persons and property whatsoever, within Calcutta, in as ample a manner as they can now lawfully impose any duties or taxes, to be levied, raised, or paid upon or by any persons whomsoever beyond the limits of Calcutta, I am obliged to say that is impossible to use words more comprehensive. Taxes upon transfer of property, admitting them to be neither fairly included in the description of taxes upon property, nor taxes upon persons, are, unquestionably, taxes paid by persons; and when I recollect that, at the time of the passing this Act, a stamp duty actually existed in the provinces, and that even if none did exist, there can be no doubt of the power of the Governor-General in

Council to impose it there. I conceive there can be scarcely any mere doubt of their power to impose it here, under the words of this Act.

On the second point I have felt less difficulty in coming to the conclusion, that before the Regulation can be enforced by penalties, it must be registered in the Supreme Court. Whatever may be the powers or authority of the Government of the East India Company over the Natives of India, and beyond Calcutta,—within it, their power is created and limited by the Parliament of Great Britain; and their right to legislate for the town of Calcutta depends on the 36th section of the 13th Geo. III., which "makes it lawful for the Governor-General in Council to make such rules, ordinances, and regulations for the good, order and civil government of the settlement of Fort William, and the factories and places subordinate, or to be subordinate thereto, as shall be deemed just and reasonable, (such rules, ordinances, and regulations not being repugnant to the laws of the realm,) and to set, impose, inflict, and levy reasonable fines and forfeitures and penalties, for the breach or non-observance of such rules, ordinances, and regulations; but, nevertheless, the same, or any of them, shall not be valid, or of any force or effect, until the same shall be duly registered and published in the Supreme Court of Judicature, with the consent and approbation of the said Court;" and then an appeal is given to any person in India or England; and it is further provided that the King in Council may disallow such regulations. By the preamble of this Act, I find that it was passed to prevent various abuses in the administration and government of the East India Company, and there can be no doubt that it was mainly intended for the security of British subjects in India, from misrule and oppression on the part of the Company's Government, and gradually to introduce among their descendants and the Natives, institutions similar to those of England, when the time should arrive for it. Such being the intention of the Legislature, I look upon the provision contained in the 36th section as a trust, solemnly conferred upon the Judges, to serve as a safeguard for the rights of the people within their jurisdiction; as a sort of charter of right, conferred upon the people themselves, which cannot be taken away (being their only security) without the most express words of repeal, and enactments as precise and positive as those which established it. With this view of the provisions of the 36th section of the 13th Geo. III., I shall proceed to examine the question, whether the 99th section of the 53d Geo. III. cap. 155, empowering this Government to inflict penalties for the non-payment of the taxes and duties imposed by the 98th section of the same Act, abrogates the security given to the subject by the provisions of the 13th Geo. III. And I find that by the 99th section of the 53d Geo. III., the Governor-General in Council is empowered to "make laws and regulations, respecting duties and taxes, and to impose fines and penalties and forfeitures for the non-payment of them, or the breach of such laws or regulations in as full and ample a manner, as such Governor-General in Council may now lawfully make any other laws or regulations, or impose any other fines, penalties, or forfeitures, whatever." Now, within Calcutta what were the regulations which the Governor-General in Council could make, or the penalties which they could lawfully impose? None, absolutely none, whatever, without the sanction of the Supreme Court. And it is very remarkable that these words used in the 98th section, "or in any place whatever," giving the Government authority to impose the tax, are entirely omitted when the mode of enforcing it is pointed out, which shows, if there could be any doubt remaining of the intention of the Legis-

lature, that they did not intend to confide the levying of penalties to the discretion of the Government alone, for if the words had been (as in the preceding section) that Government should have power to inflict penalties in as full and ample a manner within Calcutta as they lawfully might in any other place *wherever*, there would have been an end of all doubt about their power, and their authority to inflict pains and penalties within Calcutta would have clearly co-extension with their power to tax. It may be contended that the 54th Geo. III. c. 105, shows that the Government can lawfully impose penalties without registration; but so far from it, it proves directly the reverse. In my observations at the outset, I have shown that no power but that of Parliament can tax; the fundamental principles of the English Constitution being, that those who are to pay, shall vote and grant, and the people even of the colonies are supposed to grant through the House of Commons. Before the Act of the 53d of the late king, therefore, I hold, that the Government and the Supreme Court together could not lawfully have raised any, the smallest tax, much less the Government alone. And of this opinion, evidently, was the Legislature, or there would have been no necessity for the Act of the 54th Geo. III. to remove doubts. That Act legalizes such orders, regulations, and usages, imposing taxes and penalties as existed before the Act of the 53d, and makes them binding as fully and effectually as if imposed under that Act, but no further; and though the Act of the 53d does give the Government authority to impose taxes without registration, it does not give them authority to impose any other penalties than such as before it they lawfully might. I acknowledge, however, that if any penalties had before the 54th Geo. III., been illegally and by usage imposed, as such penalties and usages are made lawful, 'any act of Parliament or law notwithstanding' such particular usages and penalties might even, though never levied by virtue of any registered regulation, have, by virtue of the sweeping words, 'any Act or law notwithstanding,' the force of law. But this would be the exception, not the rule.

It may be observed, that the 8th section of the 21st Geo. III., c. 70, might seem to exclude the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in matters of revenue, but from the very words of that section, which speak of collection according to the usage and practice of the country, it evidently relates to the revenue of the interior, and that only. And a reference to the preamble, and the whole scope and tenor of the Act, will render it still more abundantly evident that it is the revenue collected from the Natives, and acts done in pursuance of the orders of Government, relating to such collections, that are withdrawn from the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. By the 3d section of this very Act, all acts affecting British subjects are expressly declared to be within its jurisdiction, whether done in pursuance of the orders of Government or not; and by the 4th section, the Governor-General and Council are declared to have no authority to do, nor are they to be discharged or acquitted from the consequences of doing, any acts "than such of the same nature and description as they might lawfully do by the laws and statutes of this kingdom." I have already expressed my opinion, that they could not lawfully raise any the smallest tax within Calcutta; and if they could, this Act reserves expressly to the Supreme Court the jurisdiction over all orders respecting British subjects. Nothing in this Act, therefore, can affect the question of taxation under subsequent Acts, must less

the question of how and by whom penalties are to be imposed for the breach of them.

I think it proper to touch but briefly upon the provisions of the proposed Regulation, some of which are singularly objectionable. To enter into minor objections, would lead me to immense prolixity. I shall content myself with pointing out some of the most prominent. By the 16th paragraph of the 9th section of this Regulation, the heir, administrator, or person in charge of the effects of a deceased stamp-vender, who shall refuse to deliver the stamps remaining unsold, and all accounts relating thereto, that may be forthcoming among the effects of the deceased, or to allow search to be made whenever the stamp-collector chooses to demand to make search, is first made subject to a specific fine for each offence, and then is to be subject, besides, "to such daily fine, until the papers, documents, and writings required are furnished, as the Board of Revenue shall direct!" The sentence is ambiguous; it may mean either that the Board of Revenue is to have a discretionary and unlimited power of fining, so that they may fine a man all he is worth one day, and as much again the next; or it may mean this, which is the strict grammatical construction, that until the papers are furnished in such manner as the Board shall direct, the delinquent shall be subject to the specific fine before mentioned. The 18th paragraph of the same section is liable to sound objections; and the provisions of the first and second clauses of the 12th section, inflicting penalties upon the attorneys and agents of litigants, call also for remark. As unstamped papers will be legal evidence to all intents, and it may be no fault in English courts, whatever it may be in the Mofussil, that documents belonging to clients are not duly stamped before production, it would be the bounden duty of an attorney or counsel, to prevent the loss of a client's cause, to put in evidence on unstamped documents; and by the first of these paragraphs the mere exhibiting it for the purpose of proof is made punishable, and the interest and duty of attorneys and counsel is placed in perpetual opposition. By the second paragraph of the last named section, counsel and attorneys are subjected to penalties for exhibiting, &c. such papers as shall not have the signature of a licensed stamp-vender, which signature, for aught that appears in the regulation, may be made in the Bengalese, Persian, or any other character in the known world. The last objection which I shall notice is the greatest of all; and if ever that provision were executed it would cause the most grievous oppression. No contract or receipt for any sum, however small, is exempted from tax; the consequences of this, if executed, are obvious; fortunately it can never be enforced to any extent.

As my opinion is also requested on the measures to be pursued in order to prevent the introduction of this Regulation, I beg to say, that it is possible that as a private citizen I might have different views of the propriety of the measures, which, as a lawyer, I would recommend to be pursued. In the latter capacity, I should chiefly advise such measures as would in my judgment the most easily and speedily attain the end proposed. I should recommend, in this view, that the Government be respectfully requested to suspend the operation of the tax, and to use their endeavours to induce the Directors to lay it aside altogether. If this should fail, and the Judges were to register the Regulation, which, as at present framed, I most strongly doubt, I would advise a public application to be heard by counsel against it before registry, and afterwards an

appeal to the King in Council. And also a petition, to be agreed upon or sanctioned by a public meeting, praying that the power of taxing and levying penalties should be taken from the Government and the Supreme Court, and exercised by Parliament alone, unless the inhabitants of Calcutta, who are deemed qualified to pay, should also be deemed qualified to grant. And lastly, if the penalties of the Act should be attempted to be enforced without registration, I would advise a legal resistance to such attempt, the expenses to be defrayed by public subscription; and an appeal from the decision, if adverse, from the Court's deeming that it had no jurisdiction or any other reason, and the case were appealable; and a petition, nearly similar in its prayer to that which I have mentioned, except that it might be added by way of alternative, that if the Legislature thought fit still to intrust the Government with the power, it should at least interpose the necessity of registration in the Supreme Court.

Calcutta 1st March, 1827.

(Signed)

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To this, in the way of legal argument, nothing can be added. But we cannot resist the opportunity to close this series of observations and documents on a question of so much public interest in India at the present moment, by the remarks of an intelligent writer on the spot, and one more closely connected with the Government than many would imagine; yet, as will be seen, sufficiently identifying himself with the people to prevent his own commanding position from absorbing all sympathy with theirs. He says:

"The petition of the inhabitants of Calcutta against this first attempt at unlimited taxation is before the Vice-Governor, which has referred it to the Governor-General in the Upper Provinces. The Vice-Governor is, I believe, sincerely desirous of doing away the thing, as ill-timed and inconvenient to all; but without sacrificing the principle of our having the right to tax, how, and when, and to what extent we please. Lord Amherst, on the other hand, is attended by Holt Mackenzie, in quality of dry-nurse; and as this great financier happens to be the parent of the tax in question, and perhaps the most arbitrary-minded man under the shelter of quiet manners, that ever cursed a country, he does not choose to give up his child, the tax,—still less to yield to any such insolence as petitioning, from men who have nothing to do with the laws but obey them! The independent inhabitants, on the other side, that is, every European out of our service, and all the Natives who enjoy the protection of the Supreme Court and English laws and privileges, (when not expressly deprived of them by express Act of Parliament,) stand out on the principle, that this trading Government of a leasehold Company, having sinister interests, diametrically opposed in all matters of revenue to the governed, shall not be at liberty to tax, without limitation, without their consent, without even their knowledge of what is impending, without opportunity of opposing, or delaying, or appealing, without proof of necessity, without control over outlay of the taxes. They will not believe Parliament can contemplate giving such hideous power into the hands of three or four men, two of whom are strangers, with little know-

ledge or real influence, two devoted servants to the common enemy, (for so "our honourable masters," the Company, is most unceremoniously termed,) possessing, with their corps of functionaries and aspirant successors at their backs, the whole real power of the state.

"Our favourite argument (they say) is, "Why should Europeans, or Calcutta Natives, be exempt from taxes inflicted on those who live without the Mahratta Ditch?" And to this they reply, 1st, It does not follow that because A is unjustly or cruelly treated, an argument is furnished for depriving B of exemption from the same, if B have had the good fortune to escape heretofore, from whatever cause. 2dly, We must first prove that we ought to treat A in the way we do, and this they deny in the case of stamps, or law proceedings, or transfers of property. They say such taxes are wrong. 1. Because they are taxes on justice. 2. Because they are impediments to industry. 3. Because this country is in an infant stage of commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, and unable to bear this fresh burthen. 4. Because in no country where the Government absorbs all the rent of land, is there, or can there be, room for the European taxation of more advanced countries, where rent is in private hands. 5. Because we oppress the people, in addition, with monopolies of salt, opium, and silk, and privileges, and preferences, enjoyed by us as trading sovereigns. 6. Because experience has twice shown, that the stamps, except those on law proceedings, have been considered intolerable, and resisted successively, even by these prostrate Natives. 7. Because the people are so impoverished and miserable, backward and ignorant, to an inconceivable degree of depression, in the scale of mankind, and unable to bear more burthens.

"The independent Europeans (I mean those not in our service) fairly meet the question, and say, "If the tax, and the power imposing, and the way imposed, were all unexceptionable in regard to the Natives of the Provinces, we do not admit that we ought, therefore, to submit to it. For, 1. we have certain general constitutional rights, in common with all settlers and colonists from England, where not expressly deprived of such by law. 2. We are, by law, specially protected in those general rights by Parliament extending to us English laws, and courts, and privileges, except in specified cases; and the implied construction of a chance clause, or vague enactment, cannot take from us our birth-right. 3. We are the conquerors, and the mass of Natives the conquered; these last have no rights under the English Government but what are specially conferred—while we have all rights not specially taken away. 4. The few Natives who live in Calcutta, enjoy every right that Europeans do, by special enactments placing them under our judges and laws, and, in this respect, are on a different footing from our brethren in the provinces."

"This is a summary of the arguments used against us by the

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thinking part of the English merchants and others here; and I confess I do not see how they are to be met or controverted. The Government are perhaps wise, therefore, in refusing their sanction (as I believe they will) to any public meeting of the aggrieved; though some may think it would be better to let the meeting take place, and the opposition to the tax of our honourable masters evaporate, as it then would do, in words.

'The civil and military servants (whatever their private opinions) take no part in this matter,—indeed, why should they? It would only render them obnoxious, and thus do them much more injury individually, than they could effect good as particles of a collective body. Not half a dozen of either class have yet signed the petition; nor has it been allowed to be presented in person or by deputation, as was at first intended; the more orderly and established mode of sending it in through one of our Secretaries being all the favour shown it,—as that leads to no pledges, or civil compliments, on its acceptance or rejection.'

TESTIMONY OF APPROBATION FROM THE GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS
TO THE HONOURABLE MR. COLE.

To the Honourable Arthur Henry Cole, Resident, Mysoor.

SIR,—I am directed by the Honourable the Governor in Council to say, that this Government has frequently expressed its approbation of your public conduct as Resident at Mysoor, both on special occasions of difficulty and importance, and also in the general tenour of your proceedings, and at this time in particular, it is due to you and very gratifying to the Governor in Council to state how highly your qualifications for the distinguished office, so long filled by you, have been appreciated. The Governor in Council considers as eminently praiseworthy and deserving of imitation your zeal for the public honour and interests, your uniform concern for the personal wishes of his Highness the Rajah, and for the character and success of his government, and the frank and conciliatory disposition by which you have always secured the cordial co-operation of every authority whose duty it was to act in concert with you. With these sentiments, the Governor in Council instruct me to offer you the expression of his sincere esteem, and of his deep regret that the state of your health should deprive the Government of your further services. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) D. HILL, Chief Secretary.

Fort St. George Feb. 27, 1827

CLASSICAL EXCURSION FROM ROME TO ARPINO, THE BIRTH-
PLACE OF CICERO.

No. I.

THE heat began to be almost intolerable at Rome; neither was it mitigated by one of the loudest thunder-storms I ever remember to have witnessed. The fresher air of the snow-clad Apennines, and a wish to visit the birth-place of Cicero, invited me not reluctantly from the capital.

... Mihi jam non regia Roma,
Sed vacuum Tibur placet.

We were accompanied by a venerable Portuguese Jesuit, about to join his fraternity in Tivoli; 'comes Heliodorus, come ingenium; who had been in England as far back as the year 1769; and whose knowledge of the finer passages in Milton proved that he had not been there in vain. The sun was shooting a rich crimson tint on the ruins of Dioclesian's baths; a rotunda attached to which, Michael Angelo turned into a church; but the magnificent granite shafts, ill imitated by modern in brick and plaister, vindicate the glory of the first architect. About a mile from the gate of San Lorenzo, we reached a church dedicated to the same saint. It is only remarkable as having been lately proved by a distinguished antiquary resident at Rome, to have been built with the ruins of the portico of Octavia, which enclosed temples to Jupiter and Juno. Plinius tells us that Batrachus and Saurus, two Spartan architects, were employed by Augustus in the erection of these temples; and that in the volutes of the columns, they caused to be engraved a frog and lizard. Now in the eighth column that supports the roof of San Lorenzo, a frog, and lizard, illustrative of the names of the architects, appear. It is thus that the modern Romans have a perpetual whet-stone applied to their wits by the gigantic labours of their ancestors in art.

We rolled slowly along the old Via Tiburtina, supposed to have been first paved in the consulship of M. Valerius Maximus, in the year of the city ccccxlvii. Excavations that were made in the pontificate of Alexander VII. prove that it was thrice raised; three pavements in irregular polygonal masses having been then discovered, one above the other. Vestiges of the old trottoirs are occasionally visible. About two miles from the church of San Lorenzo, just before reaching the Anio, we traversed the spot where Hannibal pitched his camp after his battle with the proconsul Fulvius Flaccus. We may collect from history, that the Carthaginian general just saw Rome, and no more; as if his destinies permitted nothing further. Soon after crossing the bridge thrown over the Anio, and built by Mammea, the mother of Alexander Severus, we noticed remains of very ancient quarries on the opposite side of the stream. To our left was the spot where the consul Servilius defeated the Sabines; and five miles further, is the scene of another memorable victory gained

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by Ancus Martius over the early inhabitants of Lātium. Every rood of the Campagna has been fought and refought over.

We presently saw to the left the Lago de' Tartari, in colour like a bowl of cream, and of a sulphureous, nitrous, and petrifying quality. It is perhaps one of the most active petrifying waters known; for it gradually transforms into stone the plants and reeds that grow for some paces round. A constant fermentation penetrates the pores of the weeds with stony particles; the lake is shallow, and its basin is a light and porous turf. A few paces beyond, we crossed the hoary Albula, which flows into the Anio by a channel cut by one of the princes of the house of Este. It rises from the Lago Sulfureo, celebrated for the oracular groves of Faunus, mentioned in the well-known lines of Virgil. When Kircher saw this lake, he found it about a mile in circuit; but it is now much reduced in size. It undergoes a perpetual diminution from the unctuous and bituminous matter which floats on its surface. Dust and seeds transported by the wind adhere to it, and in process of time little islands are formed, which, blown to the shores, of course become more compact. None of these bituminous islets exceed ten feet in length. A century or two may possibly thus annihilate the lake, or reduce it to a bituminous marsh. Kircher affirms that it is 'imperscrutabilis profunditatis;' the depth however has been ascertained to be from sixty to one hundred and seventy feet. The force of Virgil's line, 'sævum exhalat opaca mephitim,' is here sensibly felt by every traveller; for the atmosphere, for more than a mile round, is impregnated with a fetid sulphureous effluvia.

We almost immediately reached the Ponte Lucano, either so called from the Lucus Tiburti, or from Marcus Plautius Lucanus, one of the Plautian family, whose sepulchre, half covered with ivy, still claims the grandiosità of the Romans in their monumental buildings. It is built of Tiburtine stone, and of the same form as that of Cecilia Metella, but very inferior in elegance of design. The illustrious family of the Plautii gave eighteen consuls to Rome. Aulus Plautius was the conqueror of Caractacus; and Claudius having decreed him an ovation, went out to meet him on his return from Britain. Another of this family having been named by the senate to take command of a naval force destined for Asia, lost his wife at Tarentum. As he ascended the funeral pile to take a last farewell, he was so affected that he killed himself. They were both buried in a common tomb, called by the Tarentines, Sepulchrum Amantium.*

The freshness of the Tiburtine groves, the murmur of the cascatelle, the moon shining in her fullest splendour, formed a most grateful contrast to the suffocating heat of the Campagna, that pestilens et aridum solum, as it is called by Titius Livius; and we just recognised, by the silver light, the immense ruins of the Villa

* De Sanct. Famil. Plautia.

Adriana, surrounded by its pine and cypress groves, and various as the character of its founder: 'idem severus, lætus, comis, gravis, lascivus, cunctator, tenax, liberalis, simulator, sævus, clemens, et semper in omnibus varius.'*

We drove to the Regina, an inn which I have little doubt provided us with better fare than Horace enjoyed with his Glycera, Propertius with his Cynthia, or Catullus with his Lesbia, when they sojourned at Tibur. Nothing is wanting to make the environs of this Roman Richmond of perfect beauty but a greater variety of trees to break the grey monotony of the olive.

Tibur, according to the most numerous authorities, was built before Rome, by a troop of Greeks from the Peloponnesus, under the conduct of Tibertus, Catilus, and Coras, three Argive brothers. It long subsisted an independent republic; and did not submit to the capital before A. U. C. ccccxv. It appears that the Tiburtine commonwealth had a high idea of its importance; for on soliciting assistance from Rome, against an invasion threatened by the neighbouring tribes, the ambassadors dwelling at large on the favours that the Romans owed on a similar occasion to Tibur, the only reply that they obtained from the senate was, 'Superbi estis!'† We find nothing interesting respecting its fate after its annexation to the capital. In the lower ages, the inhabitants were put to the sword by the soldiers of Totila;‡ subsequently an irruption of the Germans desolated the town. Frederic Barbarossa rebuilt the walls, and Pius II. strengthened them with a fortress, which he built with the ruins of an amphitheatre. It was always a favourite retreat of the opulent Romans, both in ancient and modern times.

The monopteral temple of Vesta was our first object, of which the late Lord Bristol was so enamoured, that he offered a considerable sum to transport it to his park in England; but the government wisely interposed, and prohibited its removal. The lover of art betrays nothing but absurdity in wishing to remove whole buildings from their accustomed site. What but a ridiculous ostentation could suggest the removal, for instance, of either of the Pæstan temples, which might be imitated at less cost at home, and at the same time call forth the talents of native workmen? We even prefer to see the temple of Erechtheus, surrounded as it is by monuments of Turkish barbarism, than placed in the sprucest lawn, laid out by the Reptons and the Browns. The capitals of the temple of Vesta, like every composite specimen, are of an indifferent style; and the building is, I suspect, of a later date than the Augustan age. Contiguous is the Ionic temple of the Sybil, as it is called. An inscription found in it, rather tends to prove that it was dedicated to Drusilla, the sister of Caligula.

* AEL. Spartian. in Vit. Adrian.

† Servius ad Æn. VII.

‡ Procopius.

The building presents a rare specimen of the *prostyle, tetrastyle*, and pseudoperipteral dispositions. But the noblest monument of Tibur was the temple of Hercules, situated on a commanding height, and now occupied by the cathedral. Remains of the cella are still visible, and it was about eighty-four palmi in length. Hercules was the tutelary deity of the Tiburtines; and is frequently mentioned by the classic authors: by Propertius:

‘Curve te in Herculeum deportant cœda Tibur?’

by Silius Italicus:

‘Quoque sub Herculeis taciturno flumine muris,
Pomifera arva creant, Anienicolæque Catilli.’

and by Martial: ”

‘Itur ad Herculei gelidas qua Tiburis arces,
Canaque sulphureis Albula fumat aquis.’

After surveying the upper falls of the Anio, we descended to the Grotta di Nettuno, to facilitate the approach to which, the French General Miolis, with a commendable public spirit, has lately raised a convenient flight of steps. All unprejudiced travellers must, indeed, be sensible of the advantages which Italy has derived from the impulse given by the French invasion. Indeed it may be safely averred that no nation ever reaped so great a compensation for the incursion of foreign troops. What shall I say of the Mount Cenis, and of its noble road, carried over steeps usually hidden in the clouds? What of the more stupendous work at the Simplon, where the traveller and merchant, after ascending twenty-five miles from Domo d'Ossola, and traversing four galleries cut through the solid rock, finds an excellent inn, five thousand feet above the sea? What of the Valais, where before there were only seen a few solitary mules, monumental crucifixes, and gaping Crétins, now animated by rich and frequented inns, necessarily occupying a numerous peasantry? What of the bridges thrown across noisy Rhodanus, pontem indignatus, before he hides himself in ill-humour? Thrice have I traversed these Alpine passes, and thrice was I amazed. The pen of the historian will not fail to do justice to these stupendous works, not less useful than magnificent. Care also will be taken not to forget the barrow-wheelers, the rock-blasters, the superintending directors, who were actually upon the spot, and with whom the principal merit lies.

But to return to the cascades of the Anio. The prismatic colours by a complicated process of reflection and refraction, described a nearly horizontal circle, which, reflected again under the white foam, presented a spectacle as novel as it was beautiful. But it is from the Grotta della Sirena that the Anio appears in all its magnificence. Here you command the three upper cascades, while the river at your feet is precipitated with a thundering noise, which seems to shake the dark vault that receives it. Luxuriant vines were bend-

ing around with the pizzoutella grape, of a curved and very oblong shape, but insipid flavour.

Crossing the Anio, we continued our walk *circa mite solum Tiburis, et mœnia Catili*? and having made the circuit of the chasm formed by the river, soon reached the deserted convent of Saint Antonio, built on the foundations of Horace's Tiburtine villa. There is no reason for attacking long-established tradition, when it does not revolt probability. Suetonius, in his sketch of the life of Horace, (and it can be called nothing more,) tells us, ‘domus ejus ostenditur circa Tiburtinum luculum.’ Here we found an apartment inlaid with tessellated pavement, and two arched chambers, one of which probably contained a bath, for it terminates in a semicircular recess at the end. The walls were covered with a nitrous efflorescence. It is probable that the simplicity of the poet's retreat formed a striking contrast to the splendour of the palace of his friend, Quintilius Varus, hard by, and to that of his patron, Mæcenas, opposite, the immense substructions of which prove that that dexterous minister loved even in the country, ‘molem propinquam nubibus arduis.’

Crossing the lower Anio, by the old Roman bridge, we reached the picturesque remains of the villa of this celebrated minister, now turned into an iron manufactory. It consisted of a vast range of porticos surrounding a theatre and two courts, supported by Roman Doric pillars below, and Ionic above. Several of the Doric half columns towards one of the principal courts still remain. Streams cut from the Anio flow through the ruins in all directions, and are tumbled into the valley through the broken and moss-grown arches.

We wandered with considerable pleasure over the terraces, still cæcæred with the intonaco trodden by the great men of the Augustan age, ‘who no doubt were magnificently entertained with intellectual, and sensual pleasures, by the ‘*mel gentium*,’ the ‘*ebur ex Etruria*,’ the ‘*Cilniorum smaragdus*,’ as Augustus called his favourite minister, satirically alluding to his loose and bombastic idiom. Mæcenas will always rank high among that supple class of ministers who love to arrange things snugly and comfortably for themselves and their master. He had none of the grandeur of Agrippa. But his noble patronage of art and talent, and the speech which he delivered in favour of the establishment of the empire, in opposition to the sentiments of Agrippa for the restoration of the republic, and which is transmitted to us by Dio Cassius, prove him a man of no ordinary stamp.

Of the more than thirty Tiburtine villas, which Sickler in his topography of Latium enumerates, one of the most interesting, in point of recollections, is that which belonged to Caius Cassius. The ‘*Fundus Cassianus*’ is mentioned in an ancient chronicle of Tivoli, dated as far back as A. D. 945; and considerable foundations of it

are still seen on the Via di Carciano (quasi Cassiano), to the south of the modern town. The ruins consist of eighteen spacious chambers, decorated on the outside with Doric columns. But nothing shows the former magnificence of this villa more than the discovery among its ruins, of the eight muses, and Apollo Citharæus of the Vatican, besides a Faun, a Pallas, and three Hermes of the sages of Greece, together with several granite shafts and mosaics. It is more than probable that these, or the major part, were the property of Caius Cassius; for the Romans, under the empire, attached a sort of veneration to what belonged to the illustrious men of the republic; the purchasers of their property often leaving it untouched; and this we may collect from Plinius and the anecdotal authors. It would appear then that Cassius, though a staunch republican, was not insensible to the delights of a magnificent country retreat. Here it is supposed the conspiracy against Cæsar was projected and arranged. Near the villa of Caius Cassius, they pretend to show that which belonged to Marcus Brutus. It is not, however, so well authenticated as the first. We may nevertheless conclude that he had a villa at Tibur; for Cicero, in his 'pro Cluentio,' mentions the Tiburtine villa of M. Brutus, who was a distinguished jurisconsult, and by whom it was probably bequeathed to his relation, the friend and exterminator of Cæsar. Many interesting discoveries have been made among the ruins, which prove that it was magnificently adorned.

We should not, however, attempt by a too close investigation, to destroy the illusion (if illusion it be) of treading the spot where Brutus entertained his friends:

'Whose life was gentle, and the elements
So mix'd in him, that nature might stand up,
And say to all the world: This was a man.'

We loitered with pleasure among the trees and fountains of the villa d'Este above. Michael Angelo designed one, and called it the Queen of the Fountains; it is at any event superior to the rest, which consist of little farthing Cupids, squirting water in rows.

'O altas pinus, admirandasque cupressus
Estensis villæ, latè quæ prospicit agros
Incultos Latii, prostrataque mœnia Romæ!'

The cypresses deserve, indeed, a better tribute. They are worthy of the lyre of Gray, or any other poet, 'qui fortasse cupressum scit simulare.'

No spot in the environs of the capital, not even the heights of Frascati, overlook a more extensive range of the Campagna than the garden of the villa d'Este. To the right below, near the sulphureous sources of the Albula, the deposit of which forms the Tiburtine stone, we gazed with pleasure on a verdant hill-top, where formerly stood the retreat of Zenobia, the accomplished and inte-

resting queen of Palmyra. She has thus been described by Pollio, a contemporary writer: 'forma corporis egregia, oculis supra modum vigentibus, et nigris; tanto candore in dentibus, ut margaritas eam plerique habere putarent; vox præterea clara et virilis.' She appears to have been one of those rare creatures occasionally lent us to admire, while the pleasure which we feel in the contemplation of their excellencies is dashed by the despair of being able to imitate them.

Augustus, we find from Suetonius, was partial to Tibur, where he tempered pleasure with the duties of the chief magistracy: 'præcipuè frequentavit proxima urbi oppida, Lanuvium, Præneste, Tibur, ubi etiam in porticibus Herculis jus persæpedixit.' Augustus, though not exempt from petty vanities, and some acts of cruelty, during the ferment of the civil wars; though we cannot contemplate him with that satisfaction which we should had he filled his office on pure elective principles, will always pass a rare example among sovereigns, of a trying and unparalleled course of prosperity gradually meliorating the complexion of the heart.

Leaving the 'domus Albunæ resonantis,' and its numerous recollections, we followed the Via Valeria to Vico-Varo, distant from Tivoli nine miles. The road was so called from Marcus Valerius Maximus, who, we learn from Livius, paved it in the year of the city cccxlvii. Its former magnificence is confirmed by the substructions which supported it near the Anio, and fragments of bridges still visible, which traversed streamlets and small ravines. It was only fifteen feet in width, and like the Via Tiburtina, paved with polygonal flags. We had Mount Catillus on our left, now surmounted with a crucifix. We passed, to our right, the ruins of the pretended villa of Syphax, king of Numidia; but the inscription found, as is said, on its site, with his name inscribed, in the fifteenth century, is of apocryphal authority. We may, however, infer from Livius, that that African sovereign, after having been confined a prisoner at Alba, on the Fucine lake, was removed to Tibur, where death rescued him from the ignominy of adorning the triumph of Scipio.

After passing vestiges of ancient sepulchres, and the remains of a 'villa incognita,' we reached Vico-Varo, which would have escaped the notice of posterity had it not been mentioned by Horace as the seat of a rustic Sabine senate. We remarked a stratum of lava to the left, the origin of which perplexes mineralogists, for no indications of a crater are visible in the environs, and the volcanic current lies, as if dropped from the clouds. To account for this, some have imagined that the Solfatara below Tivoli is a depressed volcano, which certain appearances near the cascade, and a steep called il Monte Spaccato, or the Split Mountain, tend to confirm.

The picturesque ruins of an aqueduct which crossed the Anio,

and conveyed the Aqua Claudia to Rome, were the only objects which compensated for the filth and barbarism of Vico-Varo. The peasants, who are ill clad, speak a very uncouth dialect; thus, for Vico-Varo, they say, 'Wico-War.' They fasten wooden soles to their feet, tied with packthread, like the straps of the old Roman sandal. The next morning early, we reached the confluence of the Licenza (Digentia), with the Teverone (Anio), and after following the right bank of the former stream for about three miles, we arrived at Rocca Giovane, built on a steep surrounded by olives and chesnuts, and close to the site of the Fanum Vacunæ, mentioned by Horace. Vacuna has been thought, by some of his commentators, the goddess of leisure; Lilius Giraldus says, it is synonymous with Minerva; Varro, with Victoria. The opinion of the last seems confirmed by the following inscription found near the temple:

IMP. CAESAR. VESPASIANUS.
PONT. MAX. TRIB. POT.
CENSOR. AED. EM. VICTORIAE.
VETUSTATE DILAPSAM.
SUA IMPENSA.
RESTITUIT.

A prostrate brick wall covered with cement, and the portion of a small conduit which supplied the temple with water, were all that we could find of the Fanum putre Vacunæ.

Descending by a very rough path into the vale below, we reached a group of Spanish chesnuts, healthy and vigorous, like the genius of the amiable poet, on the site of whose Sabine farm they grew. Covered with brambles, there are a few layers of brick-work well preserved; there are also two frusta of columns with plinths, hewn out of one stone; and these are the reputed remains of the Horatian villa. There appears, however, to be some doubt as to the actual site. Padre Piazzi places it in a neighbouring valley: Cluverius thinks that it was nearer Umbria; but it is, I apprehend, more than probable that it stood in this valley of the Licenza, in which we easily recognise Digentia; in the village of Bardela, Mandela, built on an exposed point, 'rugosus frigore pagus,' add to the neighbourhood of the Fanum Vacunæ and of Varia; while the dry and stony bed of the Digentia shows that it is liable to sudden swells, alluded to by the poet:

'Multâ mole docendus aprico parcere prato.'

The Fons Bandusiae has been lately shown by Mr. Hobhouse to be in the neighbourhood of Venosa, the birth-place of the bard; but the sources of the Digentia are cold and pure enough to correspond with the descriptive lines:

'Fons etiam rivo dare nomen idoneus, ut nec
Frigidor Thraciam, nec purior ambiat Hebrus.'

The lofty and snow-capt Monte Gennaro, which makes such a figure in the landscape seen from Rome, surrounds the site of the

villa to the west and the south, and is most likely the Lucretilla of the poet. It protected his flocks then equally from the summer heats, pluviisque ventis, accompanying the scirocco.

Be it as it may, the scanty fragments which we found amply compensated a sultry ride up an arid Sabine valley; for, of all the Latin poets, Horace is certainly the most original; and the best proof of this is the impossibility of imitating him with success. The harmonious majesty of Virgil, the sonorous pomp of Lucan, the philosophical dignity of Lucretius, the spleen and energy of Juvenal, the elegiac tenderness of Tibullus and Propertius, and the amorous fire of Ovid, have been sometimes caught by good scholars. But the style of the argute Venusian, especially in his satires and epistles, like the 'grata protervitas' of his 'Glyceria,' has hitherto bid defiance to the most refined student. His 'curiosa felicitas' escapes both Pope and Boileau; though it must be confessed that we are indebted to the last for a more perfect art of poetry.

Quitting the Horatian villa, we regained the Via Valeria, and following the course of the Anio to our right, proceeded by the Via Sublacensis to Subiaco, a place known in ancient geography under the title of the Simbrivine ponds, and distant from Vico-Varo about twenty miles. We presently crossed the Rio Freddo, which was transported to Rome on a course of arches sixty-one miles in length, under the title of Aqua Marcia. It corresponds with the description of it given by Frontinus: 'penè statim stagnino colore præviridi,' being of an emerald green; and water, when very pure, seems of that colour. It is thus that the Spaniards have their Rio Verde in a celebrated romance. About a mile further to the left, are also the sources of the Aqua Claudia, which, according to Plinius, travelled to the capital on a range of arches not less than forty-six miles in length. We left Aosta to our right, the ancient Augusta, built on a precipitous and insulated rock in the midst of the valley. Five miles beyond is Subiaco, which Nero made conspicuous with his villa. Sublaquem, under the lakes, or, as we might translate it, under the halter, seems an appropriate residence for such a tyrant. Tacitus tells us, that at a banquet given here by that abortion, the tables were struck and upset by a thunderbolt; we should, however, remember that the Roman historians, and especially Tacitus, are fond of giving effect to great occurrences by the intervention of the thunder of Jove: 'Discumbentis Neronis apud Simbrivina stagna, cui Sublaquem nomen est, ictæ dapes mensaque disjecta erat.'* A monk of the Altieri family has lately unearthed several apartments of the Neronian villa. The modern town is better built than Tivoli, and a lofty and spacious feudal castle of the lower ages commands it. Hither St. Benedict retired, the founder of one of the most hospitable and sensible of the monastic orders; and a cave is shown near the

* Annal. xiv. c. 22.

town, where the saint offered up his orisons. Subiaco is interesting as having been the first place in Italy where printing-presses were established; and according to Tiraboschi, the works of Lactantius, and the 'De Oratore' of Cicero, were the first productions of the first Italian press, established in a monastery at Subiaco. Rock-crystal is found in the neighbouring cliffs.

We had now entered the narrow defiles of the Appennines, and the Nidus of the Italian Aborigines, who, like the Autochthones of Greece, despised the neighbouring tribes, who owed their origin to colonies. Whence they came is matter of dispute. Cato tells us in a fragment, 'Primo Italiam tenuisse quosdam qui Aborigines appellabantur;' and Justin says, that they were the first cultivators of Italy. They were believed by some to have come from Achaia. Festus, speaking of them, says: 'Fuit gens antiquissima Italiae.' Their savage habits and life are alluded to by Virgil in the following line:

'Gensque virum truncis et duro robore nata,'

and by Sallust: 'Genus hominum agreste, sine legibus, sine imperio, liberum atque solutum.' Janus and Saturnus were two of their chiefs, who imparted to them the rudiments of civilization, and like the heroes of Greece, were subsequently deified:

'— Genus indocile ac dispersum montibus altis
Composuit, legesque dedit,'

says Virgil, speaking of Saturnus. Dionysius of Halicarnassus is so confused in his account of these Aborigines, or, as some have called them, Aberrigines, that he leaves us as much in the dark as before. The two insurmountable difficulties among the Italian antiquaries, are the origin of this race, and that of the Tuscans. It is amusing to trace the contradictory statements of the learned respecting the last. Their descent perplexed the ancients as well as moderns. Herodotus tells us that they came from Lydia; Varro, and Aristides quoted by Strabo, will have it that they are Pelasgians; Bochart, that they came from Canaan or Phœnicia; Buonaroti, from Egypt; while Pelloutier, Freret, and others, maintain that they were of Celtic origin. It is probable that the Aborigines and the Tuscans were indigenous in the strict sense of the word; placed in Italy by the immediate act of the Deity, like Adam in Mesopotamia.

But circumstances had occurred which threw a chill over the enjoyment we should have otherwise felt, in witnessing the actual condition of this uncouth tribe. There was one Dicesaris, an aboriginal compound of bigotry, activity, and cruelty; the Cæsar Borgio of the Appennines. At the head of a troop of banditti, as fearless as himself, he had spread terror to the gates of Rome, and had insulted, perhaps intimidated, the authorities, by demanding a considerable ransom for an individual of note, whose person he had secured. The Papal troops had been despatched in quest of him,

and a few days before we left Rome, they had found his wife and family at the village of St. Prassedi, whom, by a summary legal process, they had murdered in cold blood. Dicesaris, in consequence, was wandering in the heart of the Appennines, rabid as a wounded lion, and breathing slaughter and revenge. Informed, however, at Subiaco, by the magistrate and papal military officer, that he had not been heard of, or seen in that vicinity, we crossed the Anio, now reduced to a streamlet, and we saw the mountain beyond, 'unde Aniega fluëta.'

Ascending for more than a league, we reached an extensive plain, covered with fine turf, bounded by a noble amphitheatre of Appennines, and fringed with woods to their very base. At the eastern extremity rose the Monte Porcaro, the ancient 'Mons Præclarus, præclara magnitudine!' Numerous herds were grazing; and here we noticed a species of thistle, with stalks and leaves of a pale blue colour. We entered, by a meridian sun, this silent forest of oak and beech, the leaves of which as they rustled, seemed to whisper Dicesaris. On approaching the village of Anticoli, which I do not find occupying the site of any ancient town, we saw a multitude of peasants and herdsmen assembled on a sort of rude terrace to witness a horse-race. Their appearance was uncouth and picturesque in the extreme. They were clad chiefly in sheep-skins, and wore red caps. The better class were armed. They reminded me of the Nogai Tartars in the south of Russia. These modern Aborigines, with black dishevelled hair, and olive complexions, who rent the air with barbarous yells as we passed, corresponded with the description of their ancestors, transmitted to us by Virgil:

'Horrida præcipue cui gens, assuetaque multo
Venatu nemorum duris Equicola glebis;
Armata terram exercent, semperque recentes
Convectare juvat prædas, et vivere rapto.'

Not desirous of entering our palfreys at the Anticoli races, we journeyed to Alatri (Alatrium), a town that figures in the comedy of the 'Captives of Plautus.' We arrived there at dusk, after having passed through a country wooded by nature, like the noblest parks of England. Alatri is one of the five Saturnian cities; there are four others which claim their origin from that unknown hero styled Saturnus. They all begin with the first letter of the alphabet, and are as follows: Alatri, Anagni, Atina, Arce, and Arpino. There is something inexpressibly striking to the mind on entering a city like Alatri, the origin of which is lost in the impenetrable mist of ages. There are no cities in England of which we have any authentic records, earlier than Julius Cæsar; there are not many in France; we can trace the origin of them all, at least as soon as they began to assume any commercial importance. The same will apply to the Spanish cities, with the exception, perhaps, of Tarazona, the origin of which is involved in obscurity. There is no

city in Sicily of which we have not authentic data; tradition respecting the Greek colonies is also pretty satisfactory; but enter any one of the five Saturnian, or the twelve Etrurian cities; ask about what period were laid the colossal substructions, remains of which are in all more or less visible. The person whom you interrogate, be he a Cluverius, is mute. You might as well hope to obtain satisfactory information respecting the oldest ruins in India, Persia, or Egypt, which have always perplexed and will perplex antiquaries. All that we can conclude is, that Alatri is a city of the Italian Aborigines, founded at some remote and unknown period, probably by Saturnus, who, after imparting some few ideas of civilization among his followers, was venerated by them, and subsequently, with Janus, (whose temples were common in the Appennines,) crept into Rome as the tutelary deities of the republic.

It would be well if a new Janus or Saturnus could re-appear in the Appennines to propagate fresh ideas of social order; for here are an unreasonable number of the priesthood, and the same 'exitiabilis superstitio' as in the capital. If any one were to ask whether I found any signs of order, civilization, or a cheerful and active peasantry, (and no country offers more resources for the formation of the latter,) I could not reply better than in the words of the comedian, in the 'Captives of Plautus': 'Ou tan Soran, ou tan Segnian, ou ton Frousinona, ou to Alatrion, per barbaricas urbes jurans.' The lands in this part of the Appennines are very unequally divided among great and small proprietors. The church dignitaries and monastic establishments hold at least two-thirds of them in mortmain. The next considerable proprietors are the Roman nobles; and the next, the provincial landholders; the agricultural classes possess little or nothing. A saddle-horse costs from thirty to forty scudi; a sheep, two; a ploughing-ox, thirty; a draught-ox, forty-five to fifty scudi; a dozen of eggs, ten baiocchi; mutton and beef, per pound, five; bread, per pound, two and a half; a flask of wine, five; and one day's work in a vineyard, twenty baiocchi. Women are employed in the fields, as well as boys; but they only receive one-half of the men's wages. If their hirers allow them food, one-half of the salary is deducted.*

On leaving Alatri, by an ancient gateway, we noticed considerable remains of walls, called Cyclopiæ. One of the masses presents an uncouth figure in relief, probably of Saturnus. The style of the walls resembling those of Tyrrhenus and Mycenæ, seen by Mr. Dodwell and Sir William Gell, proclaims an almost antediluvian antiquity.

We reached Veroli the next morning, distant from Alatri seven miles. It is better built than any place we had seen since leaving Subiaco: and the churches are handsome and substantial. *It gave,

* Communicated to the author by a trust-worthy individual of Rome.

however, more the idea of a people preparing against invasion, than engaged in usual peaceable pursuits. Many of the inhabitants were assembled in the market-place, armed with fusils swung across their shoulders. 'Qui siemo barbari,' observed a priest, as we were endeavouring to procure some distant resemblance to a breakfast at a coffee-house in the Piazza. The appearance of his countrymen confirmed the truth of his observation. Veroli is built on the ruins of the ancient Verulæ, only mentioned, I believe, by Florus. The view that it commands of the Appennines to the east, and of Frus- none in the circumjacent plain, equals in grandeur any of the finest scenery that Italy can boast.

We had not left Veroli five minutes, before the Saturnian Arpino appeared on an eminence to the east, though full twenty miles distant, and exactly as Tullius describes it in one of his letters to Atticus, wherein quoting Homer, he says:

ΤΡΗΧΕΙ' ΑΛΛ' ΑΓΑΘΗ ΚΟΤΡΟΤΡΟΦΟΣ,

I added with all my heart,

ΟΤΤΙ ΕΤΟΙΜΕ

ΗΣ ΓΑΙΗΣ ΔΥΝΑΜΑΙ ΓΑΥΚΕΡΩΤΕΡΟΝ ΑΛΛΟ ΙΔΕΣΘΑΙ.

It must be observed, that the cities in the Appennines, like most of those that derive their origin from the infancy of societies, are built on bold eminences. We descended for more than two leagues, and reached the vast monastery of San Giovanni, one of the wealthiest in the Pontifical States, and situated, as all similar establishments should be, in complete retirement. A few of these institutions might be adopted with advantage in every civilized state, provided their revenues be very moderate. When the British Henry VIII. destroyed them all at one fell swoop, he did not apparently take into account that some of his species are destined by nature for a life of meditation and retreat from the ferment of the world; which can no where be so effectually obtained as in a well-regulated monastery. On the other hand, those states that adopt them would do well, to avoid imitating several of the Italian, and trebly Catholic Spain, which pamper the occupants of religious houses with preposterous revenues, drained from the panting lungs and swollen muscles of whole districts.

The country here began to assume a more cultivated and less pastoral appearance; and after traversing a tract diversified with vines, poplars, and maize, we arrived at a white cottage, surrounded with noble cypresses, which proved to be the Neapolitan custom-house, and the boundary of the two states. We were not long detained; for the great bugbear, Dicesaris, naturally made us compress our portmanteaus into as small and invisible a size as possible. The road was enlivened by a party of Arpino ladies, escorted by their cavalieri. I know not whether Tullia, in her airings with her father and mother, rode like them astride. The custom, which

ought to be honoured rather in the breach than the observance, is not uncommon with the better classes of the Roman ladies; several of whom I have often met about Frascati and the Tusculan groves equipped in this manner. We might naturally conclude from this, that the Italian ladies are uncouth and masculine in their habits. Few countries, however, can boast a fair sex more happily disposed than Italy. Their regular attendance at church, and general cultivation of music, preserve a serenity of temper, and suavity of manner, which harmonize admirably with the female character. They may be described as moderately accomplished; neither do they bristle with mathematics, metaphysics, nor discussions on evanescent strata, or oxymuriatic acids. The charge of infidelity in marriage, too often substantiated, is more to be attributed to the profligate habits of their partners, than to their own inclinations.

S O N G.

Translation from a Spanish version of the Estelle of Florian.

TELL me, ye shepherds, have ye seen
A youth of bold yet tender mien,
Whom but to see, deep love inspires,
And whom to know still fans its fires?
'Tis my beloved!—the youth resign,
For I am his, and he is mine.

If with his voice your woods resound,
And Echo, charm'd, repeat the sound;
If, listening with enraptured ear,
His tuneful reed your damsels hear;
'Tis doubtless he!—the youth resign,
For I am his, and he is mine.

If, with the tale his eyes proclaim
Your nymphs enamour'd feel a flame;
If modesty and sportive ease,
Combined in him, unite to please,
'Tis my beloved!—the youth resign,
For I am his, and he is mine.

Attracted by his fleecy store,
Should some one but a lamb implore—
And he, to tenderest Pity true,
With the young lamb should give the ewe,—
Oh, then, 'tis he!—the youth resign,
For I am his, and he is mine.

FOSSIL REMAINS IN AVA.

A FRIEND who has hastily examined the fossil remains lately brought from Ava, has furnished us with the following brief sketch of these very interesting monuments.

With the help of Cuvier's great work, '*Recherches sur les Ossemen's Fossiles*,' I have cursorily examined the fine collection of Fossil Remains, which have lately been brought from Ava, and, although unequal to the difficult task of rendering an account of it, I offer you the following sketch, seeing that there is little chance of its falling soon into hands more competent. The collection, which is very large, consists of fossil bones, fossil shells, and fossil wood.

Of the fossil bones, the most numerous and remarkable are those of an animal about the size of a large elephant. In the sketch given in your paper of the late mission to Ava, these are stated to be the bones of the mammoth. This is a mistake. The mammoth is an extinct species of the elephant, differing from the two living species, the African and Indian. The remains of this animal have only been found in Europe, and chiefly in Siberia. The Burman fossil bones are, unquestionably, those of the mastodon, as may be clearly seen by comparing, as I have done, the grinders, with those of the Indian elephant, as well as the accurate descriptions and representations of both in the work of Cuvier. In the different species of elephants, the crown of the molares, or grinders, is marked by superficial transverse bands. In the mastodon, the form is widely different, the crown being marked by deep transverse furrows and ridges, the latter divided into two or more obtuse pyramidal points or mamillæ. It was this singular appearance which made the mastodon a long time be considered erroneously as a carnivorous animal. Five species of the genus mastodon are supposed, by Cuvier, to have been discovered, and I imagine the bones now under consideration will be found to constitute a sixth species, for the molares, on which he principally rests for his specific distinctions, differ very materially from the representations which he has given of the ascertained species. The mastodon of Ava, if it be a distinct species, will be found equal in size to the great mastodon of the Ohio, which is reckoned to be equal in size to the Indian elephant. A grinder, which I examined, measures in circumference between sixteen and seventeen inches, and the circumference of a humerus, round the condyles, is not less than twenty-five inches. Several of the grinders and bones, however, apparently of an animal of the same species, are much smaller than these, but this is, probably, on account of their belonging to younger individuals. I need hardly observe, that our mastodon, like others of the same genus, and all the species of the

elephant, had tusks. Several fragments of these, but no entire tusks, are contained in the collection.

The next most remarkable remains of the collections after those of the mastodon, are those of the fossil rhinoceros. There are several molares of an animal of this genus in the collection. Cuvier describes four species of the fossil rhinoceros to have been ascertained, all differing from the living species. The bones now found bear a striking resemblance to one of the species represented by Cuvier, but the molares are considerably larger than any of those which he has represented.

The collection seems to me to afford evidence of the existence of two other animals, of the same family with the elephant, mastodon, and rhinoceros, at least, teeth which I have seen in it exactly resemble two species of a genus represented in the work of Cuvier, and to which he gives the name of *Anthra cotherium*.

The other teeth of quadrupeds which exist, and which I am able to recognize, are those of an animal of the horse kind, and those of an animal of the ruminant family, apparently of the size of the buffalo. There are, of course, a great many bones which I have not the skill to determine.

Among the remains are numerous specimens of those of a crocodile, which I conjecture to resemble the long-nosed alligator of the Ganges, the native name of which has been corrupted by naturalists into *gavial*. It is singular that this description of alligator, as far as we know, is not at present found in the rivers of Ava.

In the same situation with the bones were found considerable quantities of fossil shells; some of these were filled with blue clay, but far the greater number with hard siliceous matter. The shells which I have seen are of the genus *Turbo* and genus *Tellina*, and the productions of fresh water, although they do not, at the same time, resemble the present shells of the lakes and rivers of the neighbourhood.

The fossil wood is found in the same situation with the bones and shells; this is in vast quantity, the hills and ravines being strewn with blocks and fragments of various sizes, some of them five and six feet in circumference.

The fossil remains now sketched are found on the left bank of the Irrawadi, and within four and six miles inland from the river, between the 20th and 21st degree of north latitude, and close to the celebrated wells of petroleum. The aspect of the country is very remarkable. It is composed of sand hills and narrow ravines, very sterile, and, for a tropical country, very deficient in vegetation. Among the sand there are beds of gravel, with iron-stone and calcareous breccia. The whole is evidently a diluvial formation. The few scattered trees which exist in this tract, consist of some *Acacias*,

a *Celtis*, a *Rhus*, a *Barringtonia*, a *Zizyphus*, and some Indian fig-trees. To say whether or not the fossil timber found belong to the same species as these would be a matter of difficulty; but, upon the whole, it may be said that the blocks appear too large to warrant a belief that it does.

The fossil bones, as well as the shells and wood, are all found superficially, or rather, indeed, upon the surface, for all of them were more or less exposed. Notwithstanding this exposure, they have suffered very little decomposition. They are not rolled, nor have they suffered from attrition, for their sharp edges and processes are preserved with great distinctness, the inference from which is, that the individuals to which they belonged died, or were destroyed on the spot on which they are now found. In one respect, the bones differ essentially from all fossil bones of which I have heard. They are complete petrifications, and all of them, more or less, deeply coloured with iron. Their substance is siliceous, and some of them are so hard as to strike fire with steel. This, no doubt, accounts, in a good measure, for their perfect state of preservation.

The wild quadrupeds of the neighbourhood, at present, are a leopard, a cat, a deer, and a hog. The bones of these do not seem to exist among the fossil remains, nor is there any evidence of those of the elephant, or of any carnivorous animal. As amongst similar remains in other parts of the world, not a vestige is to be discovered here of the human skeleton.

I need hardly attempt the refutation of the idle notion which has been entertained by many, that the fossil remains found on the banks of the Irrawadi have been generated by a petrifying quality in the waters of that river. Abundance of organic matter may be seen on the shores of the Irrawadi, both animal and vegetable, undergoing the common process of decomposition as elsewhere. There can, I think, be no doubt that the fossil bones, shells, and wood, are here, as similar remains are admitted to be elsewhere, all the result of the last, or one of the last, great catastrophes which changed the face of the present globe. They are, in fact, the remains of a former state of our world, when the greater number of the present races of animals had no existence, and, above all, before man was called into existence.

The collection is, altogether, both extensive and curious, and the more worthy of attention, since it is, as far as I am aware, the first of any moment that has ever been discovered in the East. It should be anxious to hear that it falls into the hands of those who are capable of appreciating and examining it.—*Government Gazette*.

SCENE FROM METASTASIO.

Almost literally Translated.

RECITATIVE.

FORGIVE me, Chlora! this thy ruthless ire
I comprehend not—what dost thou allege?
Wherein my error? Sayest thou I adore,
And that I call thee Love? Does this appear
So black a crime? Ah! if to doat on thee
Makes mortals criminal,—who ne'er beheld
Thy heavenly form, alone is innocent.

AIR.

Find one amid the Sylvan corps
Who can converse with thee, nor sigh;
Who can behold thee, nor adore,
And then to rage thy slave consign.
But why, of all the sinful throng,
Why, with but me in anger fly?
Ah, cruel fair! if thou art young
And beauteous, 'tis no fault of mine.

RECITATIVE.

Sweet nymph, be pacified;—
Again be beautiful. Thou know'st not how
This rage disfigures thee! Dost not believe?
Look in this fount,—is't true? Do I deceive?
Could'st recognise thyself? That clouded brow,
That air of fierceness, and that frowning front,
Diminish half thy charms. There are to vengeance,—
Yes, there are other ways. To say I love thee,
And call thee mine: if these be dire offence,
Me thus offend in turn—I will forgive,—
I, too, contented, will endure from thee
But smilest thou? Oh! smile, that from myself
Transports me.—
Behold, my Chlora, now behold the fount!
See what new beauties to thy countenance
That *smile* imparts! Fair maid, bethink thee now
What Pity could; e'en I myself confess,
Great is the virtue of a smiling face,—
But pity adds a still more potent grace.

AIR.

Then, once again, my fair,
Turn to the limpid brook,
And view thy features there,
In pity soft attired;
Then, in thy every look
A thousand charms shall rise,
Nor shall those beauteous eyes
With anger more be fired.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF SOUTH AMERICA.

AMIDST the aristocratic degradation into which continental Europe is plunged, it is pleasing to see that there are still some 'bright green spots' on the face of the earth, where man may exercise the functions of his proud pre-eminence, undisturbed by tyranny, and uninfluenced by the power of remorseless despotism. It is true that these isolated 'spots' are few in number; and, in looking at the present state of Europe, degraded as it still is, under the thralldom of the Holy Alliance, there is not much to cheer or comfort. We have seen the principle of force completely triumphant—freedom every where met by the sword, and crushed into inanity, while its friends have been persecuted, as if they were the enemies of the human race, instead of being the foes of unblushing and rapacious tyranny. Nor have they any asylum to which they can fly from their oppressors, except Great Britain or the United States; so that continental Europe bears some resemblance to ancient Rome, under the dominion of her tyrants, when it was described by the annalist as a large prison, in which it was impossible to escape from the imperial frown. Naples, as we have seen, was the scene of a short struggle for liberty: but how could it stand before the powerful arm of Austria? A similar attempt—weak, indeed, and supremely contemptible—was made by Spain; but how fatally was its friends disappointed? A highly defensible country, with a numerous population, and a popular Government, fell back, without a struggle, under the dominion of priests and monks, from whose yoke it had been, and might have continued, emancipated, and now lies like a log upon the water, helpless and degraded—a victim in the toils of despotism, there to remain until a new and a brighter era shall dawn upon her desolation.

Let us turn from these revolting scenes, where freedom, shorn of her power, is compelled to hide her diminished head, to the New World, where a bright and interesting scene of improvement begins to open. There we see the cause of freedom flourishing and making progress. The brave and patriotic inhabitants, after a severe and sanguinary struggle, have triumphed over the mercenary hordes that were sent out to reduce them, under the despotic yoke of Old Spain. Colombia, a vast country, including the kingdom of New Grenada, the Caraccas, and Quito, which has long been, *de facto*, independent, and has exercised all the powers of sovereignty, is now at last freed from the horrors of civil war, and will have full leisure to complete all those great improvements which were begun even under the actual pressure of severe domestic difficulties. The Congress of Colombia, which held regular sittings during the late struggle, has already carried into effect many important reforms. Schools have been every where established, the liberty of the press has been

secured, newspapers have been multiplied, and every expedient for disseminating knowledge—that effectual antidote to slavery—has been eagerly and beneficially adopted. In all the different parts of this vast continent, representative governments have been established; and the leading men, duly considering that, to give effect to these free and popular institutions, it is necessary to have an improved people, are essentially anxious to train the inhabitants to the new duties which they are now called upon to perform.

But the advantages of all these improvements will redound, not merely to these countries themselves, but to the world at large. Growing in resources both moral and physical, in wealth, in population, and in industry, South America will afford a great and beneficial outlet to the commerce and manufactures of Europe. To Britain, more especially, its intercourse will be extremely beneficial. In the present state of our manufactures, with such an overflowing capital, with such skill in every branch of ingenious industry, and with such amazing powers of machinery, all that we want is a sufficient market for those productions which we cannot use at home: and this is precisely what a free trade to South America will eventually give us. In most of these countries industry has made but little progress: there are, it is true, coarse manufactures of cotton, of wool, and of other necessary articles; but the traders of these comparatively infant countries could not, for a moment, withstand the competition of British skill and industry. There is great scope here, therefore, for an extension of our commerce, not only to our own great benefit, but fully as much to the benefit of those South American countries which are deficient in capital and industry, but abound in rude produce.

As this country is so interesting in every point of view, whether we consider its physical structure, its vast ranges of mountains, its magnificent rivers, and the singular disposition of its population, or the political changes of which it has lately been the scene, we have brought together the latest details respecting its population, productions and trade, as well as the manners of its inhabitants, which he scattered in various publications, in order that, when South America is mentioned, the reader may have, instead of vague and obscure notions of a vast and unexplored country, more accurate ideas of that part of the globe which bears this name.

The extensive continent of South America is divided into,—1st, The Vice-royalty of New Grenada; 2d, That of Buenos Ayres; 3d, Peru; 4th, Chili; and 5th, The Caraccas. In North America we have the kingdom of Mexico.

New Grenada is the most northern district of South America, and with the addition of the Caraccas, constitutes the new Republic of Colombia. To the north it has the Caribbean Sea; to the west the Pacific Ocean; on the east, the Caraccas; and on the south, Peru. It includes the kingdom of Quito, and extends from latitude 3 deg.

30 min. south, to 120 deg. north, being 930 miles in length, and 210 in breadth. Its population amounts to about 1,800,000. The country is diversified in its aspect; the coast along the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean being level, and the ground rising gradually to the snowy heights of the Andes. The great ridge of these mountains, it is well known, runs through America in a direction north and south, and rises to its height at a distance between 200 and 300 miles from the Pacific Ocean, the intervening country being a continued descent to the sea. Here the first ridge of the Andes commences, and there are two ridges to the eastward, with valleys intervening. These high valleys, embosomed among the snowy Andes, possess an elevation, which gives them, even under the equator, a mild and delightful climate, with an ever-blooming vegetation. They are, accordingly, the seats of cultivation, and contain many flourishing towns. There are also several considerable towns on the plains near the sea. In two of the valleys, which lie between the parallel ridges of the Andes, the two great rivers Cauca and Magdalena take their rise. The Cauca joins the latter, which is an immense stream, having a course of 900 miles, and falling into the Caribbean Sea. It is on this river that the Congress of Columbia are establishing steam-boats.

The chief towns are, 1. *Carthagena*, on the Caribbean Sea, the capital of the province of that name; it is situated on a sandy peninsula, joined to the continent by two artificial necks of land. The Bay of Carthagena is one of the most capacious and safe on the whole coast, being completely land-locked, and perfectly smooth. It is estimated to contain 25,000 inhabitants, and is the port through which goods find their way to Santa Fé de Bogota, Popayan, and Quito. 2. *Mompox* is situated on the river Magdalena, 110 miles south-south-east of Carthagena: it is a small place. 3. *Tolu*, a small sea-port on the Spanish main, 50 miles south of Carthagena. 4. *Baraneus*, a small sea-port, near the estuary of the Magdalena, 25 miles from Carthagena. The others are Santa Martha, Merida, (containing 11,000 inhabitants,) and Pampeluna. These towns are chiefly in the provinces of New Grenada.

When we ascend the Andes, and penetrate into the valley, we have Santa Fé de Bogota, containing 40,000 inhabitants, and situated on a spacious and luxuriant plain on the eastern ridge of the Andes. It is only four degrees north of the equator, but being elevated nearly 9000 feet above the level of the sea, the climate is temperate, and even cold. Its plains are covered with luxuriant crops of wheat, and all the fruits of Europe; while, at a little distance, in the lower valley, is seen all the brilliant vegetation and finest fruits of the tropical regions. A hundred and fifty miles south-west from Santa Fé is Popayan, containing 25,000 inhabitants, and elevated nearly 6000 feet above the sea. There are many other smaller towns and places in the district. The great river

Caucais is about three miles from Popayan, and, from the sudden melting of the snow on the Andes, is subject to the most destructive inundations.

To the south is the kingdom of Quito, stretching 600 miles along the Pacific Ocean, while it is 1800 miles in breadth. It contains Quito, the capital, on the eastern slope of the western branch of the equatorial Andes, 35 leagues distant from the Pacific Ocean. It is immediately under the equator; but being 9510 feet above the level of the sea, it enjoys a mild temperature: it contains 70,000 inhabitants. Quito rests on the volcanic mountain of Pinchincha for its basis, and is surrounded with all the highest peaks of the Andes, many of them volcanic, and still burning: that of Cotopaxi 18,980 feet (about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles) above the level of the sea, is only 36 miles distant. This is the most formidable volcano of the Andes; and the inhabitants of Quito have frequently been alarmed by its eruptions, the noise of which is so loud, that it has been heard at Guayaquil, 150 miles distant. The climate at Quito, though temperate, is liable, from the vicinity of the mountains, to the most dreadful torrents of rain. The whole morning, and generally till two in the afternoon, the weather is extremely delightful. A bright sun, with a serene sky, are commonly seen; but afterwards the vapours begin to thicken, the whole atmosphere is filled with thick clouds, which bring on such tremendous tempests of thunder and lightning, that all the neighbouring mountains tremble, and the city too often feels their dreadful effects. Lastly, the clouds discharge themselves in such impetuous torrents, that in a very short time the streets appear like rivers, and the squares like lakes. This dreadful scene generally continues till near sun-set, when the weather clears up, and nature appears as beautiful as in the morning: sometimes, indeed, the rains continue all night; and they have been known to last three or four days successively; and, on the other hand, as long an interval of fine weather occurs.

Fifty miles south of Quito is the town of Lacatunga, with 12,000 inhabitants; farther south is Rio Bamba, almost ruined in 1698 and 1746, by the eruptions of Cotopaxi, utterly destroyed in 1797 by an earthquake, when the peak of a mountain falling on the plain, not a vestige of the town remained, and of 9000 inhabitants, only 100 survived. In the same convulsion about 30,000 or 40,000 Indians are supposed to have perished in the neighbouring districts. The town has been since re-built. These towns, with Hambat, containing 6000 inhabitants, are situated on the heights of the Andes, in the interior, from 150 to 300 miles from the Pacific Ocean. Near the coast of Quito, 150 miles distant, we have the important sea-port of Guayaquil, which contains 20,000 inhabitants, and is the great maritime emporium of the interior provinces. This low district of the coast is burnt up with excessive heat, and is exposed to all the desolating evils of a tropical climate.

We now come to a more interesting part of our summary, namely, the produce of this fine country. That of New Grenada is various. Its mines, which are extremely rich, are of the utmost importance to its commerce. The provinces of Antioquia and Choco are alone richer in gold than any other; and the silver which they produce is also remarkably fine. Gold is collected in great quantities on the banks of various rivers. Lead and copper are found, though but little sought after; emeralds and other precious stones are sent to Europe. Platina, &c., is also produced, and mercury has been lately discovered to exist in the province of Antioquia, and also in the mountains of Quindiu, near the village of Cuenca. Salt is also found in great abundance. New Grenada also produces excellent cotton, tobacco, cochineal, coffee, medicinal drugs, dyes, and other articles of minor importance. The secluded situation of a great part of this country, amid the lofty peaks of the Andes, lays it under the necessity of manufacturing for itself many articles of domestic use, which it would be difficult and expensive to transport from abroad, over the mountainous deserts which environ it on all sides. The trade with Europe must, therefore, of necessity be limited: 1st. By the heavy expense of freight in the long voyage round Cape Horn, and afterwards along the whole western coast of South America, as far as the equator; and 2dly, by the still more tedious land voyage into the interior. The chief port of New Grenada is Carthagena, about 900 miles from Quito, and 700 from Popayan; a distance so immense as greatly to impede the transport of European goods, more especially in such a country. Guayaquil, then, is the chief port through which Quito and the surrounding districts send out their surplus produce for what they require at home. The great difficulty of transportation here arises from the passage being across mountainous and snowy deserts which separate those elevated regions from the low country. In many parts the sides of the Andes are beset with frightful crevices of immeasurable depth, which are crossed by pendulous bridges, formed of the fibres of equinoctial plants. Over these frail and tremulous passages, the natives convey the traveller in a chair, attached to their backs, and, bending forward their body, they advance with a quick step; but when they reach the centre, the oscillation of the bridge is so great, that were they to stop, inevitable destruction would ensue; the native and his burden would be dashed to the bottom of a precipice, to whose profound depth the eye can scarcely reach. These bridges being, from the nature of their materials, frequently out of repair, present to the shuddering European, who visits these countries, frightful chasms, over which the Indians step with undaunted confidence. Here is also the region of cataracts, some of which are truly magnificent. That of Tequendama dashes a volume of water from the plains of Bogota, through an opening in the mountain, to the depth of 600 feet, into a dark and unfathomable gulf.

In many places the travellers must wait for a favourable appearance of the weather, before entering on the eternal snows of the mountains, for, if they were caught in a snow-storm, they would never again emerge from these deserts; there are, besides, no roads except for mules: in some places the traveller is carried across the defiles of the mountains on men's backs, there being no other mode of travelling; and the perils to which they are liable in those wild regions are as numerous as they are novel and unexpected, and frequently expose the unwary traveller to swift and inevitable destruction. The vast body of water which lies locked up in snow on the higher Andes, may, by a sudden thaw, be let loose, and then the moisture which has been falling for months in an immense extent of country, suddenly pours down in an irresistible deluge upon the lands. All the mountain streams, forming the channels into which the whole accumulated moisture of the year may be suddenly poured in its passage to the valley, are liable in a moment to be swelled into immense torrents, sweeping down from the mountains in all the majesty of irresistible power, roaring and foaming between their steep and rocky banks, until they burst upon the plains below. When we reflect for a moment that the whole collected waters of a vast expanse of country are thus suddenly collected into one common channel, we may conceive the vast force of such a mass suddenly precipitated from the mountains into the surrounding plains. The passage of rivers, therefore, is one of the great obstacles to a free communication in those countries during the summer, and, in winter, they are insulated from the rest of the world. Various contrivances are adopted for securing a safe passage over these rivers. Where the stream is very narrow, with high banks, bridges are constructed of wood, consisting of four long beams laid close together over the precipice, and forming a path about a yard and a half wide, being just sufficient to allow a horseman to pass. Where the river is too wide to admit of a beam, bridges are thrown over, consisting of a species of their elastic cord, twisted together, so as to form several large cables of the length required. These are placed together with planks, laid in a transverse direction, over the lower cables, and the two uppermost fastened to the others, in the form of rails, for the security of the passengers, who would otherwise be in great danger from the oscillation. Mules and horses cross these rivers by swimming. Other rivers, again, whose rapidity, and the large stones continually rolling along them, render it impossible for animals to cross them in this manner, are provided with a rope connected by two posts on both sides, along which the animal is swung to the opposite shore. Besides these obstacles, many parts of the road are entirely desert, and the traveller has to carry a large store of provisions, lest, by a sudden thaw and swelling of the rivers, he should be prevented from either proceeding or returning. It will be at once perceived that the transport of goods, if they are at all bulky, is scarcely practicable in such a country, and that its com-

merce must therefore be confined to articles of export to the lower country on the sea-coast, whence is derived, in exchange, a supply of its produce. We have but very imperfect accounts of the produce of Quito, Popayan, and those sequestered regions; and it may be doubted whether British manufactures have yet penetrated to this distant market. But if the country were decidedly and permanently settled under a free government, the enterprise and industry of the people would soon be called forth, the roads would be improved, communications more practicable would be established between the surrounding districts and the sea-coast, commerce and manufactures would advance, and the whole country would rapidly improve by a free intercourse with the world at large, from which it is at present separated by the physical obstacles of its singular position.

To the south of New Grenada lies Peru, formerly larger, but diminished in 1778 by the loss of Potosi, and several of its richest districts on the east, which were annexed to the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. It has Quito on the north, Chili on the south, on the west the Pacific Ocean, and on the east the vast and desert plains, which, under the name of the Pampas, spread out from the Eastern Andes. It extends along the coast 375 miles, and eastward into the interior 690 miles. It is divided into seven dependencies, namely, Truxillo, Tarma, Guancavallica, Lima, Guamanga, Arequipa, and Cuzco. It is divided, moreover, into the upper and lower country. There are two chains of the Andes, which run along the country, parallel with the coast, and with each other. The one is the great central chain, which rises above the limit of perpetual snow, and contains vast deserts, where eternal winter reigns. The other ridge, which does not rise so high, is nearer the coast: it forms an inclined plane towards the coast, from 30 to 60 miles in breadth, and is called Lower Peru. It consists, for the most part, of sandy deserts, or of cultivated spots on the banks of navigable rivers, or such as are within the reach of artificial navigation. In this low track the climate is sultry. The chief towns in Lower Peru, which are situated on the sea-coast, or on the banks of rivers, are Piura, Sechura, Paiza, (famous for its pearl fishery,) Sana, Morrope, Lambayegne, and Truxillo: the aggregate number of inhabitants being about 23,000.

In Upper Peru, which consists of a valley between the two parallel ridges of the Andes, already mentioned, there are very productive silver mines, some of which are almost 2300 feet higher than Quito. We have in this district the towns of Tarma, Quenmalies, (noted for its manufacture of serges, baizes, and other stuffs,) Guailas, (with its gold mines,) Caxatambo, Conchuro, Guancavallica, Guamanga, and Guanta, the five last having their mines of silver, as well as manufactures of coarse cloth. South-west of Guamanga is the district of Vilcas Huaman, whence great

quantities of woollen cloths are sent across the Andes to Cuzco. There are several other districts in the neighbourhood, situated amidst the heights of the Andes, and abounding in mines of gold and silver. About 550 miles east-south-east of Lima is the city of Cuzco, containing 32,000 inhabitants, and adorned with various magnificent edifices. Its district contains nineteen silver mines. North of Cuzco, 60 miles, is the town of Abancay, in a district of the same name, skirted by the snowy Andes. Among those mountains there are various other extensive districts, many of them cold and inhospitable, with warm and fertile valleys interspersed, and but thinly inhabited.

The commerce of Peru is carried on through three channels, namely, by the Straits of Magellan from Europe; through the North Pacific from India and Mexico; and through the interior, with the southern provinces of Chili and Buenos Ayres. Since the trade was unshackled in 1778, its exports and imports have been doubled, and the principal branch of its commerce is that carried on round Cape Horn. Its exports are chiefly gold, silver, sugar, pimento, salt, Vucano wool, coarse woollens, and some coarse manufactures. Its imports are generally all sorts of European manufacture, which can be sold cheaper than the same articles manufactured at home. The produce of the country is carried on the backs of mules to Buenos Ayres, across the mountains, by the rout of Arequipa and Cuzco. The chief exports are brandy, wine, maize, sugar, and woollens. Buenos Ayres used formerly to import woollens from Quito, but since the intercourse has been opened with Europe, the woollens of Quito have been superseded by those of Europe. Paraguay tea is a great article of importation; it is infused in the same manner as China tea, and is in as general use there as the other is here. It is in such universal request among the natives, that it is said the mines could not be worked without it. One great article of import from the eastern districts of Buenos Ayres, such as Tucuman, &c., is mules, for the use of the mines. About 20,000 of these beasts of burden are annually imported into Peru.

The most valuable produce of Peru is its metallic wealth, with which its mountains every where abound. These are interspersed with veins of gold and of silver ore, in which pieces of pure silver, solid copper, and lead ore occur, frequently intermixed with white silver ore, and virgin silver in threads. In many parts are rich veins of gold ore in quartz; and gold is also obtained by working the mud found in the beds of the rivers. The gold is generally deposited in the high grounds, and being washed down by the violence of the mountain torrents, is carried by the impulse of the stream, until it reaches a lower level, where it is deposited on the banks of the river, and is easily extracted, by the simple process of washing, from the clay or sand in which it is imbedded. The ores found in Peru are extremely rich, yielding from five to fifty pounds

of silver for every hundred weight of ore, while the average produce of the Mexican mines is not above three or four ounces to the hundred weight.

The province of Guancavelica contains many new rich strata, and veins of gold, silver, copper, and lead ores, the greatest part of which lies quite neglected. The mines of Pasco, 167 miles south-west of Guancavelica, yield the yearly average produce of 131,260 lbs. troy, of pure metal. These mines are 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. The bed of metal is 15,000 feet in length, and about 7,200 in breadth. About six miles distant from this is a mountain which contains a prodigious mass of ore, of fine porous brown iron stone, interspersed with pure silver. In a soft vein of white metallic clay, about 2 to 10 lbs. of silver are found in every hundred weight. In some places the country is filled with silver ore. At one place it is so abundant, that it is found, whenever the turf is moved, adhering to the roots of the grass in filaments, for more than half a square league. The district of Truxillo is remarkable for its rich mines, which have furnished to the provincial treasury of the place about 44,000 lbs. of silver annually.

In the province of Arica, near the small port of Iquique, in a desert destitute of water, and mines which produce from 42,000 to 52,000 lbs. troy of pure metal annually, gold is found in almost all the silver mines.

All these mines are under the worst possible management. Those who have the charge of the works are both ignorant and careless. The great art of mining consists in extracting metal from the substances in which it is imbedded at the least possible expense, and in losing as little of it as possible in the process. In both these important points the management in the Peruvian mines is miserably defective; not only is a great proportion of the metal left in the dross, but an enormous and unnecessary quantity of quick-silver is consumed in the process of extraction. The expense, and the trouble of extracting the precious metals, depends, of course, upon the nature of the adventitious substances in which they are deposited. If they are found in soft porous stone, or in clay, there is nothing more to do than to mix those substances with mercury, when the metal and the dross is separated, and it only then remains to divide the mercury from the silver or gold; but when the vein occurs in hard rocks, as frequently happens, the expense is much increased, not only in working these hard rocks, but in afterwards grinding them down to powder by expensive machinery, which it is necessary to do before they can be subjected to the process of amalgamation. In the mines of Germany the most ingenious and perfect methods are in use for the bringing the ore safely, and at the least possible expense, through the ordeal of refinement. Formerly, it is well known, that nearly all the mercury employed in the operation was sacrificed: now it is mostly preserved; and here, in this single ar-

tile alone, there is a great saving of expense. But none of these improved methods are in use in the Peruvian mines. There is in every department the greatest possible waste; and in those which were formerly worked for the benefit of the King of Spain, (we should rather say for his loss,) every species of gross malversation prevailed. There was not only ignorance, but the most shameless and glaring corruption. In the royal quick-silver mine of Guancavellica, the King was charged 166 piastres for every hundred weight of quick-silver, which was nearly 50 per cent. above its real value; and all the errors and unskilful operations in use were so pertinaciously adhered to, that when Mr. Helms, the German miner, sent over by the King of Spain to inquire into the management of the mines, proposed a new construction of furnaces, by which a smaller quantity of mercury would have been used in the process of extraction, he was opposed by the whole host of the miners, superintendents, and workmen; from the highest to the lowest all joined in the clamour against him,—being artfully persuaded that his innovations would abridge manual labour, and, in the end, render their services unnecessary. The rich delegates, or judges, in the mining districts, are more especially represented by Helms as the greatest villains, who enrich themselves by plunder, and by confirmed acts of peculation and tyranny, while they have always numberless pretences ready to screen themselves from any complaints made to the Viceroy against them. In many parts productive mines are overflowed, which might be drained by the use of proper machinery. In other parts, where the ground is rich in metallic wealth, no skill or science is displayed in searching after the ore; but hosts of needy adventurers are collected as if for mere plunder, who pierce the ground with innumerable holes without order or regulation; so that they are frequently buried under ground from the falling in of their pits; and these accidents are so common, from the carelessness and avidity with which they remove the earth, without providing the necessary supports for the mines, that they are little regarded.

In the midst of this waste and confusion much valuable ore is thrown away, and what is got is obtained at a vast and disproportionate expense. The fact is, that the profits of the mines are swallowed up by the direct roguery of the managers; so that there is great scope for reform in every thing that belongs to them; and when the independence of the country is once fairly and firmly established, and begins to shed its benign influence over the land, there is little doubt that this great staple branch of industry will be prosecuted with increased vigour and greater success, especially when the Supreme Congress shall have time to attend more particularly to the internal economy and domestic improvement of the state. At present all are united in one general confederacy against improvement, as they profit, like some others we could mention, by the corruptions which they encourage. But when a new,

more vigorous, and more upright government is once established, all these abuses will be inquired into and exposed, matters will soon be placed on a different basis, and the mining trade, like every other, will participate in the new impulse given by an enlightened and active government to the country at large.

Peru contained, by the last census, 1,076,122 inhabitants, spread over a vast extent of territory, where there is, as in other parts of South America, a lamentable want of roads, canals, and bridges, to facilitate the transport of goods between distant parts. Thus, there is a fine field open for improvement; and now that England has formally acknowledged the independence of Columbia, may we hope that the spirit of her enterprising philosophers will speedily penetrate into the desolate wilds of South America, and plant, even in those distant regions, tangible proofs of the power, the knowledge, and extensive enterprise of Englishmen.

LA PACE DI 1814.

VINTO per opra di fortuna e inganno,
Che tutti vince, e che trade poi tutti,
Cessar di troni vacillanti i lutti,
Ed ogni princea pode farse un tiranno.
I Russi artigli sul Polono stanno;
Prussia vuol dominare del Elba i flutti;
Britannia i mari ha in servitu ridutti;
Austriaci Italia *Gotizzando* vanno;
I frati a governar ritorna Pio;
Spagna minaccia ai doti atti di fede,
Ecco la Pace che ci ha dato Iddio!

THE PEACE OF 1814.

Of fortune, and of fraud, the work survey—
For all they conquer, and then all betray—
Of tottering thrones behold the struggles o'er,
In every petty prince one tyrant more.
O'er Poland see the Russian harpy craves,
While Prussia fain would rule the northern waves;
Britannia long hath held the sea in chains,
And Austrians *Vandalize* Ausonia's plains;
To rule o'er monks returns old Pius—Pope;
For acts of faith in Spain, the wise may hope;
Oh, great and glorious Peace, so kindly given
In mercy to mankind, by God from Heaven!

JOURNEY ACROSS THE PENINSULA OF INDIA, FROM MADRAS
TO BOMBAY.

No. III.

*Madoor—Brahmins—River Cuvery—Seringapatam—Palaces and
Tombs of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sahib.*

I HAD promised my bearers a rest this morning, (March 3d,) in order to recruit their strength, after the fatigues of the preceding evening; and to this delay I the more willingly submitted from the necessity of waiting for my letters. I spent the forenoon principally in study within doors; for, as has been observed, the heat of the Indian sun prevents the traveller from moving out of the shade during the day, without suffering much inconvenience and incurring some risk from the exposure; and the openness of the country here rendered any particular examination of it unnecessary, as its character was perceptible at a single glance.

After dinner I started for Madoor, a place twenty-nine miles distant, and walked until it was quite dark. My bearers had neglected to put a proper quantity of oil into the lantern, which, in the course of an hour went out. They contrived to procure lights, however, for some time after dark, in a way quite Oriental, and certainly more expeditious than just, by forcibly taking their fire-brands from casual passengers; but as the night advanced we no longer met with any people, and before we had reached Ouspetta, a part of the country particularly infested with tigers, we had nothing left but the stump of a torch, the faint glimmer of which only served to make the darkness more palpable. With this we proceeded, however, and I had begun to doze, when, as we came to a woody turn of the road, the bearers made a sudden halt, put down the palanquin, and with one accord set up a most alarming yell. At first I was startled, being quite at a loss to know what had happened, but on inquiring the cause, I found that a tiger had been seen to cross the path, and to enter the bushes on the right. The bearers positively refused to proceed until I had loaded my fowling-piece with small shot, for I had no ball, and had fired into the place which they pointed out. This was not an expedient suggested by my own judgment, as nothing could be more likely to irritate a wild beast than to wound him slightly; but, whether he had moved from the spot which they supposed him to occupy, or whether, as is not improbable, what had been seen was only a cheetah or leopard, which confines its attack to four-footed animals, and flies from man, no evil consequence followed the discharge. The bearers passed on, shouting most manfully for fear; and such was the impression which this sight made upon them, that they were afterwards much

alarmed at an object indistinctly seen in the obscurity, which proved to be an ass, and, indeed, every bush and bramble was magnified into a tiger.

After passing Ouspetta, and reaching Chinnapatam, where we slept two or three hours in the middle of the night, we arrived at Madoor about seven o'clock in the morning. Ouspetta, which is eight miles from Biddidy, is a long unfortified village, consisting, like most of those in Mysoor, of one street, filled with shops; at the farther end of it there is a neat brick bridge, coated with chunam, which is about 100 yards long, and leads across a small river. A guard-house is built on the opposite side of this bridge, belonging to the Rajah of Mysoor, who makes this place the headquarters for his cavalry regiments. The highway, after passing this bridge, turns to the left, and a little farther on there is a commodious house, with a flat roof, built by Colonel Close for the accommodation of travellers. From Ouspetta to Chinnapatam the road is very beautiful, frequently winding and passing up and down slight eminences. The country on each side is in many places cultivated with sugar-cane, and different dry grains, and here and there groves or tops of betel-nut trees, one of the most slender and elegant species of palm, vary the scene.

This artificial cultivation is every where bounded by natural jungle, and forests of large trees, which clothe all the surrounding hills. The soil, for several miles before arrival at Chinnapatam, changes to a reddish colour, and the vegetation springing from this is remarkably luxuriant. Chinnapatam itself is a long village like Ouspetta, and the inhabitants are traders and cultivators. There is a bungalow on the west side of the place, and about half a mile farther, on the Seringapatam road, a very considerable stone fort, of an oblong square form, with a fossé braie outside of the walls. These are surrounded by a deep ditch, and have two gates, one at the corner of the north side, and the other to the eastward. At each corner of the fort, besides the bastions, which are round, there are square platforms, with stones in the centre for imbedding mortars. There are altogether a hundred and twenty-three embrasures in the walls, which contain a decayed mud village, and a small pagoda. The land in the vicinity of the road between Chinnapatam and Madoor, is cultivated; near the former place, with sugar-cane, betel-nut trees, and various grains, but on advancing, the view is bounded by wild hills covered with jungle and forest trees. About four miles from Chinnapatam, there is an aghraharam, or Brahmin's village, with one or two pagodas.

Madoor is a village not so large as Chinnapatam, but of the same description; and it has a bungalow at the western extremity, of which I took possession. In the course of the morning (March 4,) a procession passed the windows, consisting of two musicians with small drums, not unlike hour-glasses, two players on nagasara or

Indian hautboys; a fifth playing an instrument with a monotonous sound, which served as a drone to these; a sixth blowing two horns; a seventh with a shell in one hand, and a round sonorous platter of brass in the other; and lastly, three Brahmins, each holding a basket of split bamboos under the left arm, a cloth in the left hand, and a large brazen vessel, crowned with flowers, on the head.

The music produced by this band of strange instruments was of the most harsh and dissonant kind; not, however, what could be properly called barbarous, being clearly deduced from fixed principles, and having a measured air. The shell was a religious symbol of Vishnoo, as was also the brazen platter, which is a representation of his weapon, the chakakra or discus.* This was the diurnal procession of Pooja, or the anointment of the god. It was proceeding to the pagoda, where dancing girls were in attendance to worship the idol, with strange gestures and attitudes, to the sound of still stranger music, while flowers, with oil and other ingredients, were to be showered on his head, and the rice and fruits contained in the brazen vessels were to be offered him for food; and it is needless to add, to be again withdrawn for the support of his holy votaries.

The cloths carried by the Brahmins were clean garments, which, according to Hindoo law, they must, if not prevented by sickness, wash with their own hands, and change every day. Whilst I was observing these ceremonies, there came up a female beggar, who was the most horrid victim of disease I had ever seen, being afflicted with that species of leprosy under which the extremities drop off joint by joint. Miserable mendicants of this description are not uncommon in India, where the knowledge of medicine is imperfect among the Natives, and where charity is too much confined to those who least need it. There are thousands of Brahmins fed by the hands of individuals, and numerous pagodas and tanks are built for their use. As they were the writers, and are the expounders of their laws, they take every opportunity of setting forth the religious importance of charitable attention to themselves, which will sufficiently appear from the following passages from the Institutes of Menu:

'To Brahmins, the beings supremely glorious, are assigned the duties of reading the veda, (holy scriptures), of teaching it, of sacrificing, of assisting others to sacrifice, of giving alms if they be rich, and if indigent, of receiving gifts.'—C. i. v. 88.

* This is an instrument of war, which I believe is peculiar to India, and is used with much effect against cavalry. It is a disk of steel perforated in the centre, and having its circumference ground to a fine edge. Being as thin as a fine circular saw, about 21 inches in diameter, this instrument is whirled off the forefinger, skimming horizontally through the air, and is often directed with so sure an aim, as to cut in twain a young tree, or the leg of a horse, at the distance of 60 yards.

'Since the Brahmins sprang from the most excellent part of Brahma,* since he was first born, and since he possesses the veda, he is by right the chief of this whole creation.'—C. i. v. 93.

'Of created things, the most excellent are those which are animated; of the animated, those who subsist by intelligence; of the intelligent, mankind; and of mankind, Brahmins.'—C. i. v. 96.

'Of Brahmins, those eminent in learning; of the learned, those who know their duty; of those who know it, such as perform it virtuously; and of the virtuous, those who seek beatitude from a perfect acquaintance with scriptural doctrine.'—C. i. v. 97.

'Whatever exists in the universe is, in effect, though not in form, the wealth of a Brahman; since the Brahmin is entitled to it by his primogeniture and eminence of birth.'—C. i. v. 100.

'The Brahmin eats but his own food, wears but his own apparel, and bestows but his own in alms; through the benevolence of the Brahmins, indeed, other mortals enjoy life.'—C. i. v. 101.

'Though Brahmins employ themselves in all sorts of mean occupations, they must invariably be honoured, for they are something transcendently divine.'—C. i. v. 319.

These and other passages, with which the religious works of the Hindoos are interspersed throughout, have led them to consider the relief of a Brahmin as giving a claim to future happiness, and have, therefore, directed their charity to this one class of people, to the exclusion of the rest, so that mendicants of other castes are permitted to die with want, without exciting the least commiseration. So true, alas! it is, that our best actions are often but the offspring of a selfish view to our own interests.

I learned at Madoor, that about three nights before a man had been destroyed by a tiger, within a few miles of a place on the road which we were about to pass. His body was found very much mangled, and deprived of the head and one of the arms. The alarm which my bearers felt on travelling at night, and without a light, in so dangerous a part of the country, was not, therefore, without foundation.

I took the opportunity, in the cool of the evening, previously to setting out, to examine the fort, which is at some little distance from the town. It is about half a mile in circumference, built of mud, and gone much to decay. The walls are very low, the ditch has fallen in, and, in its present state, it is useless as a place of defence. There is a small village within, and this seems nearly deserted, though there are two large and new pagodas, which,

* The Brahmin from the mouth of Brahma; the Kshattria, or royal, from his arm; the Vaysya, or merchant, from his thigh; and the Sudra, or cultivator, from his foot.

emblems of the religion to which they belong, seem to flourish in proportion to the misery which surrounds them.

Forts of mud are perhaps nearly as good for sustaining an attack as those of brick or of stone, for they receive the ball without being shattered, and do not easily give way, but they require to be kept in constant repair, and every fall of rain does them considerable damage. They are admirably adapted to a dry climate, like that of Arabia or Egypt, but are ill suited to India, a circumstance which appears strikingly illustrated by the fact, that whilst the fort which I have been describing was in perfect repair twenty years ago, and is now nearly demolished, some of the walls of Babylon, made of sun-burnt bricks, are in existence at the present day, and one of the oldest pyramids of Egypt of the same material is still standing.

From the walls of this fort, I saw a number of people in the fields below, pressing sugar-canes, and in order to show its simplicity, I shall describe the machine they employed. A tree had been cut down a foot and a half from the ground, and a hole was hollowed out in the stump, about eighteen inches in diameter, and of the same depth; in this an upright beam was inserted not nearly so large as the cavity, and which, consequently, leant against its side; from the top of the upright beam, another descended at an angle of 45 degrees, and from this again a third beam, or rather platform, passed inwards horizontally to the first, and enclosing it, terminated at about three feet on the other side. This last horizontal beam being loaded at the further end, which was about eight feet from the upright beam, acted as a powerful lever, in pressing it against the sides of the hole. Two bullocks were yoked to the horizontal beam, and on moving in a circle, caused the vertical beam to revolve, which ground the canes by crushing them against the sides of the hole. At the shorter projecting side of the platform sat a man with a basket, containing the sugar-cane, cut into convenient lengths, and his business was to feed the grinder. The cavity first mentioned had a hole at the bottom to drain off the expressed juice, and this was caught in a vessel below. A simpler press cannot well be conceived. It is a mere lever, which in fact seems the power of which the natives of India best know the value, for though they use screws in fastening ornaments, they never do so, I think, to gain a mechanical advantage. I have observed, however, that in building a pagoda, in which there are always very large stones, these are raised to the requisite height by heaping up a mound, and thus forming an inclined plane, up which the materials are rolled.

From Madoor I walked on until dark, and as I had by this time come up to the spot where the poor man had been seized by the tiger, I thought it as well to avoid all chance of meeting with the same fate, by entering my palanquin. I was here passed by a native of Mysore, who was travelling in a very finely painted palanquin, and of a much shorter form than those in use among Eu-

ropeans, as Natives always sit in this conveyance cross-legged. Before him, at the distance of a hundred yards, went an out-runner, with a curved horn, whose business it was, on coming near a village, to warn the people of his master's approach by sounding the horn and proclaiming his titles. He was accompanied also by two attendants, armed with large knives, which I shall have occasion to notice more particularly in speaking of Courg. The personage who was thus travelling with so much pomp, was a gooroo, or religious instructor, a personage who is much venerated by the Hindoos, and employed by every family of respectability. His character corresponds in some measure with that of the ancient philosophers, and his employment is much of the same nature. One learned man is perhaps gooroo to a hundred families, and these too in different parts of the country. He receives very large presents for his visitations, which are usually made in great state, and he is attended by a number of disciples, who minister to all his wants, and treat him with the greatest respect on all occasions. There are many of these gooroos so rich, from the presents which they receive, that they can afford to move about on elephants, and I have heard of one who keeps more than twenty of these animals, which alone involves an expense of above 1,000*l.* a year of our money. The reverence the Hindoos pay to these preceptors is equal, if not surpassing, that which they have for their own father and mother, and this feeling is strongly inculcated by the Hindoo law.

'Due reverence to those three, (parents and preceptor,) is considered as the highest devotion, and without their approbation no man must perform any duty.'—Menu Inst. chap. ii., v. 229.

'Since they alone are held equal to the three worlds, they alone to the three principal orders, (brahmins, kings, merchants,) they alone to the three fires, (the nuptial, the funeral, and the sacrificial).—Chap. ii., v. 230.

'By honouring his mother he gains this terrestrial world; by honouring his father, the intermediate or ethereal; and by assiduous attention to his preceptor, even the celestial world of Brahma.'—Chap. ii., v. 232.

We did not make much progress during the night, and in the morning (March 5th) about 7 o'clock, I found, that instead of being in Seringapatam, as I expected, I was yet full ten miles off. We had passed Mundium on the road, which is an inconsiderable village, with a bungalow, and the country through which we had travelled had been somewhat more open than through the former stages. As my bearers were fatigued, we stopped under a small tree, near a choultry, which was occupied, and I made my breakfast of some cold provisions with which I was provided.

We did not start again until 11 o'clock, and the day proving very hot, my bearers were so much exhausted that they were obliged to

make a second halt, within two miles of Seringapatam. The approach to this city being by hills, which command it, the view is very beautiful. It does not lie so low as, from its notorious unhealthiness, some would be led to expect, for although on the east the hills are high, on the west the country appears to be tolerably open. Still, however, it is placed decidedly in a hollow, and being surrounded by rice cultivation, the exhalation from the stagnant water spreading over the country is, no doubt, the principal cause of the fevers which so invariably attack residents in this place.

After wading through a branch of the river Cavery, the bridge over which has been recently carried away, and is not yet replaced by a new one now building, we came to a fauxbourg of considerable length, composed chiefly of huts and small houses. Between this and the main river, whose two branches make Seringapatam an island, there is an extensive flat of rice cultivation. We now passed the Cavery by a very handsome stone bridge, and found it to be about 300 yards wide, and with a rocky bed, almost bare from the low state of the water. For more than half the year this river is nearly dry, a feeble stream only passing between the rocks, which every where abound; but when it is filled by the monsoon on the western coast, it becomes a majestic and rapid stream, of great breadth, and carrying down a vast body of water. I proceeded towards the suburb called Chahur Ganjam, which is outside the fort, and the place where the judge and register of the court reside. The latter office being filled by my friend, I took up my quarters with him. We remained within doors during the heat of the day, and in the afternoon took a drive to the fort, as well to examine it generally, as to obtain a sight of the celebrated breach through which it was last taken by the English. This piece of fortification is the largest I have ever seen, and, at a guess, I should suppose it to be two miles and a half in circumference. It is encompassed by double ditches, which it must have cost immense labour to excavate, for they are of great depth, and are hewn out of the solid rock.

The breach we perceived to be at the north-west angle, both faces of which are opposed to the river, owing to the division of its branches. Here the bank of the river was knocked away, which filled up the outer ditch, breaking down the ramparts also for about 50 yards. To this chasm the British troops, more especially the 74th, a King's regiment, directed their attack by marching across the river, at that time low and fordable; great carnage took place at this point, from the necessary exposure of the men to the enemy's fire, but they succeeded in passing the ramparts, and in advancing to the inner ditch, of which, strange as it may seem, they are stated to have had no previous knowledge. This difficulty they surmounted by finding some passage in another part, and thus entered, and finally took the place without much difficulty. The shot marks, in all parts of the

walls, sufficiently showed the destructive fire of the British; but we remarked, particularly, the excellent direction of the fire from the Bombay army, who were so placed that they were enabled to enfilade or rake both the ramparts and fossé. From the breach we drove to the east side of the fort, where there is a beautiful mosque and two minarets. This building contains superb cloisters and courts, where all the richness of the Mohammedan style of architecture is displayed in the columns and arches. From hence we ascended one of the minarets, by stairs winding round a central pillar, lighted at every quarter of a circle by a small window. I had no means of measuring the height of this tower, but should suppose it to be about 200 feet.

From the top we had a fine view of the city below, with the surrounding scenery. In a north-west direction we saw the Cavery, divided by the angle of the fort, after embracing which, together with an extent of land outside, so as to form the island of Seringapatam, it united again about two miles to the south-east.

This fort appeared full of population, and crowded with houses. Tippoo's palace and zenana, which are now converted into barracks, were among the most conspicuous buildings.

The number of inhabitants, principally Mohammedans, who were attached to the former government, from a recent census taken, in order to ascertain the number of migrations from the unhealthiness of the place, is at present 20,000, and about an equal number have abandoned it. We passed out of the fort again through very thick walls, and traversed two draw-bridges across the two ditches already mentioned. The appearances in the ditches are very interesting to one acquainted with the science of geology, for the strata are here completely exposed, and exhibit some fine examples of basaltic dykes, which cross them in several places.

The objects chiefly worth visiting in Seringapatam, and which I had seen on a former occasion, are the palaces and tombs of Hyder and Tippoo. The Lal Bagh, or red garden, is situated at the eastern end of the island, and is a handsome palace in the Mohammedan style, where Hyder and Tippoo occasionally spent their time. The apartments are airy, though low; and the walls are ornamented with gold and silver foil, and the ceilings with stucco-work and painting. There are but two stories; and elegantly light pillars, whence spring ornamented arches, support the ground-floor, which is chiefly composed of open halls and verandahs.

This palace is surrounded by a handsome garden, containing a number of cypress trees, of which the Mohammedans seem fond. Its fountains are in ruins, and it is now suffered to go to decay; for, happening to be in a particularly unhealthy spot, no person will inhabit it. Neither Hyder nor Tippoo ever made it a place of constant residence, as they always lodged in the fort. The Dowlat Bagh is an

other palace and garden of the same description, and equally rich in ornament, though not so large. This is kept in very good repair, as it is occupied by the judge, and on one of the walls there is an historical painting, representing Hyder and Tippoo at the head of their forces, defeating and taking prisoners a small body of troops under Colonel Bailey at Poollaloor.* This fresco is curious as a specimen of the low state of the art of painting among the Indians; for although it may be supposed the work of the best artist who could be procured, it is little better executed than the designs usually seen on China cups and saucers. It is curious also, as exhibiting very correct likenesses of Hyder and Tippoo; and lastly, as showing their arrogance and exultation at having vanquished a force about one-twentieth of their number, one of the very few victories they ever obtained over the British.

The celebrated tomb where Hyder and Tippoo are buried, is near the Lal Bagh; Tippoo having had it erected there expressly that he might look upon his father's grave from his own windows, and contemplate the place where he himself would be ultimately laid. An arched gateway leads to it, with an open room above, where music is played morning and evening. Having passed this gateway, and along a straight walk about 100 yards long, shaded by different sorts of trees on each side, we arrive at a raised foundation of considerable extent. On this stands a mosque and mausoleum, which is of a square form at the base, and surrounded by a verandah or cloister, supported by black marble columns highly polished. The floor is of the same material. Out of this quadrangular base rises a dome, richly adorned with stucco-work, and crowned with a gilded summit, surmounted by a crescent, whilst at the four corners, spires or minarets rise with gilded points.

There are four entrances to the tomb on the four sides, and one of these is filled up by a black marble casement, beautifully carved in filligree work. Within these is an octagonal room, with the hollow of the dome over it, and on the floor are the tombs, covered by cloths of gold and silver brocade, the edges being embroidered with sentences of the Koran. Flowers are strewn over them, sweet smelling perfumes are constantly burning, and at night funereal lamps shed forth their dim religious light.

The mosque is a building open at one side, and supported on rows of columns and arches; this, together with the rich mausoleum, some tombs outside, and the luxuriant cypress trees which grow around, has a beautiful appearance, and has been made the subject of many drawings and prints.

The view of these quiet mansions of the mighty dead closed the labours of the day.

* See Munroe's Narrative.

We rose early this morning, (March 6,) and went to examine the jail. It was a very inferior building to several which I have seen appropriated to the same purpose in India, being small, dirty, and surrounded by inefficient mud walls. Whilst going over this and the courts connected with it, my friend despatched a messenger to the resident of Mysore, in order to obtain permission for me to travel through the Rajah of Coorg's territories, instead of going by Wynaud, on my way to the Malabar coast. This I was anxious about, because the road through Coorg is not only nearer, but, as the medical man informed me, more healthy than that through Wynaud.

The Coorg country is governed by a Rajah, whose brother proved a faithful friend of the English in their wars with Tippoo, and the reigning sovereign has been on all occasions equally amicable as the last. It was formerly a common practice to traverse his territories; some persons, however, soon abused his hospitality, and on one occasion, as I learned, part of his furniture was stolen, so that, thenceforward, no one has been allowed to visit him, unless by the express permission of the British resident of Mysore.

I received a visit this morning from the pundit, or head Hindoo law officer of the court, who partly, perhaps, through my interest, but chiefly on account of his own learning, was appointed about two months before to this situation. Whilst I was studying the Sanscrit language, this pundit was my instructor; and we had, therefore, become as intimate as the difference of our situations and prejudices would allow.

It is the office of the pundit to expound the Hindoo law, in order to assist the judge in the decision of civil cases. As all these laws are framed in Sanscrit, which scarcely any European understands, great learning and integrity are absolutely necessary on the part of the expounder. It is only in civil cases where the pundit is consulted, as in all criminal prosecutions the Mohammedan law is in use, modified, however, in many respects, and made to conform to principles of British justice as far as possible. My Brahmin friend was very happy to see me, and after complaining of the unhealthiness of the climate, by which he had already lost one of his relations, and which was so great just at this time that the court could not sit from the number of Native officers who were sick, he expressed his gratitude to me in the warmest terms, and would insist on preparing me a repast, a kind of compliment which I had never heard of under similar circumstances, and a strange one for a Brahmin to pay to a European.

In the course of the forenoon he accordingly brought in a number of dishes dressed after his own manner, and we had no reason to complain either of his larder or his cookery. My friend went off at a hunting excursion after dinner, and I was left to pass another day in his house.

This day (March 7) was passed in reading; for I had been somewhat indisposed, and was therefore advised not to move about much, or to expose myself to so unhealthy an atmosphere. I received a second visit from the pundit, who indeed remained with me all the afternoon.

In the evening I received a note from my friend, informing me that the resident not only permitted me to go through the Court country, but had sent a messenger to the capital in order to mention my intentions, so that the Rajah might be prepared to send conveyances to meet me. This I considered as an act of great civility in Mr. —, with whom I was but slightly acquainted, but the kindness and hospitality of the British resident of Mysore are too well known to need any encomiums from an humble traveller. I took the precaution to hire a second set of bearers, to secure me from being detained on the road, in case any of my own people should fall sick, a very frequent occurrence on leaving Seringapatam.

On the 8th of March I started with twenty-four men instead of twelve, and about eight o'clock on the following morning arrived at Hussein-poor. The country I had passed, after quitting Seringapatam, was hilly, and, as far as I saw of it after the dawn broke, but sparingly covered with jungle. The land was stony, and the way exceedingly rough; for as there is little communication, except by foot passengers, between the Company's territories and those of the Rajah, there is no broad road like that which reaches as far as Seringapatam,* whence artillery manufactured at that place is constantly passing towards the Presidency. I no longer found the accommodation of bungaloes, but was now lodged at a small choultry or shed, which also seemed to be a place of public meeting for some Brahmins and money-changers. With these people I amused myself, by relating and hearing different stories connected with their own mythology, for I previously obtained credit for understanding this completely, by spouting to them a few Sanscrit slokas, got by rote in the course of my studies, a degree of learning, however low, to which they themselves did not aspire. Seated in a circle on the floor, and chatting in this manner, we employed a great part of the day. In the evening I walked out, and found the village to be small, and built of mud, most of the huts having tiled roofs; at one end a bungalow was in course of construction, by order of the Rajah of Mysore, for the accommodation of European travellers, a convenience of which I had reason to regret the want for

* At Seringapatam there is a very extensive gun-carriage manufactory, and other wooden artillery implements are made there; this is the principal reason why the Company keep this fort as a depot for troops, which otherwise would be abandoned on account of its unhealthyness. But as the magazines at Seringapatam are excellent, and the place itself is, besides, near the western woods of Wynad, no other depot could be made to answer the same purpose with equal convenience.

the day had been excessively hot, passed in a shed through which there was no thorough draught of air. At the other end of the village there were four or five very rude places of worship, only one of which was enclosed in a wall, and might be dignified with the name of pagoda. The others were little stone edifices, answering to the virakulls of Colonel Mackenzie, but just large enough to admit one man, and at the further end each contained a particular idol. In one, Shiva, Parvati, Ganesha, the Yoni, Linga, and Nundi appeared; whilst in another, there was only the Nundi, Yoni, and Linga. By these symbols I understood that the inhabitants were Shaivas; and indeed this is the more prevalent sect among the Hindoos in the West of India. The Brahmins of the place asserted these little altars to be very ancient, and they are certainly not of the form or size of pagodas of the present day.

On my return to the village, I met with a civility such as I had never before experienced, and which deserves to be recorded on account of its rarity. One of the Brahmins, with whom I had been conversing during the day, was standing at the door of his house, and he beckoned me to enter. I did so, and was there made acquainted with his mother, his wife, and his child, not to mention a calf, which was an inmate in the family. It may seem strange that this should be a mark of such particular attention; but when it is considered that one of these lords of the creation looks upon a European as little better than a Pariah, or outcast, and that he would be polluted even by his touch, the favour will be duly appreciated. This man affected to know something of palmistry, and, probably with a view of obtaining some money, he proceeded to exercise his art, by examining my hands after the manner of the gipsies, but I put a stop to his prophecies by requesting him to confine his observations to the past, which, I observed, must be an easier task on his part, while there would be this advantage, that I should be enabled to verify his consummate skill by my own experience. He either guessed, or was told, the period when I had quitted Madras, but being quite at a loss for any other event in my history, was very ready, if not to acknowledge his ignorance, at least to avoid its further exposure.

We started from this place as the evening closed, and continued travelling through a hilly country, until we arrived at Kattimalavadi. Here we were forced again to put up at a stinky old choultry, and, what was worse, inhabited by several noisy and filthy beggars. One old woman, in particular, never ceased talking until day-break, edifying my palanquin-bearers with a long history of her misfortunes. The reason why my bearers did not prosecute their journey through the night, was, that the road was so strong and uneven, that they preferred travelling even through the heat of the day to the risk of wounding their feet in the darkness of the night, for

their sandals only protect the soles of their feet, and some do not make use of even this defence.

On the following morning (March 9th) I saw more clearly the nature of my habitation, which much resembled an English cow-shed, except that by the constant use of fires for cookery, the walls and posts had become quite black with smoke. I walked out, and went round the walls of a fort on the left of the choultry, about 200 yards distant.

A man of the village joined me, from whom I learned, that when Seringapatam was taken, this fort was destroyed. It was of a square form, and measured by paces 280 yards on each side. It had been built of stone and mud, but was now completely dilapidated. Still, however, the village remained within, and in this case there were no habitations outside the walls. Dry grain cultivation was carried on to a considerable extent in the neighbourhood, and the land looked clean and well dressed. Early in the morning, several bullocks made their appearance near the choultry, laden with merchandise, and some Native tents were soon pitched, consisting of two legs, as of compasses, at each end, united by a cross pole, over which a piece of canvass was thrown, and fastened to the ground. They belonged, as I learned, to itinerant traders, who came to the villages from the larger towns once a week, thus holding a sort of fair or market day. They sold only the more necessary articles of consumption, such as different sorts of grain, curry stuff, cloths, and crockery ware. We were now obliged to travel by day, notwithstanding the heat, as we could no longer move in safety during the night, on account of the wild elephants and beasts of prey which infest the forests on which we were about to enter.

Just as I was on the point of setting out, I witnessed a curious family jar, which, had it happened in higher life, would have been productive of more serious consequences. A man, who inhabited one of the huts near the choultry, for what cause I could not perceive, gave his wife a severe beating, upon which she immediately resolved to quit his house, and return to her relations, as is usual on such occasions in this country. She had no sooner commenced her journey to the next village, than her son, a youth of fourteen, came forth, and earnestly entreating her to return, endeavouring, on the failure of his persuasions, to lead her back by the arm. This only served to excite greater rage on her part, which she vented, after the manner of her sex in India, by beating and scratching him most unmercifully. At this crisis, a separation seemed inevitable, when suddenly a second female came out from the house, flew towards the offended dame, threw herself at her feet, and by this masterly stroke of silent eloquence, succeeded in settling her into perfect tranquillity in a few seconds.

From Mallalivadi we journeyed on towards Periapatam. The

road still lay over hilly ground, but there was more brushwood on either side as we advanced, and here and there we passed topes of betel-nut trees. About midway in this stage, we passed along the raised bank, or bund, of a sheet of water, about half a mile wide, formed by a river in a valley, which was by this bank arrested in its course. This lake was almost covered with water fowl of all descriptions, more especially geese, ducks, teal, cranes, and flamingos. I endeavoured to approach them with the gun, but they were too wild, or too wise, to allow me to do them any harm. The method of catching them, which, though I have never seen it practised, I have so often heard described, as to entertain no doubt of the fact, is to set afloat a number of globular earthen pots on those parts of the lake which the birds frequent. In the course of a day or two, they become quite accustomed to these, so that a man with one over his head is enabled to approach near enough by swimming to pull them by the legs under water, where he easily fastens them to loops in a girdle worn for the purpose. In the afternoon we reached Periapatam, or rather a choultry, a little to the right of the town. This appeared sufficiently clean, but we had not been in it above a few seconds before we were covered with fleas. Of these rather inappropriate inhabitants of a house of rest there were myriads swarming on the ground, owing to its having been recently used as a cow-shed. It was impossible to exist in this place, so we immediately moved into the village, where, as it was fair-day, there was much bustle and traffic going on. We at first made towards what we thought a choultry, but on entry, found it to be a small pagoda, with a stone idol in it. All I wanted was a habitation free from vermin, and I could have made myself very comfortable with Swami, my hard-hearted fellow-lodger; but the villagers did not deem me worthy so great an honour, and therefore would not allow me to pollute his sanctuary. As they turned me out, however, they thought proper to find me other accommodation, by putting me into a granary, where there was stored the food for about twenty elephants, belonging to the Rajah of Mysore. In each corner of the room there was a heap of paddy, and care had been taken to put the sand seals upon it.*

I walked out in the afternoon, and found Periapatam to be of a respectable size, as its name would import.† It is the last village on the Mysore territories, and at some distance from it there is a new and well built stone fort, which I did not visit. This night was the anniversary of a celebrated Hindoo festival, called Shiva Ratri, and soon after I retired to rest in my palanquin. I was awakened by the sound of music near the pagoda, close by. On looking forth, I saw a procession pass, headed by two girls, with brazen vessels on their heads, ornamented with white feathers.

* See 'Oriental Herald,' vol. xiv, p. 61.

† Peria, great—Patam, city or town.

Brahmins and musicians marched in front, torch-bearers* were distributed around, and two persons were furnished with long white cloths, which they laid down in succession before the damsels, that they might not touch the bare ground. As soon as the procession reached the pagoda, the Brahmins entered, and a dispute having arisen about some part of the ceremony, a violent altercation ensued, which lasted so long that I was tired of waiting for its issue, and withdrew again to rest.

In all religions of mere ceremony, morality seems to be put quite out of consideration, and so long as the enjoined rites are performed, the votary conceives that he has fulfilled his religious duty. A more marked example could not be adduced than the present, where a number of the priesthood sat down, in the temple of their deity, and thought it no dishonour to him to squabble and abuse each other before his face.

TO INEZ.

Nor yet,—not yet,—we meet not yet!
 Our separation has been long;
 But time, which teaches to forget
 When hearts are cold and hope is young,
 Makes hopes and hearts with us more warm,
 And strengthens passion's potent charm.
 There is a stream, as Poets tell,
 Whose limpid dews oblivion shed;
 Ah! who would seek its sleepy spell,
 Or pour its opiate o'er the head?
 None, none who e'er hath felt the bliss,—
 The joy of such a love as this!
 Thou art to me the twining plant,
 Whose tender arms I court to cling
 Around my breast, in wealth or want,
 As ivys that in courtship fling,
 Alike in sunshine, or in shower,
 Their tendrils o'er some rustic bower!
 And I would ever be the bower
 To shelter thee, when storms arise;
 To shade thee from the sunbeam's power,
 And be thine *all* beneath the skies;—
 They tell me love brings bitter woe,
 But *we* can never find it so!

Madras Courier, Feb. 20, 1827.

ROD. ROY.

* Torches in India are not made of hemp and pitch, but of cotton roots wrapped round a stick. A flame is constantly kept up by pouring oil on the rags, and for this purpose a copper vessel is used with a narrow neck, out of which only a thin stream of oil can run.

LETTERS FROM ABROAD.

No. II.

Comparison of Egypt with Turkey, addressed from Cairo, to a Lady born in Smyrna, and residing in England.

— THERE is certainly some truth in the general opinion, that 'the recollections of our early days are among the most agreeable of sensations, and that the return of infant impressions is gratifying even in age.' It was while reflecting on the universal influence of this principle, that I thought of its peculiar application to yourself, who, having often talked to me, while in England, with the most passionate fondness of the cypress-groves and mountains of Smyrna, seemed to dwell upon the recollection of Oriental manners, amidst which your infancy was passed, with a satisfaction that proved how sweet these recollections were.

The unchanging customs of the East would have furnished nothing new to offer you on the subject of your native city, which has probably seen no alterations, but in the succession of its inhabitants, ever since your departure from it; but in the metropolis of Egypt some variations exist, and as it is still within the range of the Turkish empire, you will not, I conceive, be averse to their delineation.

The local situations of Constantinople, Smyrna, and many of the Grecian cities, chosen with intelligence, and improved by art and cultivation, form, unquestionably, their chief beauty; and independent of the imposing effect on all who approach these capitals, procures to their inhabitants the luxury of summer breezes, and the ever-varying pleasure of marine scenery. The pompously titled city of Grand Cairo is destitute of all these advantages, though situated in a climate where the absence of rain, the variety of clouds, the vicinity of burning deserts, and the more than tropical heat of the atmosphere, would seem to court the aid of such auxiliaries, and render them more than usually delicious. It would occupy too long a discussion to inquire into the cause of such an ill-directed choice, however worthy it may be of examination; but such is the fact, that this proud capital of the Caliphs, known among the Arabs by the appellation of the Great, and figuratively styled the Mother of the World, is built upon a dry and sandy plain, at the foot of the Mokattam hills, whose grey or yellowish surface, ornamented by a single blade of verdure, fatigue the eye, and, like the rocks of Malta, reflect a burning heat, which, in this southern climate, is still more insupportable. At a distance, too, from the delightful waters of the Nile, and the fertility of its banks, the houses are supplied with water by a wretched canal, which being stagnant for

several months before the inundation, would in any climate of less avidity depopulate the city by its pernicious exhalations.

The extent of ground which Cairo occupies is nearly treble that of Smyrna, and its population is estimated at 300,000. The mosques, baths, and public buildings are numerous; their style of architecture being more purely Arabic, they are lighter and more elegant than those in Turkey; the streets are still closer and more obscure; the markets worse supplied; the numbers of camels, asses, dogs, and children, still greater; and the filth and misery of the lame, the blind, and leprous inhabitants, inconceivable. Amidst all this, however, the bazaars are the emporium of wealth and magnificence; the shawls of Cashmere, the pearls of Ceylon, the gold stuffs of Aleppo, the diamonds of Goleonda, the shalloons of Angora, the muslins of Bengal, the jewellery of Constantinople, the emeralds and rubies of Arabia and India, the arms of Damascus, the velvets of Genoa, and the silks of Italy and of China; in short, all the richest productions of every part of the globe are there displayed, and every nation lends its tribute to this mart of luxury and opulence, except Great Britain, whose manufactures are in the highest possible esteem, but rarely to be met with when demanded, chiefly from the incapacity of the rich Oriental merchants to import them, except through the agency of Franks, and the poverty and low credit of these not enabling them to do so.

The bazaars are divided, as throughout all the East, into separate departments, possessing whole streets of the same trade or profession, and dealers in the same articles; but, by a whimsical contradiction, while the jewellery range is among the most elegant, the shoe bazaar is unquestionably the best built street in the metropolis. The quarters of residence for different classes of people are also distinct, as at Smyrna; but from the very confined number of Franks here, their poverty, and consequent inability to enjoy the airy and spacious mansions which the leading Turks inhabit, their quarter is among the worst, and has a bazaar of its own, where shops of all descriptions are mixed together, with coffee-houses, and barber's benches, filled by low characters of every nation. The only advantages it possesses is that of security at night, by having a closed door at the end of each alley; and its being on the edge of the canal rendering it agreeable for about four months in the year, if that can be counted as an advantage which gives them for the four following months a fetid odour almost insupportable; and for the remainder of the year, until the waters rise, a continual dust from its bed, which obliges them to keep their darkened windows always closed. The streets of this quarter are so narrow as not to admit of two balconies projecting opposite to each other, although they are only the breadth of an ordinary sofa seat, or divan, to which purpose they are invariably appropriated; they, therefore, project alternately from the dwelling on one side, to the opposite wall on the other, thus resembling what is called a dove-tail in carpentry;

and being often so close that hands can be shaken, or even kisses exchanged, from one balcony to another, without the possibility of being discovered by others, as all of them are completely closed, or opened only by little folding doors of lattice-work from the inside. The quarter of the Jews, on the opposite side of the canal, is, however, still narrower, for there I have really seen a stout Turk, burthened with yatagan and pistols, unable to pass to the end of the street, where, arrested in the middle of it by touching the wall with his body on each side, he was obliged to return and seek a wider passage. I was myself obliged to turn also, in order to give him room, as it was impossible for us to pass each other; and being on horseback, my feet absolutely touched the walls of the buildings on each side, while my head was in constant danger from the low overhanging balconies, which I could only avoid by frequently bending my body over the animal's neck. The people of Egypt urge the same reasons in favour of this system of building as are advanced in Turkey, namely, the exclusion of the sun; and in proportion as his beams are here more powerful, they have so effectually secured themselves from their intrusion, as with the heat to have shut the light out also, literally living in twilight at noon-day; free, it is true, from a scorching, but oppressed by a suffocating heat.

As there are no houses in Cairo which can be properly called Frank residences, the dwellings continually changing their embarrassed occupiers, all of them are built in the same manner,—that is to say, in the general style of the country. They have nothing of that airy lightness for which the retreats of Boodjah and Sediquey, in the neighbourhood of Smyrna, are so remarkable, but are dull heavy mansions, entered by a low and obscure door from the street, and leading to a square central court, to which all the principal windows are directed. These windows, as if not already sufficiently darkened by the gloom of their situation, and the wretched quality of the glass, are covered with a close wooden lattice-work, through which it is impossible to see the smallest object, and where jealousy itself might defy communication when the small apertures through which the face can be barely shown are secured within. The interior of those dwellings is a grotesque mixture of poverty and luxury, of dirt and magnificence. The kitchen, bed-rooms, and ordinary apartments, are destitute of all convenience. The people sleep generally on a basket-work bed-stead, which costs about two piastres, or less than a shilling; the bed-rooms are without tables, chairs, or even wash-stand, beyond a vacant space on the bench of a dirty window; and the stone-paved floor is uncovered by carpet or mat of any description, while every sacrifice is made to lavish wealth upon the hall of ceremony; and here, it must be confessed, in most of the instances which I have seen, they are both tasteful and luxurious. This hall, occupying what we term in England the first floor of the house, is always a large and lofty room, possessing latticed windows in every accessible direction, and frequently terminated by a pointed

domé of coloured glass, very fancifully worked into a close frame of clay. Entering at one of the narrow ends, similar to the vestibule of your own drawing-room at home, a space is left to receive the slippers; and about four feet from the door, the whole floor becomes first elevated five or six inches, another elevation of the same height surrounds the three sides of the apartment, on which is formed the divan, the cushions of which display all the finery of cloths, stuffs, embroidery, and needle-work, that the industry or the wealth of the occupier can command. But the *chef d'œuvre* is the white marble pavement, the variously-figured slabs of which are divided by intersecting lines of mosaic, most ingeniously executed, while in the centre rises a beautiful fountain supplied with water from the Nile, which, throwing its streams almost to the dome, has the most delightfully refreshing effect that can be imagined. The construction of the fountain is so extremely simple as to render it of general use, and as it is sunk below the level of the pavement and descended to by marble steps, when the heats of summer have subsided, it is covered by lengths of flooring fitted to the space, and the room being then spread with carpets, and a chandelier suspended from the dome, it is converted into an agreeable winter-apartment. But all this union of luxuries, adapted to every change of season, seems only to increase the disgust which is excited by passing from the palace to the ding-hill, terms that are strictly admissible when contrasting this part of the house with the others.

The inmates too frequently, in this respect, resemble their habitations; for I have frequently found a lady in a morning visit arrayed in ragged calico, which might have once been white, but, like the wearer, had lost its colour beyond redemption, and so unpardonably dirty in her person as to forbid one's approach, though in the evening the same person might be seen on the state sofa decked with all the trinkets of her casket, and glittering in a spangled robe, like a Drury-lane princess in tragedy. Here, as in Smyrna, you find ladies speaking French, Italian, Greek, and Turkish, to which the Arabic is often added; and this, with an imperfect knowledge of the guitar, and a few Italian cavatinas, make up their education. They are called accomplished, and if the being unable to read or write in any known language renders them so, they are certainly worthy of that appellation; but the fact is, that nothing can be conceived more wretched than the state of female society in this capital.

Of the other classes of inhabitants, the European and Asiatic Turks occupy the chief military appointments and political offices under the Vice-Roy, or Pasha, who raised himself to his present eminence from the Albanian ranks. The Armenians and Copts manage the revenues and finance,—the former attending to those arising from commerce, the latter to all assessed taxes on land, dwellings, population, &c. The Levantine Catholics are principally merchants on a small scale; the Greeks, dealers in the bazaar; the Jews, brokers, money-changers, and collectors of coin for the Government; and the Arabs, who form the grand mass of the popu-

lation, filling all the intermediate classes, from the head of the church and rich traders, down to the oppressed body of the poor, who fill up the measure of their existence in all the laborious and unprofitable duties. Would you believe it, that throughout the city not a calpack is to be seen? nothing less than a Cashmere shawl must cover an Armenian head; and though they are forbidden to wear any of the privileged colours, being Christian subjects of a Mohammedan power, they get them expressly manufactured of black, brown, blue, and other dark shades, so richly ornamented and flowered as to cost from 2000 to 2500 piastres, or upwards of 100*l.* sterling each. All the military here, except the Albanians, whose dress you must remember to have seen in Smyrna, continue the Mameluke costume, which, it must be confessed, gives great richness to the appearance of the wearer, especially when armed and mounted. The Copts wear around their heads a singular bandage of blue linen peculiar to themselves, and the Greeks, Jews, and Catholics, have turbans of blue and other dark colours, while the richest of the Arabs dress with comparative simplicity, when contrasted with the magnificence of the Turks. The lower orders wear a plain blue shirt, girded round the waist, being sufficiently pleased to sport their red or yellow slippers, and white woollen turbans, as the privileges of their faith. The women of Egypt are still more disguised in public than those of Turkey,—having over their usual dress and veil a pink silk chemise, and large black cloak, which envelops them so completely that even their eyes are scarcely to be seen, for which, it is true, they have little use, as they seldom walk, but are led in troops on the backs of mules and asses, on towering saddles, at least the height of the animal itself.

As the fear in which all Europeans lived here previous to the invasion of this country by the French, obliged them to abandon the Frank dress, most of the ladies born in Cairo continue to preserve the Levantine costume. You are too well acquainted with this to need description. It is precisely that of the Turkish and Armenian ladies at Smyrna, except that they load their long tresses with more sequins, dye their nails and palms with deeper henna, smoke their pipes in company with their visitors, and wear a profusion of paste ornaments on their turbans, instead of diamonds, which unfortunately they are too poor in general to purchase.

From this outline, your own recollections will fill up the details, and when you have done so, I am sure you will not envy me my being among such imperfect specimens of your own sex, and so unlike those we have seen together in the accomplished circles of England. I would have forgiven them their want of cypress-groves, mountains, and vines, but it is not so easy to pardon the utter neglect of their persons, minds, and dwellings, more particularly as, for a great portion of this year, they are usually shut up, and confined to the sole enjoyment of their own resources, and must be, generally speaking, miserable indeed.

A TROPICAL SQUALL.

THE evening breeze was cool and strong,
And smoothly glid our bark along,
While, in the blue concave,
The twinkling stars shone clear and bright,
And silver Luna's trembling light
Danced on the sparkling wave.

But, gathering in the northern skies,
Behold the murky clouds arise,
And, in th' horizon lower,
Still, rolling on, in thickest gloom,
They darken Heaven's cerulean dome,
Where all was bright before.

Affrighted Zephyr shuns the gloom,
The listless sails and creaking boom,
No longer catch his breath;
This sultry calm the storm presages,
'Tis the dread pause ere battle rages,
The harbinger of death!

But seize the moment ere 'tis past,
Furl every sail, strike every mast,
And every yard secure;
Yon black clouds bursting from the north,
Shall hurl a mighty tempest forth,
Thy bark may scarce endure.

See, see afar, the foaming spray!
At length 'tis come; bear, bear away!
Keep her before the wind;
Gods, what a blast! stay, steer not wide,
There's instant death on either side—
Steady! the compass mind.

Whence this confusion? why that shout?
Hark! the shrill cry, 'The light is out!'
A yawning grave is near;
One lingering spark still rests behind,—
No more!—'tis gone!—and we're consign'd
To darkness and despair!

Another light! or all is lost—
'Tis chaos now;—our bark is tost
At random on the wave.

Another light! or yield to fate—
Haste! haste, before it be too late
Our reeling bark to save!

A light is found!—the vessel wears,
Before the wind again she bears,
Nor dreads the following breeze;
Thanks be to Him of mighty power,
Who moves his hand the waters o'er,
And calms the mountain seas.

B. G. B.

PROPOSED REFORMS IN THE MEDICAL SERVICE OF INDIA.

To the Editor of the *Oriental Herald*.

SIR,

London, August 15, 1827.

WITH reference to a Paper in your '*Oriental Herald*' of June last, by a 'Retired Surgeon,' I enclose a copy of a Memorial from Madras, dated March 1822, addressed to the Court of Directors of the East India Company, on the subject of medical grievances and reform. A few explanatory notes are added to the memorial; and, considering it as public property, it is offered to the press; but as this is done without the consent of the author, it is requested that his name may be omitted.

It is not pretended that this memorial was ever actually read by the Court of Leadenhall Street; which is said, however, to have denounced it as *peevish* and *querulous*, and the petition for the amelioration of condition—inadmissible. If their decision be a just one, the Directors, who are not altogether beyond the reach of public opinion, will be glad to see it in your pages; but I regret it is not in my power to furnish you with a copy.

Low as the medical establishments in India have always been, they have even retrograded within the last seven years; from which it may fairly be inferred that the said medical establishments have either no friends in the Court of Leadenhall Street, or, what is pretty much the same thing, that the Directors have no favourites or interests to serve in the medical establishments in India, which both makes them, *the medical establishments, to wit*, poor, and keeps them so.

Your Bengal Medical Correspondent, for August, has not adverted to the increase of chaplain's retiring pay from major's pay, 292*l.*, to that of Lieutenant-Colonel, 365*l.* a year; published in the '*East India Register*,' corrected to 24th April, 1827.—This after 15 years' service in India. At that period of service, a surgeon can only retire, if compelled by ill health, on the half-pay of his rank, 127*l.* 15*s.*; after 17 years' service, on the full-pay of ditto, 191*l.* 12*s.*; and after 30 years' service, on ditto, 191*l.* 12*s.*!!! Is this just and impartial?

It may just be added in conclusion, that the average service in India of three members of the Medical Board of Bengal, is 43 years; of those of Madras, 32; and of Bombay, 30 years; and their pay on retirement, '*senes ut in otia tuta recedunt*,' 500*l.* a year!

The publication of these statements, in addition to many others made since their date, may, if the Court of Directors be inexorable, by exciting the attention of the Proprietors of East India Stock, of

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of the Board of Control, lead to an investigation of this subject, which cannot fail to occasion a more liberal and just treatment of a useful and deserving, but neglected and degraded, branch of their service in India.—I am, Sir, your most obedient servant,

R. S.

MEMORIAL

To the Honourable the Court of Directors for the affairs of the Honourable the United Company of Merchants of England, trading to the East Indies, the Memorial of R. S., in the service of the Honourable East India Company, on the Establishment of Fort St. George,

HUMBLE SHEWETH,

PAR. 1. That while many and great improvements, regarding the pay and pensions to medical officers, in his Majesty's naval and military services, have taken place within the last twenty years, no alteration has been made in the situation of the Honourable Company's medical officers during the above period, nor indeed since the year 1796, when they were placed, as to regimental subsistence, pay on furlough, and retiring pensions, upon the same allowances which they now receive. The period of service of members of the medical board, and of superintending-surgeons in their respective situations, has, since that period, been reduced from five to two years; but no pecuniary alteration, in regard to pay on furlough, or retiring pension, has been made in the medical department.

2. And, although by the General Order of Government, dated the 9th of October, 1810, the monthly salaries of members of the medical board, and of superintending-surgeons, were increased and fixed, yet that increase of salary is entirely local, and in no way affects the pay or subsistence on furlough to Europe, nor the retiring pension of any rank; which, it is most respectfully solicited, may be considered as one of the chief objects of this memorial.

3. It is true that, within the last twenty-five years, a very limited number of the medical officers of this presidency have returned to their native country, and retired from the service, with the assistance of the fund, in easy circumstances. But opportunities to realize the most moderate sum, when added to his pension, to enable a medical officer on this establishment to retire from the service after a period of from seventeen to twenty-five years actual service in India, fall to the lot of but few indeed; and these chances, from alterations in the service, are becoming more and more rare; so that it may with truth be asserted, that where one medical officer is enabled to return to his native country after the prescribed period of service with such property as shall make, with his pension, the most moderate subsistence, twenty, who, with a decent provision, would be most happy to retire from the service, or are strongly impelled by declining health to do so, are, from want of means, obliged to linger out their remaining years in India, to swell the

numerous list of those whose services and existence are to terminate in this country together.

4. That the assistant-surgeons and surgeons of this army are placed, with regard to their pay and retiring pensions, precisely on the same footing with lieutenants and captains in the Honourable Company's service, who come out to India at a much earlier period of life, and have higher honours and rewards awaiting them than are destined to fall to the lot of medical officers. But chaplains, who require a previous course of study to fit them for their office, are differently and much better provided for than medical officers are, although the education of a chaplain is not more expensive nor of longer duration than that of a well-educated medical man, and an assistant-surgeon appointed to your service in India cannot proceed thither agreeably to your Court's regulations, at an earlier period of life than a chaplain is permitted to do.*

5. Your memorialist here begs to refer to the sentiments of a most respectable medical writer, Dr. Hamilton, on the propriety of augmenting the pay of regimental surgeons. Dr. Hamilton had himself served as a regimental surgeon, knew the privations and hardships which were experienced in this station, and was well qualified to pronounce a correct judgment on the subject on which he wrote. We learn from him, that at that time, 1794, the pay of a regimental surgeon did not exceed 80*l.* a year. He proposes 200*l.* as a more equitable and competent remuneration for their services.

* "G. L. C. D., 9th April 1806. G. O. G., 1st April 1807. 38. 113.

' On reconsideration of our orders of the 25th July 1798, we are of opinion that the retiring pay thereby allowed to chaplains is not adequate to the length of service required, and we have agreed to the following alterations in the regulations then established, viz.

' 39. That chaplains, after seven years residence in India, be allowed to come to Europe on furlough, and to receive the pay of major during such furlough.

' 40. That chaplains, who come home for ill health prior to this period of service, shall receive the pay of captains only.

' 41. That chaplains, having served ten years at a military station, and after eighteen years service altogether, (including three years for a furlough,) shall be allowed to retire on the pay of major.

' 42. That chaplains, having served ten years in India, and whose constitutions will not admit of their continuing in the service there, for the period required to entitle them to full pay, shall be permitted to retire on the half pay of major.

' 43. That chaplains, whose constitutions will not admit of their continuing in India for so long a period as ten years, shall be permitted to retire on the half pay of captain, provided they have served seven years in India.

' 44. That no retiring pay be granted to chaplains who have not served seven years in India. — *Code of Pay Regulations*, p. 358.

6. Dr. Hamilton quotes Dr. Brocklesby, a celebrated and enlightened physician, who wrote, twenty years before Dr. Hamilton, 'On Economy and Military Discipline.' Dr. Brocklesby is of opinion, that a regimental surgeon, qualified properly by a liberal education, should not receive less than 250*l.* a year. If this salary were deemed necessary forty-seven years ago, it is hoped that this memorial for an increase of pension will meet, at this day, with the favourable consideration of the honourable the Court of Directors.*

* 'Let us suppose the surgeon twenty-five years of age before he be qualified for his office; I should think it almost improper that any person should enter into the army as a physician, or qualified surgeon, till he be nearly this age; neither is his understanding properly ripened, nor can a liberal education be finished much earlier; and till both take place, he is unfit for so important a charge. Let us suppose, also, that he has received an expensive education, and afterwards resided several years at a university, (the least is four,) and at no small expense. All this is to be done before he can begin, I shall call it, the world, or is in a situation to recover an equivalent for his time, money, and trouble. Here is upwards of one-third of life wasted, which ought surely to be considered as of material weight, since we find the period of man's life so limited.'

Will any one venture to assert, that there is any thing like a superfluity in a salary of 200*l.*, as times go, allowing for an officer's expenses, and as the value of money now stands?

In almost any other way of life a man may obtain this, and that without either toil or anxiety of study, or the expense, at which medical honours must be obtained. In most of the genteel mechanical branches, a sum as large can be yearly cleared. If this be true, who would enter the army, where he must starve on less than half?

'This competency, 250*l.* per annum,' Dr. Brocklesby adds, 'in time of peace would be an inducement to abundance of learned and ingenious men, of sufficient science, to divest themselves of ambition, and to quit the further bustle of a busy world for the means of a genteel employment in those paths into which, from their outset in life, they had early entered.' (1).—Dr. Hamilton on the Duties of a Regimental Surgeon. Woodfall, London, 1794. 8vo., 2d vol., pp. 178, 185, 179.

(1) A chaplain, after eighteen years service in India, including three years for one furlough, is allowed to retire on the pay of lieutenant-colonel, 365*l.* a year; after ten years, if compelled by ill health to quit the service, on the half-pay of lieutenant-colonel, 200*l.* 15*s.*; after seven years, on the half-pay of major, 173*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* See Memorial, p. 6.

'East India Register,' corrected to 24th April, 1827.

A surgeon, after twenty years service in India, including three years for one furlough, is allowed to retire on the pay of captain, 191*l.* 12*s.* Every lieutenant-colonel, major, or captain, is allowed to retire with the half-pay of his rank to which he has attained, in case his health will not permit him to serve in India; i. e. to a surgeon, 127*l.* 15*s.*, in any period above thirteen and under seventeen years.

A subaltern officer, or military assistant-surgeon, having served six years in India, is permitted to retire on the half-pay of ensign, 54*l.* 15*s.*, if his constitution be so impaired as to prevent the possibility of his continuing in India.

A surgeon, who may have served thirty years in India, unless he has attained the office of superintending-surgeon, and served two years as such, has still the same retiring pay he had after seventeen years service, 191*l.* 12*s.* per annum.

7. That since the regulations for increasing the advantages, and improving the situation, of medical officers of his Majesty's army, with the view of encouraging able and well educated men to enter into and continue in that line of his Majesty's service, his Majesty's medical army officers have possessed many advantages over the medical officers of the Honourable Company's service, in regard to an increased rate of pay and pensions of each rank, in addition to those advantages which they formerly possessed, in the number and respectability of their appointments. They have a director-general of the army medical board, inspectors, and deputy-inspectors of hospitals, physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries to the forces,—situations both of honour and profit; while in this country, all the ranks above regimental surgeon, which we have to mention, are superintending-surgeon and member of the medical board, all other medical staff situations being considered as local and temporary appointments only, with additional salaries for the time, but without any fixed or definite rank, or additional retiring pension.

8. Our members of the medical board, and superintending-surgeons, can scarcely be considered as holding any fixed or specific rank; for, if they are permitted to return on furlough to Europe, they are posted as regimental surgeons in this country, and no new promotion, in the room of the surgeons advanced to fill their appointments, takes place in the list of assistant-surgeons.

9. Your Memorialist respectfully submits, that members of the medical board, and superintending-surgeons, of the other Presidencies, do not appear to be liable to be posted to regiments, on being permitted to proceed on furlough to Europe, in consequence of the orders of your Honourable Court, dated 26th August 1818, authorizing the grant of the rank of major to superintending-surgeons; which indulgence, it is hoped, may be extended to the medical officers in question on this establishment.*

* 'Extract from General Orders by the Right Honourable the Governor in Council, dated Head Quarters, Bombay Castle, 6th April 1820, publishing Extract of Letters from the Honourable Court of Directors.

'Extract from Letter, dated 6th September 1819.

'140—143. Surgeon Wybrow, of his Majesty's 17th light dragoons, applied to be appointed a superintending-surgeon, in consequence of his being senior to the junior superintending-surgeon. This application was negatived, on the Commander-in-Chief's reporting it to be inadmissible; and to put an end to all similar applications in future, the superintending-surgeons have been granted commissions as majors, to mark their superiority over all regimental surgeons.'

'51. Your resolution, on the subject of Mr. Wybrow's application, was very proper.

'52. We have, in our military letter to Bengal, dated 26th August 1818, per 142—144, copy of which will have been communicated to you by that government, authorized the grant of the rank of major to superintending-surgeons.'

10. The claim to superior rank, would appear to be established by a distinct commission to a higher grade, and is implied, if not admitted, by the pay of lieutenant-colonel, and of major, being allowed to members of the medical board, and to superintending surgeons, when on furlough to Europe.* Your Memorialist therefore trusts, that the principle recognised by your Honourable Court of effective lieutenant-colonels being added to regiments in the place of such as are advanced to the rank of major-generals by the operation of his Majesty's brevet, and are consequently returned supernumerary in their corps, will be considered applicable to the situation of your Memorialist.†

11. That the subsistence or pay of an assistant-surgeon in the Honourable Company's service is about 5s. a day, or 91l. 5s. a year; while that of an assistant-surgeon in his Majesty's service is 7s. 6d. a day, or 136l. 17s. 6d. a year. (3)

12. It is for your Honourable Court to decide whether your medical servants in this country ought to have the same subsistence, which it is well understood his Majesty's surgeons do receive. His Majesty's surgeons in India, although considered to be upon an

* 'G. L. C. D. Pay of head surgeons on furlough, and pay of members of the medical board on furlough.'

'You have already been advised of our resolution as to the pay on furlough granted to head surgeons, which is conformable to what you have suggested in the 97th paragraph. And with respect to your recommendation, for allowing the pay of lieutenant-colonel to members of the medical board, we shall not object to it.'—*Bengal Regulations*, 330.

† 'General Orders by his Excellency the Most Noble the Governor-General in Council, Fort William, 23d October 1819.

'The Most Noble the Governor-General in Council having resolved that an efficient lieutenant-colonel shall be added to the corps of engineers, and to the cavalry on this establishment, in the room of Major-Generals Garstin and Brown, the following promotions are accordingly to take place from the 1st instant:

'Major-Generals Garstin and Brown will be returned as supernumerary lieutenant-colonels in their respective corps.'

'G. O. BY GOVERNMENT. Fort St. George, 7th February, 1820.

'The Right Honourable the Governor in Council having resolved that an efficient lieutenant-colonel shall be added to the cavalry on this establishment, in the room of Major-General Rumley, the following promotions are ordered to take place from the 1st October, 1819. Major-General Rumley will be returned supernumerary in his corps.' (2)

(2) The Medical Establishments on the three Presidencies have now two ranks only, 'surgeons' and 'assistant-surgeons'; a fair specimen, considering the above letters of the Court of Directors, of their inconsistency, or art of improving one branch of the service at least backwards.

(3) The pay of lieutenant and assistant-surgeon has, since the date of this memorial, been augmented to 6s. a day, or 118l. 12s. 6d. a year.

equality with regard to pay with the medical officers of the Honourable Company's service, yet the former do receive, according to your memorialist's information, derived from most respectable sources, the difference betwixt the Honourable Company's rate of subsistence, 10s. per diem, and that of his Majesty's extended pay of 11s. 4d. from the date of promotion; 14s. 1d. after seven years, or ten years, service in a medical capacity; and 18s. 10d. per day after twenty years' service. This difference is paid to them by the army agents at home; so that the equality in this country betwixt the services is nominal only, and not real. (4)

13. The pay of a surgeon of infantry in his Majesty's service was increased from December 1803, from 9s. 5d. to 12s. a day, or 11s. 4d. nett,—the surgeon to keep a horse at his own expense, &c. His pay after seven years service as a surgeon, or ten years service with the army in the whole, in a medical capacity, on full pay, was augmented to 14s. 1d. per diem; after twenty years service with the army in the whole to 18s. 10d.; and thirty years service with the army in the whole gave the regimental surgeon the unqualified right of retiring from the service on half pay, at the rate of 15s. a day.*

(4) This statement may be erroneous, but is immaterial to the object of the memorial.

* 'Extracts from a regulation for increasing the advantages, and improving the situation, of the medical officers of the army, dated 22d May, 1804.

'GEORGE R.

'Whereas we have approved of an arrangement for increasing the advantages, and improving the situation, of the medical officers of our army, with the view of encouraging able and well-educated persons to enter into, and continue in, that line of our service, our will and pleasure is, that from the 25th December last inclusive, the following regulations do take place on the above head.

2. The assistant-surgeons of our regiments of dragoon guards, and dragoons, foot guards and infantry of the line, shall, without distinction as to their having served at home or abroad, have the full pay of 7s. 6d. a day nett, with half-pay, when reduced, at the rate of 3s. a day, subject to the usual deductions.

'The pay borne on the establishment for the surgeons of our regiments of regular infantry, shall be increased to the same rate as that now allowed to the surgeons of cavalry,—viz. 11s. 4d. a day nett; and in the infantry, as well as the cavalry, the surgeon shall be required to keep a horse, at his own expense, to enable him the better to perform his regimental duty.

'The half-pay of regimental surgeons both of the cavalry and infantry shall be increased to 6s. a day, subject to the usual deduction.

'Every regimental surgeon of our forces, after seven years' service as such, or ten years service with our army in the whole in a medical capacity, on full pay, shall have his pay augmented to 14s. 1d. per diem nett, but is not entitled on that account to any additional half-pay when reduced.

'Every regimental surgeon of our regular forces, after twenty years' service with our army in the whole on full pay, shall have his pay augmented to 18s. 10d. a day nett, and shall have a claim to retire on half-pay.

14. The rank of a regimental surgeon, in the Honourable Company's service, is not attained, at the present period, in a shorter time than from twelve to fourteen years. And seventeen years actual service and residence in India entitles the Company's surgeon to the pay, or retiring pension, of 10s. a day, or 182*l.* 10s. a year, established in 1796; and should he have served twenty-five, twenty-seven, or thirty years, unless he shall have attained the situation of superintending-surgeon, and have served two years as such, his length of service can avail him nothing; he can have nothing more than 182*l.* 10s. a year. (5)

15. Besides, a surgeon of the Honourable Company's service, who is permitted to return to Europe, on furlough, for three years, after ten years service in India, receives 10s. a day; while a surgeon of his Majesty's service, of the shortest standing, receives 11s. 4*d.* a day; a surgeon of ten years service, receives 14s. 1*d.* a day; and after twenty years, 18s. 10*d.* a day; or, under similar circumstances, the Company's surgeon, of whatever standing, receives 182*l.* 10s. a year; and his Majesty's surgeons, in the first instance, 206*l.* 16s. 8*d.*; in the next, 257*l.* 5s.; and in the last, 343*l.* 14s. 2*d.* per annum. (6)

pay at the before-mentioned rate of 6s. a day; but if the cause of retirement be ill health contracted in the service, and shall be so certified by the army medical department, the rate of his half-pay on retiring, after the above length of service, shall be 10s. a day, subject to the usual deductions.

Every regimental surgeon of our regular forces, after thirty years service with our army in the whole on full pay, shall have the unqualified right of retiring on half-pay at the rate of 15s. a day, subject to the usual deduction.

All other surgeons, and assistant-surgeons, shall be permitted to retire from the service on the pay of their rank after having served in India not less than twenty years, including three years for one furlough.

A lieutenant, or assistant-surgeon, having served thirteen, or an ensign nine years, in India, including three years for a furlough, may retire on the half-pay of his rank, in case his health shall not permit him to reside in India.

If an officer, of the rank of lieutenant, whose constitution may be so impaired as to prevent the possibility of his continuing in India, has not served the period prescribed above, he may be permitted to retire from the service on the half-pay of ensign, provided he has served six years in India; but no subaltern officer, or military assistant-surgeon, shall be entitled to retire on ensign's half-pay, unless such officer, or assistant-surgeon, shall have actually served six years in India. — *Regulation respecting Military Officers retiring from the Service.*

(5) Surgeons' new rate of full pay, 191*l.* 12s., the same from twenty to thirty years service in India, and upwards. Lieutenants', or assistant-surgeons', increased rate of half-pay, 73*l.* Ensigns' ditto, 54*l.* 15s.

(6) The new rate of full pay to a captain, or surgeon, in the Company's service, is 10s. 6*d.* a day.

16. That there are, at present, on this establishment, seven superintending-surgeons, whose respective periods of service are as follow: thirty-four, thirty-one, thirty-one, twenty-nine, twenty-eight, twenty-six, and twenty-five years. The senior having been admitted on the establishment in July 1787, and the junior in December 1796. The junior lieutenant-colonel of infantry, agreeably to the gradation list of the Madras army, is a cadet of 1797, and probably arrived in the country the year after. Lieutenant-colonel Walker is the junior lieutenant-colonel of cavalry, a cadet of 1798. The whole, or the greater number of our superintending-surgeons, consequently, had they originally come out to India as cadets, even at their then comparatively advanced age, would, in all probability, by this time, have attained the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the army, and have been thereby entitled, having served more than the prescribed period in India, to retire on the pension of 365*l.* per annum.

17. A medical officer cannot now expect to attain the situation of superintending-surgeon in less than from twenty-five to thirty years' service; after which, like his superiors in the Medical Board, he has two years to serve before he be entitled to retire on the pension allotted to him of 300*l.* a year, although the officer of corresponding rank in his Majesty's service, an inspector of hospitals, receives the full pay of forty shillings a day, or 730*l.* a year. The half-pay of an inspector of hospitals is one pound per day, subject to the usual deductions.*

18. Your memorialist begs to make some comparison betwixt the senior medical-officers of this establishment, and their contemporaries in the military branch of the service. Our late first member of the Medical Board, Dr. Watson, came out to India about the year 1777; the junior lieutenant-general, Lieutenant-General Robert Bell, arrived in India in 1779, or 1780. The three present members of the Medical Board have served thirty-nine, thirty-two, and thirty years respectively, having arrived in this country in 1783, 1790, and 1791. Colonel Marriott is the junior colonel of infantry, a cadet of 1789, and arrived in 1790. The junior colonel of cavalry, Major-General Sir John Doveton, arrived in 1782.

19. In further support of the object of this memorial, it is most respectfully stated, that had a medical officer on this establishment,

* 'A surgeon of a general hospital, or superintending surgeon, who has served in that station not less than two years, and whose period of service in India has been not less than twenty years, including three years for one furlough, is permitted to retire from the service, and allowed 300*l.* per annum for life.

'A member of the Medical Board, who has been in that situation not less than two years, and not less than twenty years in India, including three years for one furlough, shall be permitted to retire from the service, and allowed 500*l.* per annum.' — *Regulation respecting Military Officers retiring from the Service.*

now a member of the Medical Board, come out to India as a cadet, instead of an assistant-surgeon, he probably would, from his standing in the service, have been colonel of a regiment, and entitled, by this rank, to reside in England, or in India, at the pleasure of your Honourable Court, and to receive, including off-reckonings, from 1000*l.* to 1200*l.* a year. (7)

20. An inspector of army hospitals at home, has, on full pay, 730*l.* a year, and the half-pay of that rank being one pound per diem, your memorialist would retire from the service on a pension of 300*l.* per annum, which is less in amount by sixty-five pounds a year than the half-pay which is granted to the medical officer, of corresponding-grade, in his Majesty's army. The retired members of the Army Medical Board of Great Britain were, it is believed, allowed to retire on the full pay of their rank, viz. 2000*l.* per annum, to the surgeon or director general; and 1500*l.* to the second member of the Medical Board. But the pension of a member of the Medical Board of Madras is 500*l.* a year; and he must serve two years in the Board to be entitled to that retiring pay; while every other military officer, (not medical,) after twenty-two years' service in India, is permitted to retire on the pay of his rank, whatever it may be, although he only may have attained it the day before that of his retirement.

21. The full pay of a deputy inspector of hospitals, after twenty years' service in the whole, in any medical rank in his Majesty's army, is 547*l.* 10*s.* per annum.

22. A member of the Medical Board, to be able to retire on the pension of 500*l.* a year, will, under present circumstances, have reached about his sixty-second year, and the period of his services in India must be about forty-one years : that is, supposing he came out to India in his twenty-first year, served twelve years as an assistant-surgeon ; fifteen years as a surgeon ; twelve years as a superintending-surgeon ; and two years to complete his period of service in the Medical Board ; which will be found to be about the rate of expectancy, and promotion, at the present day. (8)

(7) § 16, 17, 18, 19. There has been no such appointment as surgeon to a general hospital in India for many years. There never was any danger of a surgeon coming to the Board in less than 20 years. The senior superintending-surgeon in Bengal has been 21 years a full surgeon, the junior 13 years. The senior superintending-surgeon in Madras has been 23 years a full surgeon—the junior 16 years. The senior superintending-surgeon in Bombay has been 13 years a full surgeon—the junior 9 years. The first member of the Medical Board in Bengal has served 44 years, the second 44 years, and the third 41 years. At Madras, the first member of the Medical Board has been a full surgeon 26 years, the second 25 years, and the third 24 years. At Bombay, the senior medical servant has been 24 years a full surgeon, and is now on furlough to Europe; the first member of the Medical Board has been a full surgeon 24 years, the second 23 years, and the third 22 years.

(8) 500% a year at the age of sixty-two, and after from forty-one to forty-four

23. That the members of every other Board, under your Government of Fort St. George, are taken by selection from the whole service, while the members of your Medical Board alone are chosen by seniority; and the seats in the Board, for the most part, have only been relinquished by the demise of the incumbent—circumstances which preclude the most distant hope, in the minds of your junior medical officers, of ever arriving at that station, which all must be, in some measure, ambitious of attaining.

24. Your memorialist is aware, that two or three exceptions to the custom of choosing the members of the Medical Board by seniority, have occurred, since its establishment in 1786, but the principle of selection has not, to the knowledge of your memorialist, been recognised by your Honourable Court.

25. That, on the contrary, your general officers, serving on the staff, have a fixed and specific period of service allotted to them; on the ground, it is believed, that such distinctions and rewards may be more widely diffused, and be attainable by all. The extension of which principle, to the medical officers serving under your Presidency of Fort St. George, while it would hold out the most powerful incentive to every laudable exertion throughout the profession, would disseminate your rewards more equally among your medical servants, and would be found to be a great and lasting improvement to the service. From which considerations, your memorialist most earnestly entreats its submission to the favourable notice of your Honourable Court.

26. Your memorialist, in submitting this appeal to your Honourable Court, has endeavoured to offer as correct a statement of circumstances on the subject of his memorial, as his information, derived from a long period of service, aided by a careful examination of official records, will admit; and he prays that your Honourable Court will take the subject of this memorial into its consideration, in the hope, that the known liberality and justice of your Court, towards every class of your servants, will grant the indulgence prayed for, in the matter submitted to your Honourable Court.

And your memorialist, as in duty bound, will ever pray.

years service in India, is certainly contributing, *serves us of his kind*, Service in the Board is lately, and since the date of this memorial, *has been* four years; but will this mend the circumstances of a surgeon from his seven-*teenth* teenth to his thirtieth year of service, who may have lost his health in the service and has 1924. 12s. only to retire upon?

and has 1924. 125. only to retire upon:

TO A RIVER.

BEAUTIFUL River! where art thou flowing?
 Whence didst thou thus in thy melody come?
 Where hast thou been all thy freshness bestowing?
 Why dost thou wander so far from thine home?
 Dost thou not know that the tempest will meet thee,
 Heave into dark waves thy calm azure breast?
 Dost thou not know that the torrent will sweep thee
 Along in its whirlpools, and give thee no rest?
 Dost thou not know that its blendings will dim thee?
 Dost thou not know that with earth it will stain?
 All the sweet sunbeams that often shall gem thee,
 Never can make thee untainted again.
 Dost thou not know the ice-gale will come o'er thee,
 E'en from the shores thou hast watered and blest?
 And midst thy music, thy light, and thy glory,
 Make Heaven's own beamings seem dark on thy breast.
 Dost thou not know that the sea will engulph thee,
 Take thy bright waters, but give thee none back;
 Roar out its joy, like the wolf, as he quaffs thee,
 But send not a spray-drop to freshen thy track?
 No—thou knows't not; and the young heart's pure feelings
 Flow on as thou dost, and meet the same fate;
 Sorrow's rude storms, in their darkest revealings,
 Passion's wild torrents, when seek they their mate.
 Oh! can the stain and the loss of that bosom
 E'er be made pure by the sun-beams of Fame,
 Flourish again in its depths the white blossom,
 Rooted as firmly as ere the flood came?
 Ice too will meet them,—the ice of unkindness
 Still all their sweet tides, and chain all their flow,
 Dim the bright eyes till they turn, as in blindness,
 From the sweet heavens, all dark to them now.
 And the world's ocean, to which they are pouring
 All their deep streams gushing warm from the heart,
 Ne'er of its wealth and its smiles lavishly showering,
 Will to that living-waste one drop impart.
 Yes, thou art emblem, thou beautiful River!
 Of the young warm bosom's destiny here;—
 And is there none, is there none to deliver?
 Ope's there no path in this desert of fear?
 Yes—there is *one*, one sure path of escaping,
 One radiant channel that leads to no ill,
 Streams that through this are their bright courses shaping,
 Ice-chains, nor tempest, nor torrent shall feel:
 Calm and untainted shall e'er be their flowing,
 And Heaven's sea, when life's desert is past,
 Oh, it shall be on each bosom bestowing
 Waters of joy that eternally last!

S. E. H.

ACCOUNT OF A VISIT TO THE VOLCANO OF POPOCATEPELT,
IN MEXICO.

ON the 20th of April, 1827, this volcano was visited for the first time by Messrs. William and Frederick Glennie, of the United Mexican Mining Company, and Mr. John Taylor, accompanied by a youth named Jose Quintana. A supplement to the Mexican paper called 'El Sol,' of the 8th of May, contains the following abstract of the diary which the travellers kept during their journey:

On the morning of the 16th, the party left Mexico, provided with a barometer, a sextant, a theodolite, a chronometer, a telescope, and other instruments. They passed the night in the town of Ameca.

On the 17th, they took the road to Puebla, which runs between the two volcanoes, with the intention of proceeding to Atlixco. At the highest point of the pass, they turned to the right, taking the road called De los Neveros. Having ascended to the limit of vegetation, which, according to their barometrical measurement, was at the height of 12,693 feet above the level of the sea, they met some men, who informed them that they could not proceed that way, either to the summit of the volcano, or to Atlixco, on account of the quantity of sand which obstructed the road. They therefore descended; and taking the road which they before quitted, they repaired to San Nicolas de los Ranchos.

On the 18th, they continued their journey towards Atlixco. The road runs to the east of the volcano, and along the skirt of an extensive plain covered with large stones and fragments of rock, which probably were once lodged in the mouth of the crater. Having ascertained that the town of Tochimilco was nearer to the volcano, they resolved to proceed thither, in order to obtain information relative to their expedition. Don F. Olivares, the Alcalde of Tochimilco, who had never ascended to the summit of Popocatepelt, though it is situated on his own territory, not only furnished them with all the information he possessed, but also offered to accompany them, and to procure them guides and attendants to convey their instruments, &c. It was arranged that on the following day they should proceed to Santa Catalina, which is at the foot of the great mountain.

On the 19th, they set out for Santa Catalina; but before they reached it, Senor Olivares found that business would prevent him from continuing the journey. He, however, gave them a guide, who conducted them through a sort of wood to the upper boundary of the pine-trees, which they found at 12,544 feet above the level of the sea. Here they passed the night, wrapped in their cloaks, be-

side a great fire. About twelve o'clock it rained, and afterwards a hard frost came on.

On the 20th, they proposed to reach the summit of Popocatepetl. The instruments were placed in the charge of their Indian attendants; and mounted on mules, they began the ascent by moon-light, at half-past three in the morning. They soon got beyond all trace of vegetation, and arrived at a level covered with sand and loose stones, which, though rendered somewhat firm by the rain of the preceding night, nevertheless proved extremely fatiguing to the mules. They continued ascending the mountains from south to west until six in the morning, when they found it impossible to proceed farther with the mules, for, besides being overpowered by fatigue, the animals would have been unable to ascend the steep acclivity which now rose before them.

The travellers, therefore, dismounted and put on their cloaks, taking with them two skins filled with water for drink, and their barometer, which was carried by the boy Quintana. They began to ascend over a tract covered with loose sand, and fragments of pumice-stone, their object being to reach some masses of rock which appeared to be connected with the summit of the mountain. But here they experienced great difficulties, for the eminence was so steep and the ground so unsolid, that at every step they ascended they almost slipped down again. The fatigue of this exertion, joined to the diminution of atmospheric pressure, compelled them to rest at every fifteen or twenty paces. In this manner they proceeded upwards to the distance of about half a mile, when they reached the masses of rock towards which they had directed their course. Here they halted to wait for the Indians, who were ascending more slowly. Hitherto the thermometer had continued at 28 deg. Fahrenheit (2 deg. below the 0 of Reaumur;) the sky was perfectly clear, but the horizon was obscured by a dense cloak of vapour, which prevented them from discerning any object. They seemed to be in the midst of an ocean of fog. At eight in the morning the sun began to be visible.

As soon as the Indians joined them they partook of a slight repast, and they then continued their journey, passing over some great loose stones, which had rolled down from the upper part of the precipice, and having lodged one against another, formed a sort of pathway. But these stones were so feebly held together, that when stepped upon they frequently rolled away, which rendered the path extremely unsafe. At this the Indians became alarmed, and showed a disinclination to proceed. However, by dint of entreaties and offers, they were induced to ascend a little higher; but finding that the road further on was as bad or even worse, they absolutely refused to advance. Perceiving an opening on the left, the travellers determined to attempt the ascent in that part, but the road was bad, and besides, the clouds in which they were enveloped prevented

them from seeing their way. As it was found impossible to induce the Indians to continue the journey, they were furnished with some provisions, and directed to descend and wait at the place where the party had slept on the preceding night. This circumstance was exceedingly mortifying to the travellers, because, being unable to carry all their instruments with them, they were prevented from making the astronomical and other observations they intended. However, they determined to advance for the purpose of reconnoitring and marking those points which would afford them the most easy means of ascent on some future occasion.

Soon after the Indians left them they passed the clouds, and reached an extremely steep and stony path, which they ascended with much difficulty. Fatigue, accompanied by pains in their knees, obliged them to halt at every eight or ten paces, and after journeying in this way for about an hour, they arrived at an amphitheatre of basaltic rocks, so steep that they could only ascend by climbing on their hands and feet, and that with many risks. Turning to the right they next came to a place covered with sand, consisting, apparently, of pounded pumice-stone, and they ascended to a very elevated rocky peak, which, as seen from Mexico, has merely the appearance of a small sharp point. This is a huge compact mass of black basalt, resembling broken pillars, whose large crevices were filled with solid snow. Here small stones occasionally fell upon them, as if thrown down by people from above. They also began to feel headache and nausea, which proved more distressing to Quintana than to any of the party. The barometer now showed that they were 16,895 feet above the level of the sea. After partaking of some light refreshment and resting for an hour, they resumed their journey.

In this brief abstract it is impossible to enter into minute details, or to describe clearly the many difficulties and dangers which our adventurers encountered, before they reached the sandy slope which forms the dome or summit of the mountain. Having attained this point they again rested for short time. Mr. Glennie placed the barometer at the greatest height within their reach, and while they were engaged in observing it, Quintana suddenly fell down overcome by fatigue and illness. He complained much of pain in his head. He had been smoking a great deal during the day, which might possibly have occasioned his illness, as drinking spirits is known to produce similar effects in elevated regions. He found himself unable to go on, and he was, therefore, directed to wait until the party should rejoin him on their return.

They now came in sight of a sandy esplanade, which, on the left, was covered throughout with crystallized snow in conical and prismatic masses, forming pillars and Chinese-like ruins, and innumerable fanciful figures. As they proceeded to ascend, making their way through the snow, they heard a noise like that of distant thunder, which they attributed to a fall of snow in some other part of the mountain.

the mountain. They advanced to the distance of about a league, frequently stopping to rest, for they were much incommoded by headache, pain in the knees, difficulty of breathing, and nausea, and at five in the afternoon they reached the highest verge of the crater.

The travellers had passed the whole day in the most profound and undisturbed solitude. Not a plant, a bird, or the smallest insect had been visible. In some places they found the rock broken into fragments, in others full of hollows, as if dug out, and here and there reduced to heaps of rubbish, sand, and ashes. While earnestly engaged in contemplating the grand and awful picture which extended around them, they suddenly found themselves on the brink of an immense abyss, whence issued a shower of stones, accompanied by a noise like the roaring of the sea. Here they were again seized with violent sickness, and they continued for some time in a state of insensibility. On recovering, they examined their barometer and thermometer, the only instruments they had with them. In the barometer, they found that the column of mercury had risen more than fifteen inches, and in the thermometer it varied from 33 to 39 degrees.

Proceeding to examine the crater, they discovered that almost all the stones thrown up in the eruptions fall back again into the cavity; and that the few which fall outwards descend chiefly on the south side. The noise which is constantly heard in the interior increases gradually, and then subsides after a loud crack, at which time stones, sand, and ashes are thrown up from the crater. These eruptions are frequent, and they vary in their degree of violence. Small columns of smoke issue at various points, both in the interior and round the mouth of the crater. The crater resembles the form of a deep funnel, having round its sides longitudinal furrows, diverging from bottom to the top, like the radii of a circle. Three rings, or circular excavations, divide it into four zones of various sizes, the largest being that nearest the mouth of the crater. This upper zone is composed of live stone, and the others appear to be of sand. Snow was seen only on the exterior, and the northern part of the interior of the crater. The mouth is almost circular, and about a mile in diameter. It is much lower on the eastern than on the western side. On the south side the edge was so narrow and uneven that it was not easy to walk along it, but on the north it was broader and more equal. From the summit of Popocatepetl nothing was visible but the volcano of Orizava, and the snow-capped Sierra beside it. Every other object was obscured by the clouds.

Having made these observations, and finding that night was coming on, the party returned by the same road which they had taken in their ascent, to the spot where they had left the youth Quintana. Here they intended to pass the night, and to make another visit to the summit of the mountain on the following day. But they found the boy exceedingly ill, with a feverish pulse and

violent headache, so that it became necessary to convey him to some place where he might receive assistance. They carried him with great difficulty down the steep and narrow pass of Los Neveros, and when night set in they once more found themselves at the limits of vegetation. They now discovered that they had wandered out of their way, and that they had not come to the place where they left the Indians. They kindled fires as signals, but they saw no trace of them throughout the whole of the night. On the 21st the travellers separated, part going to the right and part to the left, calling at intervals on the Indians. At length they found them, and the whole party, mounted on mules, descended to the Rancho de la Baqueria. Hence they proceeded to the village of Apanca, and at eight on the same evening they reached Ameca. They returned to Mexico on the 22d. The following is a table of the observations made during the journey:

Places.	North latitude.	Longitude east of Mexico.	Height above the level of the sea.	
			Eng. ft.	Varas.
Ameca	19° 7' 40"	0° 23' 30"	8,216	2,958
S. Nicholas de los Ranchos	19° 4' 21"	0° 32' 30"	8,087	2,912
Tochimilco			6,930	2,495
Upper boundary of the pine trees			12,544	4,516
Boundary of vegetation			12,693	4,570
Peak of S. Guillermo*			16,895	6,083
Highest brink of the crater of the volcano of Popocatepetl. }			17,884	6,438
Rancho de la Baqueria			10,784	3,883

'IL SUEZLIARE.' (A MATILDA.) †

WAKE, dearest, waken,—the day-break is springing,
The sunbeams have risen the blue hills above;
With notes of soft cadence the sky-lark is singing,—
Then wake from thy slumbers, oh wake thee, my love.
Wake, dearest, wake,—softest breezes are blowing,
Our bark lies prepared her white sails to unfold;
The light summer clouds with vermillion are glowing,
And each little wave seems a ripple of gold.
Wake, dearest, wake,—see thy true one is waiting;
Those eyes bright with love turn upon me again;
Let me live in the sunshine thy smiles are creating;
Without thee each moment's a moment of pain.
Wake, dearest, waken,—thy downy bed quitting,
Whilst health and enjoyment forbid more delay;
Since life and its pleasures are transient and fitting,
With morning's first flush let us hasten away.

L.

* So named in honour of Mr. William Glennie, who was the promoter of the enterprise.
† From the 'London Weekly Review.'

EXCURSIONS IN THE PENINSULA OF SIAM.

WE have been favoured with some notices of the Eastern Peninsula, to the south and east of our new possessions, which we propose offering to our readers as descriptive of a country rarely, if ever, visited by Europeans, until late events led to a more frequent communication between the British and Siamese authorities. In consequence of this improved intercourse, and particularly with reference to the exchange of prisoners, several journeys were performed by land, in different directions, by two of the officers of the mission, Mr. Harris, Sub-Assistant Surgeon, and the Interpreter, Mr. Leal, to whose notes we have been kindly permitted to have access.

One of the first excursions, and which was performed by both the gentlemen we have named, proceeded from Ligor, a principality dependent upon Siam, and a town and sea-port upon the eastern coast of the Peninsula. Some account of this place may be found in Hamilton, who visited this quarter in 1719, but his notice is very brief and defective. The French, when established at Siam, endeavoured to have a plan taken of the town, but were not permitted, and scarcely any notice of the place is found in the work of La Loubere. The Dutch had a factory there, from the beginning of the 17th century to the middle of the last, the remains of which are still shown in some old brick foundations, where it is said to have stood.

The town of Ligor is at a short distance from the bank of the Ta-yung, or Tha-wung river, at about two hours rowing from the mouth of the river: from the bank of the river to the town the road is good, leading through an avenue of trees. Ligor is in form an oblong square: it is defended by walls, with ramparts, and a wet ditch, which, during the rains, communicates with the river. It contains about 5000 inhabitants, and appears to have been at one time much more populous, but it has suffered considerably within the last half a century, having been twice taken, and many of its inhabitants having been carried off, first by Alompra, and secondly, by one of the Generals of Minderagee, the last Burmese sovereign. According to the conscription rolls of this state, the males capable of bearing arms are about 12,000.

The Chief of Ligor is amongst the Native Princes to the eastward who have shown a decided disposition to cultivate a friendly footing with the English. He is, in some respects, dependent on Siam, but is absolute in his own government, and has great influence at Bangkok, through his wife, who is the cousin of the king, and their daughter,

who is one of the king of Siam's wives, and who has lately borne his majesty a son and heir. There are three or four Commissioners sent to Ligor by the Siamese Court, but the Chief treats them with very little consideration, and they exercise, except on occasion of his absence, no authority whatever. He has in his hands the power of life and death.

The town of Ligor stands on a very extensive plain, which appears to reach to the great central range of mountains, and is covered with rice cultivation. There is a little pepper cultivated in the interior, and some iron ore collected; but the tin mines are much neglected, and said to be exhausted. There appears to be no direct trade with China, Cochin China, or other foreign ports. What little trade there is, is with Siam, and it is entirely engrossed by the Chief. There is not a single brick dwelling-house in the town, but a great many temples and pyramids of that material, and most of them in ruins. The Chief's house is of plank, with a tiled roof: it is situated within the fort, which consists of an old high wall, in a most dilapidated condition, and without a gun mounted in any part within or upon it.

There is no difficulty in approaching or quitting the coast of Ligor, although, from the high swell and surf during northerly winds, and the shoal at the end of Tantalam island, the roadstead cannot be considered safe during the height of the N. E. monsoon. The anchorage-ground is of soft mud; there are three fathoms, at about two miles and a half from the mouth of the Ta-wang river, which is a little to the northward of the Ligor river; the two rivers join a short way inland, and the latter is little used.

The jealousy of the Siamese Court precluded the possibility of taking advantage of a favourable opportunity of proceeding from Ligor to Bangkok entirely by land, but permitted the journey, as far as the village of Pathin, situated in about lat. 11 deg. 10 min.

From Ligor, the first day's journey, the 18th December, passed over extensive plains, watered by the Tha-wang river, to the village of Nam-Jin, or 'cold water.' The party accompanied the Rajah of Ligor, whose suite consisted of between three and four hundred persons, with eighty elephants; temporary houses were erected for his accommodation at every stage. The second day's march proceeded through thick jungles and occasional rice-fields, to a place called Ban Hoon Thaphan, close to the sea-shore.

The third day's route led over very bad roads to the village of Ban Clai, chiefly tenanted by Chinese, on the right bank of the Clai river, about three miles from its mouth; the river is about 100 yards wide opposite to the village, but it is much narrower at the mouth, being choked with the sands gathered at the bar, against which the surf beats as violently as at Madras. The bed of the river, which runs between lofty banks, is sandy, and the water very clear;

the village contains about 1,000 persons. This place is the Clay of Horsburgh's Charts.

From Ban Chai to Ban Krang, the next day's journey, from half past seven in the morning till six in the afternoon. The road lay chiefly through jungle, but several villages were passed, and a couple of small streams. The halting-place was situated at the foot of a hill, on a beautiful plain, through which flowed a fine clear stream, called the Khlong Krang.

On the following day, a march of equal duration terminated at Hooa Nah: early in the afternoon an extensive range of lofty mountains was visible on the left of the road. The next day's march was intersected by a number of small streams, and led through thick jungle, in which tigers are sometimes encountered. The following march terminated at the Siamese village of Ban Chekram, after crossing the river of the same name. The lamboos here are of enormous size, and the joints are used for domestic vessels, for holding water and others purposes.

The journey, for three days more, passed over the same kind of country, in which thick jungle, alternated with open plains, sometimes in cultivation, and small streams occasionally intersected the road. The evening of the third day brought the party to a broad and rapid river, the Tha-kham, near the mouth of which is situated the town of Phoonphin, a place containing about 1,200 Siamese inhabitants, under the authority of a Chinese officer. It is celebrated for its steel, of which the swords of all the great officers of the court are manufactured. The Tha-kham is the northern boundary of the jurisdiction of the Rajah of Ligor. A branch runs to the southward, to the town of Bandon, where it opens into the sea, and whence it is usually termed the Bandon river. The northern branch of the Tha-kham empties itself into the sea, at a place called Tha-thong, which bounds the Ligor territory on the sea-coast: a number of small islands lie off the mouth of the Bandon river. The Tha-kham proceeds nearly across the Peninsula, passing to Pennom, a town three days journey from Phoonga, on the western coast opposite to Junk Ceylon, the tin, and other produce of which island, find their way by this route to Bangkok.

During the next two days, the road ran through extensive tracts of rice cultivation, to a village a short distance from Chhaiva, one of the most considerable towns on the route. It is defended by a stockade, and contains about 2,000 Siamese, besides a number of Chinese. It stands upon a broad stream, or probably an arm of the sea, and carries on a considerable traffic, chiefly in grain: the inhabitants of the province are estimated at 18,000 or 19,000.

On the second day after quitting Chhaiva, the road led to the sea-shore, and continued for some distance along a smooth and firm

beach, lined with Casuarina trees, and free from surf. The mouths of two small rivers were crossed on the second day.

On the day following, the 8th January, the travellers proceeded inland, partially through jungle, to the right bank of a large river, the Lang Sewun, on the opposite side of which was a village, containing about 600 inhabitants, chiefly Malays; the next two days offered little variety, several streams were crossed, and the second day's halt was at Suwi, a town containing about 2,000 inhabitants, with a Siamese Governor of the rank of Phrá: the road was good, leading between paddy fields. The same kind of road continued throughout the two succeeding days to the town of Ch'hoomphon, on the right bank of the river so named, which pursues a very winding course, in a sandy bed, between lofty banks. The town is stockaded, and is said to contain 8,000 inhabitants. It was formerly the entrepôt of a very valuable trade with the coast of Tenasserim, but subsequently to the subjugation of Tenasserim by the Burmans, Ch'hoomphon has been little else than a military post, where a force was stationed to watch the proceedings of the Burmans, and make occasional kidnapping inroads into their territory. The Governor of Ch'hoomphon, soon after Mergui and Tavay came into our possession, committed the usual predatory excesses in their neighbourhood, and carried off many of the people captive, fourteen hundred of whom were recovered by the late mission of Captain Burney. His proceedings were so far from being avowed by the Court of Siam, that he was ordered up to the capital, and thrown into confinement, in which he died.

After crossing the Ch'hoomphon river, the next stage was a village named Bang-soon, and the following, at the head of a small river named the Patheir, near the mouth of which is a village of the same appellation, containing about 200 Chinese and Siamese inhabitants, employed chiefly in fishing and manufacturing *bachalam*. The cause we have above alluded to, here suspended the further prosecution of the journey by land, and the party embarked on board a large boat, arrived in four days in the Menam river, and reached Bangkok on the evening of the same day, the 31st of January.—*Government Gazette*.

EGYPTIAN MUMMIES—PRACTICE OF EMBALMING THE DEAD IN
EGYPT TO PREVENT THE PLAGUE.

DR. PARISSET, an eminent French physician, has started the opinion, that the practice of embalming by the ancient Egyptians had for its object to protect the country against pestilence, and that its discontinuance in modern times is the cause of Egypt being so often ravaged by the plague. Perhaps the hieroglyphic discoveries now in progress may throw light on this interesting question. In the mean time, however, some discussion has arisen on the subject; and it will, doubtless, gratify the curious reader to know the grounds on which the Doctor rests his opinion. We therefore give his own statement, as it appeared recently in the 'Journal des Debats.'

In the course of the month of April last, he says, I was engaged in preparing a discourse upon the subject of *mummies*, which I intended to have read as a public lecture; and I afterwards communicated all the materials to a gentleman who had expressed a wish to be my substitute in the performance of that task. In the progress of my labour I minutely investigated the causes which had induced the ancient Egyptians to adopt the particular mode in which they disposed of the bodies of men and other animals after death, and the difficulties I encountered in endeavouring to reconcile their practice in this respect with their religious ideas, led me to the conclusion, that the custom of embalming had no regard to religion, but to the preservation of health. I proceeded thus:

D'Anville has calculated the habitable surface of Egypt at something less than 2,250 square leagues.

Egypt, at the period of its greatest prosperity, contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants.

Divide this second number by the first, and there will be 6,222 inhabitants to every square league.

During eight months of the year, this population may have lived more or less dispersed over the whole of the soil which it cultivated.

But during the four remaining months of the year, which were the months of the inundation, the same population must have been forced to concentrate itself upon confined and isolated spots, raised above the surface of the water.

But to have habitations at the required height, it was necessary to construct them on elevated ground, either natural or artificial.

Hence, during the inundation, Egypt presented, as it still presents, the appearance of a great Archipelago.

A population thus confined and compressed on all sides, would be predisposed to infection, and the more so, as diseases of the skin

would be common in such a situation. Hence proceeded the necessity of a precise diet, of extreme cleanliness, and a minute attention to health. The Egyptians made the preservation of health so much their study, that wherever they went they were regarded as physicians.

Now, not to reckon more than one death in forty, a population of 14,000,000 would give an annual mortality of 350,000 persons.

During the dry months, the readiest way of disposing of them would surely be to bury them.

But during the months of the inundation what was to be done with the dead human bodies, the number of which may be estimated at 116,000 or 117,000; and with the dead bodies of other animals?

Expose them in the air, as was done in Persia for the Magi? Without stating other reasons, this sacrilege was rejected in order to avoid infection.

Bury them in the grounds of towns or villages? Perhaps for a few years this might be done, but after a short time it would no longer be practicable.

Cast them, without ceremony, into the waters, or deposit them anywhere in the earth? The earth was covered with water, and the water retiring would have left the dead bodies exposed.

Why not burn them? There was no wood for that purpose.

What then was to be done? That which was done. The Egyptians *salted* the dead bodies; salted, I say: that is the word; the same which the Greeks used with so much propriety, for in Egypt salting is an indispensable operation.

To salt the bodies the Egyptians used *natrum*, which they possessed in superabundance.

Natrum is an alkaline salt, which, when brought in contact with animal substances, attracts the humidity from them and disperses it into the air, and which, combining with the grease, converts it into soap.

The body being thus saponified by a sufficient application of *natrum*, is afterwards washed. The water carries off the soap, and what animal substance remains may be exposed to the air. The body dries of itself, without putridity, and thus you have the mummy. The aromatic substances, perfumes, the resins, the bitumens, the balsams, the powders, followed by the envelopes, the bandages, the wooden coffins painted, carved, or gilt; all these were merely luxuries, the use of which was allowable, but which could have but little effect in the preservation of the corpse, or rather, which would have amounted to nothing, if the previous operation had not taken place.

In the first ages the mummy thus prepared was kept by each Egyptian in his own house. It was then that a debtor might, by

way of getting a pledge for the payment of his debt, place the body of his father in the hands of his creditor.

But in the course of time, the mummies accumulated to such an extent in each house that, if this practice had continued, they would have driven out the living occupants.

The oldest bodies being therefore selected, were embarked during the inundation, and transported to the limits of the desert. There they were interred in pits by thousands, and covered over with sand.

And as the mountains had been excavated for the purpose of obtaining stone to build temples, palaces, and houses, the Egyptians took advantage of this circumstance, and converted the quarries into palaces for the dead, and sepulchral chambers for the priests and kings. These palaces were embellished by all the luxury of art.

This practice was followed for nearly 2400 years. What an enormous mass of animal matter, of animals of every kind, must have been thus sequestered. To be convinced of this it is only necessary to consult travellers, even the most modern.

During this long period Egypt was the most healthy country in the world. But, on the other hand, what would have been its state, had the soil of the country, washed and soaked by the waters of the Nile, at the same time been saturated with so prodigious a quantity of putrescent matter?

I do not deny the existence of epidemic diseases in ancient Egypt. It is probable that the caravans of Nubia would bring with them the typhus; the plague of Athens came from that quarter, and that plague, I think, was a real typhus. Strabo speaks of fevers of a very malignant character, which make their appearance in the neighbourhood of canals, and great lakes, where also epizotic disorders break out. But Herodotus, Diodorus, Tacitus, &c. do not speak of such dreadful maladies in Egypt. Diseases of this magnitude are not reconcileable with the immense population to which I have referred.

Undoubtedly, the cleanliness of the people, their punctilious nicety in the choice of food, the attention paid to the opening and maintenance of canals for draining and bringing into a state of cultivation the vast marsh of the Delta, were all circumstances which contributed to the salubrity of Egypt, but it is very probable that the happy effect of all these precautions would have been greatly diminished, if to them had not been added the custom of embalming dead bodies, or, in other words, preventing their putrefaction.

It cannot be disputed that this practice was discontinued towards the fourth century of our era, and it is to that period that we must refer in order to discover the origin of the plague accompanied by humours, that plague of the East, which has spread so often over the surface of the earth, and of which Egypt appears to be the sole and original focus.

To render my ideas more intelligible upon this point, I shall make the following supposition: Imagine that the cemeteries of Pere La Chaise and of Montmartre were both upon the banks of the Seine; that the Seine, in overflowing its banks, covered the tombs four months of the year, and then retired, leaving the two cemeteries under the unremitted action of a July sun. I ask any man of common sense, what would then be the condition of Paris?

And what may be expected to be the state of a piece of ground like the Delta, which, in the space of so many centuries, must have received an immense number of dead bodies, not only by ordinary mortality, but by battles, and in consequence of public works, in the carrying on of which multitudes of labourers die and are buried in the place where they drew their last breath?

A village of the Delta loses one, two, or three of its inhabitants in the month of June. These are interred a few paces off, at the foot of a date tree, which the waters of the river wash in July. The river retires in September or October, and disease appears in the village in November. This is a place to give birth to the plague: in fact, it originates in this manner; one infected point is sufficient. The disease is propagated to the neighbouring towns, next over all Egypt, whence it is carried to the Levant and the West, to Smyrna, Constantinople, Marseilles, and even to Moscow; but neither Marseilles, nor Moscow, nor perhaps Smyrna, nor Constantinople would produce the plague by their localities. It is a truth acknowledged throughout the whole of the East, and which the misfortunes of the French troops in Egypt have too well confirmed, that before showing itself in any other place, the plague first appears in Egypt.

We arrive, therefore, at the following conclusion: That one of the most direct, and, perhaps, only means of destroying the source of the plague, would be to resume the practice of embalming to the full extent to which it was anciently carried.

Is the practice an expensive one? Not at all. Nature has been prodigal of her natrum to Egypt, as if for the purpose of protecting its population; for no natrum, no Egypt; at least, no such Egypt as was known to the ancients with all its wonders.

Will it be said that it is a practice which the natives would not be easily induced to adopt? It may be so, but I think it might be very easily introduced, if ————*

Add an auxiliary means, and besides one of great utility for other purposes, the re-construction of the canals, a good police in the

* This hiatus will probably remind the reader that the French Journals are subject to a censorship; and yet it is difficult to suppose any occasion for the exercise of that authority in articles of this kind. Is it a mere caprice of the author?

towns, &c., and if an epidemic disorder should break out, the employment of chlorures to purify the clothing, houses, &c.

If a system of precautions and habits were adopted in this spirit, and adhered to for about five or six years, it is very probable that no real plague would be again seen in Egypt or elsewhere, taking for granted what is believed in the East, namely, that the plague has no other source but Egypt.

In answer to the above, a letter, signed B. C. D. V.,* containing objections to Dr. Pariset's theory, has appeared in the 'Journal des Debats.' The following is an abstract of this communication:

The habitable soil of Egypt is a long slip of land, varying in its width, and situated between two deserts. These deserts, the writer supposes, were the only burial-places of the country, exclusive of those which every town and village possessed on elevated ground above the waters. It was in the Thebaid that the custom prevailed of burying the dead in the excavated sides of mountains. Lower Egypt, which contained the mass of the population, had no such resource.

The writer then states his belief that embalming was reserved for the rich alone, on account of the length of time and great expense which the operation demanded.

He supposes the embalming of animals to have been merely a religious observance, because only the remains of such as were considered sacred have been found in the tombs. On examining those deposited near the pyramids of Zakkarah, he saw only the ibis, the cat, and sometimes the camelion, but never any other domestic animals.

M. Pariset, says B. C. D. V., speaks of the mortality occasioned by war in the Delta; but he may be assured that the Delta, owing to its situation, could never have been the scene of great battles.

After laying down the principle, that embalming preserved Egypt from the plague, the writer observes, that M. Pariset concludes that the origin of the plague must be attributed to the discontinuance of the practice of embalming; consequently, that the plague creates and maintains the plague. But happily this theory is disproved by the best authenticated facts. It rarely happens that the plague rages in Cairo for two years in succession. Indeed, after a year of great mortality, there is a certainty that the disease will cease its ravages for some time. The plague must, therefore, be assigned to some other cause than the putridity occasioned by unembalmed bodies.

* The writer states, that he has just returned from Egypt, where he had lived one year. Some of the London Papers have given a translation of this letter of B. C. D. V., without noticing that of Dr. Pariset, which gave occasion to it.

To determine what does not produce the plague in Egypt is much more easy than to discover what does engender it. There is reason to believe that it did not take its birth in Egypt; but that the cradle of the malady is to be found in European Turkey.

The heavy winter rains and excessive inundations are generally regarded as the precursors of the plague; but it has sometimes happened that these two causes combined have been unattended by any fatal result. M. Pariset speaks of the losses which the French army of the East sustained through the ravages of the plague. But M. Desgenettes, who was chief physician to the army, declares that the French force consisted of at least 30,000 men; and that, during the three years they remained in Egypt, they lost by the plague only 1683 men, most of whom perished in the campaign of Syria.

Doctor Pariset's Reply to the above.

Heaven defend me from inventing systems, or writing to support preconceived fancies! My object is to combine facts, and to deduce from them simple and natural inferences. I have endeavoured to do this, and I was astonished to find in the letter of your correspondent, B. C. D. V., that I am accused of doing otherwise. Let us now inquire whether I am right or wrong on the question of the preservation of mummies—whether I have merely embraced chimerical ideas, and whether the arguments of your correspondent are calculated to convince me of my mistake.

First of all, let me declare that it is not I who salt, embalm, or fill with bodies the pits of the desert, or the hypogæes. It is not I, but Herodotus, Diodorus, Strabo, and Pliny, who do this. 'Myriads' of mummies of all kinds still exist, and my imagination has nothing to do with the matter. If your correspondent did not see them in Egypt during his year's residence there, what did he see?

Secondly, the desert never did, nor never could, be a burial-place for the inhabitants of the Delta. No burial-place was ever formed in the hillocks, natural or artificial, of the towns on the Mediterranean. 'For the custom of interring the dead in mountains,' observes your correspondent very sagaciously, 'we must go as far as the Thebaid;' that is to say, to the mountains themselves. Nobody denies this. But what does it prove?

Was the mass of the population in the Delta? The Delta contained only ten nomes or departments. Upper and middle Egypt contained twenty-six. Were the ten more populous than the twenty-six? Let your correspondent answer this.

He says, that only the rich were embalmed. Herodotus and Diodorus say otherwise, and I give the preference to their testimony. In the 'Euterpe' you will find the following passage: 'The third mode (of salting) was reserved for the poorest class of people.'

There were then three methods at least. The first cost 258l. 6s. 9d.; the second the third of that sum, and the third almost nothing.

Beside the mummy of a barber were placed the hone and razor which he used in his life-time; with the remains of a surgeon were deposited his instruments for lancing and cupping; and beside a weaver were laid his shuttle and other tools. This proves that men of all professions were embalmed. The remains of even the lowest mechanics were preserved in this way, and were deposited in the public tombs. They had no coffins, either single or double, either of wood or stone. The old linen in which they were wrapt, has been frequently carried off by the Bedouins and the Arabs, and has been converted into clothing, or sold to the manufacturers of coarse paper for the grocers. A work by Abd-el-Ateef, a physician of Bagdad, contains some curious details on this subject. Interment, in the proper sense of the term, was never practised in ancient Egypt. Your correspondent is of a different opinion. But what can be said to a man who comes home after a year's residence in Egypt?

Among the mummies of animals, he says he saw none but the ibis, the cat, and the cameleon, and never any other domestic animals. Abd-el-Ateef, on the other hand, calculates that he has seen upwards of a hundred thousand mummies of dogs, and the dog, I presume, may be called a domestic animal rather than the cameleon. Abd-el-Ateef has also seen thousands of bulls, cows, calves, sheep, goats, &c. A few years ago, Mr. Calliaud of Nantes, visited some immense caverns containing an infinite number of horned beasts. Excepting the horse and the ass, (for I say nothing of the camel,) I do not think there is a single species of the common animals of the country of which there are not embalmed remains existing. Birds, reptiles, fish, quadrupeds, and men, were thus brought together. This was exemplified in Mons. Passalacqua's collection, lately exhibited in Paris. In the time of Abd-el-Ateef, a child was found carefully closed up in a jar of honey. Some passages in his book warrant the belief that the hypogees had also served as magazines for merchandize, medicines, and provisions.

Here, then, I repeat, was a mass of animal matter, not mingled with, but separated from, the inhabited soil, with a degree of care which would be almost incredible had we not the most manifest proofs of it. I ask any one who impartially considers the question, for what object and motive was this separation made? Was it merely for religious purposes, or was it prompted by physical necessity? I am of opinion that it was both religion and necessity combined. If your correspondent were asked the following question: 'Of the two causes, necessity and religion, which preceded, and produced and suggested the other?' I dare say he would not hesitate for one moment in making his reply. Thus, then, I conceive that the custom which was prescribed by necessity, was adopted

by religion. Thus religion lent her aid to Hygeia. A sort of alliance, a fine example of which is given in Leviticus, and which was established at a very early period in ancient Egypt. This is proved, beyond contradiction, in a clever letter on the primitive institutions of that wonderful country, addressed to me by M. Drovetti, a man whose knowledge must have considerable weight in such a question. M. Drovetti is of opinion, that the priests were particularly careful in maintaining all customs connected with the Sanitary police. He justly observes, that what was superstition in the people, was wisdom, and admirable wisdom, in the legislator. The priesthood of ancient Egypt was literally a great academy of science, which diffused its influence over the whole nation; and the astonishing prosperity of the Egyptians, under their Pharaohs or their kings, proves that with them religion referred wholly to the public interest.

I shall say nothing of the influence of the periodical inundations of rain on the ideas, manners, customs, arts, sciences, laws, and governments of the primitive Egyptians; for that influence was unbounded, and would lead me beyond the limits to which this article ought to extend. I must, however, observe, that a country like Egypt would differ prodigiously in itself, according as the alluvial soil of which it is composed was carefully preserved from animal matter, or constantly mingled up with putrescent and dangerous substances. In the first case, when the water spreads so as to cover and bathe the earth, and on retiring leaves the earth exposed to the action of a burning sun, the evaporation will be great and rapid; yet I cannot, I confess, be convinced that this will produce any other disorders than intermitting fevers, sometimes slight, sometimes violent, and even fatal; the same fevers which are frequent in marshy countries where the plague never appears. In the second case, on the contrary, if the waters, in rising, should reach and disturb great heaps of animal matter, I will venture to affirm, that when they retire, the heat will develop deadly emanations, corrupt miasmata, and the real principles of plague; for the genuine plague, which is indicated by pimples and carbuncles, is always caused by animal poison, introduced by absorption into the interior of the system. It is, I conceive, necessary to observe this difference,—it is an essential difference, and, among others, serves to distinguish modern from ancient Egypt.

At what period did this difference commence? History informs us, that for the space of nearly two thousand four hundred years, the Egyptians preserved their health by their customs, and, above all, by that excessive cleanliness which, as Herodotus observes, they preferred even to beauty. During that long period, it is doubtful whether the plague ever appeared in Egypt. It was not until Egypt was entirely converted to Christianity that her old customs were dropped, probably because they were regarded as profanations. St. Anthony would not be embalmed after his death;

but, notwithstanding, the necessary means were taken to preserve his remains in the year 356 of the Christian era. Suppose the practice of embalming not to have been abandoned until a century or a century and a half later, this brings us to the beginning of the sixth century. Dr. Jos Franck, one of the most intelligent physicians of Europe, declares that it was about the middle of the sixth century, in the year 543, that the first plague, distinctly characterized by writers, particularly by Procopius, appeared in the world. This plague, Procopius says, commenced among the Egyptians of Pelusium. It was dreadful. It desolated the earth for more than half a century, with all the fury and caprice which your correspondent is very reasonably astonished to observe in the plague of the present day. And whence arise these singular caprices? From the changeable nature of the miasmata, and the changeable condition of our own organization. What do we know of the infinite combinations of animal matter? What do we know of ourselves? We, who may be utterly changed by a little cold or heat, a north or a south wind—a breath, an idea, or a sentiment!

But, it may be asked, are not the burial-places of Egypt beyond the reach of the waters? Can the river encroach upon them at the period of its overflow? Yes, whenever the inundation is considerable. The following are the observations of an ocular witness, viz., Dr. Savarési, one of the physicians of our army in the East: 'On the 17th of August, 1800, the Kalidj was opened, and some days after the burial-grounds of some of the villages round Cairo, and even some in Cairo and Boulac, were covered with water; for almost all the tombs have a tolerably deep cell dug in the earth. The consequence was exhalations of putrid miasmata. . . . The river, this year, reached places which it had never visited before, and the plague raged furiously. It extended over Egypt, from east to west, and from north to south, for, what is very rare, it penetrated into Upper Egypt. The plains of the Saïd were depopulated.'

In the course of his work, M. Savarési frequently describes the bad situation of the burying-grounds, which were entered by dogs, wolves, and foxes, who raked up and devoured the bodies of the dead. There are tombs even in the public streets of Cairo and Alexandria. The proper mode of treating the dead is that which Plato prescribes for poets: to banish them from the abodes of the living, and cover them with flowers.

The plague generally succeeds great inundations, owing to the causes just mentioned; but ancient Egypt was visited by great inundations, and did not the plague then appear? Certainly not; and the reason was, that the soil was free from all corrupt matter. Propose any more plausible conjecture to explain this difference, and I will immediately adopt it.

The same effects will be produced by heavy rains as by great inundations. 'In the reign of Ismaël-Bey, (says M. Drovetti) some

years before the expedition of the French army, (that is to say, in 1791,) the city of Cairo and its environs were deluged by heavy rains. The burial-places, in particular, were in a dreadful condition, and the bodies of the dead were seen floating about; the capital was soon visited by one of the most terrible plagues that ever occurred in the memory of the inhabitants. In the month of February 1824, the rains were so heavy as to render the streets of Cairo, and the roads in the neighbourhood of the city, impassable; the contagious disease soon showed itself.'

To the above I may add the following anecdote: When travelling in Lower Egypt, in September 1819, I saw on the banks of the canal, which leads from Mansourah to the ruins of ancient Thmuis, a small hillock, on which had settled myriads of field-mice, (these were frequently joined by myriads of serpents, scorpions, and insects of every kind,) a cloud of buzzards, kites, and sparrow-hawks, hovered above them, and found abundant nourishment without travelling farther. A higher swell of the water, and that spot would have been infected with pestilential exhalations. There can be no doubt that the water penetrating the tombs, which are almost always situated at the extremities of the villages, produces effects still more fatal. It must not be forgotten that the climate of Egypt is so favourable to the multiplication of animals of all kinds, as to have suggested the idea that man and beast had sprung spontaneously from the slime of its soil,—at once a great blessing and a great evil.

Your correspondent does not believe that the plague has its origin in Egypt. That the generating causes of the plague may exist elsewhere, I admit; but that they do not exist in the most unfortunate profusion in Egypt, is what no man of sense will venture to maintain. Besides, his opinion is, in this respect, not merely opposed to mine, but to that of M. Savarési, M. Gaet-Sotira, and M. Franck, physicians, who have observed the phenomenon in its origin, and whose writings may be found in part in the collection published by Baron Desgenettes. The great Montesquieu has recorded, in his immortal work, the following sentence: 'The principal seat of the plague is Egypt, whence it has spread over the whole universe.' In the first instance, I pronounced my individual opinion on this point in dubious and conditional terms; but now I venture more decidedly to concur, not with your correspondent, but with the distinguished men whose names I have mentioned!

With respect to the losses sustained by our army of the East, the question was not to ascertain whether those losses were great, but whether they were produced on the spot by a local cause, or by a foreign cause. Your correspondent decides this question, and he decides it, I think, in my favour.

Orient Herald, Vol. 15.

With the most amiable condescension he wishes to console me on account of the situation of the Delta, which, he says, *never could have been the scene of great battles*. Yet I am not convinced of this. Battles, whether great or not, have certainly taken place there, for men have fought at all times, and in all places. I think, too, I have read somewhere that in certain parts of the Delta, battles were sometimes fought, which I should imagine were great, because they have been greatly celebrated. In that part of the world, as well as in others, there have been invasions, conquests, revolutions, domestic dissensions; and blood has been shed there from the time of Cambyzes to Selim, and from Selim to the present day. Cæsar fought near Alexandria; Perdiccas in an island formed by the branches of the river; Agesilas in the island of Prosopitis; the guardians of Ptolemy Epiphanes, in the nome of Busiris, that is to say, in the very centre of the Delta. I have also some recollection of the victories and reverses of the Crusaders at Damietta and Mansourah. The Turks, too, defeated the Mamelukes in the neighbourhood of the marshes; and there have been, in our time, a battle of Aboukir, and a battle of Rosetta. Only consider the figure of Egypt, and you will find that having, on the south, one single inlet to invasion, she had a hundred on the north, on the flanks of the Delta, and that on the sea-coast she was accessible at every point. Ancient Egypt had a strong garrison on the south, and two others no less strong on the north, on the right and left, at Pelusium and at Mareotis; and, finally, under the Pharaohs, the Delta was the principal abode of the military caste, who occupied the districts of Busiris, Saïs, Prosopis, Natho, Aphthis, Tanis, Mendis, Sebennytus, Pharbætus, Thmuis, Onuphis, Auisis, and Mycephoris, that is to say, nearly the whole of the Delta. For these decisive details, I am indebted to the friendship of M. Champollion, junior, and I speak boldly after such authority. Battles, and great battles, might, therefore, have been fought in the Delta, since the military were so well established there.

To return to the medical question, I agree with your correspondent in thinking that so complicated a problem as the origin of the plague can never be completely solved but by a long series of observations made on the spot.

E. PARISET.

SIR JOHN MALCOLM AND THE INDIAN PRESS.

(From a Correspondent.)

THE chapter on the press records the facts connected with the abolition of the censorship. According to Sir John Malcolm, we owe this measure to the editor of the 'Asiatic Mirror,' stated in a note to be Doctor Bryen, (that is, Doctor Bryce, we presume,) who, 'having been frequently censured for his editorial conduct,' remonstrated against 'the varied mode in which different individuals who filled the office of censor performed its duties.' This is the delicate language the courtly author employs to describe the fantastic tricks of the censors. As to the cause which produced the abolition of the censorship, we have heard a different version of it; but we incline to think Sir John is right. The truth is, we believe, that the censor struck his pen through a whole article prepared for the 'Mirror,' against which there could be no objection whatever on political grounds, and of which the writer or author who was attacked in it, had seen a proof. Against this arbitrary act the editor appealed, and in the following year the censorship was abolished. There was a time when we should have considered the result a happy one for this community, and indeed it has produced beneficial consequences; but there can be no question now that if the Indian press must be restricted, the censorship, with all its inconveniences, is a more just law, and far more effectual as a preventive of publications of which Government may disapprove. After what we have said, it is needless to observe that we are only advocating the restoration of this odious law as a *pis aller*. The freedom of the press is what we contend for, as conducive alike to the honour of the governing and the happiness of the governed; but if this be denied, and the press is still to be restrained, then let there be a censorship which will remove the dangerous responsibility of publication from the conductors of the press to those who are in the secrets of authority, and can so much better judge of what it may deem safe and expedient to allow to be published, viz., a body of censors appointed by the Government itself. We say a body of them, for it would now require at least half a dozen censors for the Calcutta press, English and Native. *Mais revenons à nos moutons!*

The censorship being abolished, a series of regulations for the conduct of editors was, Sir John tells us, 'substituted' for it. This may be ingenious, but it is anything but ingenuous. There was no substitution in the case. The regulations referred to never received even the form of law, (no more indeed did the censorship,) but what is of more importance, they were not acted upon until long after the abolition of the office of censor, and after the Marquis of Hastings

had declared the press free, in a speech which would have conferred on him immortal honour had his actions continued all along as consistent with it as they were for some time after he delivered it.

On the subject of this speech, to which the author next adverts, he is pleased to say, that it was in some quarters entirely misinterpreted. It was 'erroneously inferred,' he tells us, 'that his Lordship was disposed to give a very great latitude to freedom of publication.' If words are the symbols of ideas, we should be glad to know what other interpretation that part of the speech which refers to the press, but especially the following brief extract, could possibly warrant :

'If our motives of action are worthy, it must be wise to render them intelligible throughout an empire, our hold on which is opinion. Further, it is salutary for supreme authority, even when its intentions are most pure, to look to the control of public scrutiny; while conscious of rectitude, that authority can lose nothing of its strength by exposure to general comment. On the contrary, it acquires incalculable addition of force,' &c.

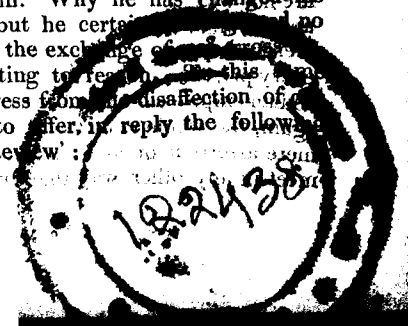
If this language does not invite the scrutiny of public opinion (applied by the agency of a free press) into the actions of public men, in order to render their 'motives of action intelligible throughout an empire, our hold on which is opinion,' let Sir John Malcolm, and those who deny this, show what it really did mean, or let them cite a single passage in the whole speech which can justify the inference, that the speaker was advocating freedom of discussion as a mere abstract principle, and not in its application to this country. Until they do this, we apprehend that they have made little progress in their argument against the interpretation they condemn.

We come now to Sir John Malcolm's summary of the arguments against a free press in India. In our notice of this, we must, for two reasons, endeavour to be brief: the one is, that there is little in it really deserving of serious refutation; the other, that our limits demand brevity.

'It is safe,' says Sir John Malcolm, 'to admit the press to comment freely upon the acts of government and the conduct of its functionaries, when there is an independent public to whom its observations and strictures can be addressed,' &c. Then comes the old argument about the constitution of the Calcutta public. 'They are not what an Englishman would designate a public,' &c., but 'civil and military servants,' and so on. Then for all the rest, the free merchants, artizans, missionaries, &c., 'they,' Sir John tells us, 'enjoy every privilege of an Englishman except such as the interests of the Indian empire would make it dangerous for them to possess.' Here, again, the whole question at issue is begged. In short, it is another mere assertion or assumption which it would be a waste of time to meet in any other way than by a denial. Of the same character is

the continued assumption that the want of these privileges is rarely felt, and the very fanciful inference that the happy effect of our free constitution attends and guards an Englishman, in whatever situation he may be placed.' And that this same influence has gained a strength that entitles it to be ranked as one of the most powerful checks we can expect to have upon a Government that circumstances require to be strong. We do not know what we may expect in the way of checks upon the conduct of our Indian Governments; certainly very little, if the gallant author's opinions have any weight with our future legislators; but we are fully warranted, by the history of the past, in affirming that the 'happy effects of our free constitution' have not, and never can, operate as checks until they are permitted to be applied by the agency of an unrestricted press. The effects, then, to which so much virtue is ascribed, are checks which cannot, from the state of the laws here, come into operation; and a celebrated modern philosopher has affirmed, that 'checks, when they serve not as checks, are screens.' In India, he could find the position amply illustrated and confirmed.

There is a great deal more in this same summary of the arguments against the press in the same strain of assumption. At length, however, the author comes to unfold the secret of the danger which a free press would call into active operation—not into existence, for we are told it already exists; it is this: that the Brahmins and civil classes, who have been for ages 'the nominal servants but real masters of the turbulent and bold, but ignorant and superstitious, military tribes of their countrymen,' have attained, by practice, a skill in wielding this power, and must have a desire to exert it for the purpose of subverting our power. And a little farther on, we are gravely informed, that we could give to these dangerous classes no weapon 'they would know better how to use than a free press'!! It is impossible not to feel an inclination rather to laugh at, than to refute such an argument. Where did the Brahmins then acquire this skill in the use of such a weapon as a free press? Or has their skill in the use of that, too, become complete by frequent exercise? Why even Mr. Elphinstone will laugh at the idea. He has told us that none but Europeans would yet take any interest in the press, and Mr. Adam was of the same opinion. So, too, was once Sir John Malcolm, or we are greatly misinformed. At one time it was from the disaffection of our officers he apprehended danger; and he, it is said, instilled that extraordinary apprehension into the mind of the late Mr. Adam. Why he has changed his ground is best known to himself; but he certainly gains no other advantage by the change, than the exchange of one absurdity for one a little less revolting to readers. In this argument of the danger of a free press from the disaffection of Native subjects, however, we beg to offer, in reply the following quotation from the 'Westminster Review':



What proof more striking of the strength and security of the Government than this? A word breathed among the Indian population, and finding a disposition in the general mind to receive it, and to accord with it, would suffice to scatter British influence to the wind. But who (under present circumstances at least) can offer to the people of India blessings superior to those which Great Britain has it in her power to communicate? Will they fly to the Hindoo Chiefs? Alas! their history is smeared with blood; they have ruled too long, and been known too well! To their Mohammedan masters?—the recollections are not less gloomy. To other foreign invaders?—that would be perpetuating the evil and perilling the good. In truth, the great, the solitary danger to British authority in India, arises from British misrule. The tranquillity of India will hardly be disturbed within, unless by wanton and foolish freaks of despotism and incapacity. But should it become a maxim that there is a stronger and safer hold than the affections of the people,—should it be established as the rule of Government, that publicity, the press, the settlement of colonists, the pure administration of justice, the freedom of commerce, are by no means necessary or desirable in British India; then, indeed, those who think that the well-being of England depends on her authority in the East, and the well-being of India on British predominance, are preparing, or rather, are precipitating, the perdition of both.

To this quotation we will merely add, in respect to this assumed danger, that as far as the English press is concerned, the inference, that it could be employed to set in motion elements destructive of our power, is equally opposed to reason and experience; while, for the Native press, we would just ask on what grounds it is assumed, that it would be devoted to such a purpose? For a very long time to come, the press, Native and European, could only exist at the Presidencies under the immediate eye of Government. True, types and presses might at a vast expense be sent up the country, and we know that a press was established at Cawnpore; but the difficulties attending the carrying on of numerous periodicals in the interior, would, for a long time, be insuperable. Are, then, the Natives under the eye of Government, prone to incite sedition? Experience is directly against the inference; and it is surely a safer guide than mere assumption, founded on the apprehension of a few individuals enamoured of power.

Sir John Malcolm is guilty himself of the very error he so readily charges upon others—a common error, indeed, but one which in such an author, nevertheless, requires exposure. Those who differ from the gallant author are accused of drawing their inferences from mere abstract principles, and of attempts to apply the laws that might be applicable in one province, to the whole of an extensive empire. This is the very rock on which Sir John Malcolm has split. We advance it fearlessly as a proposition that cannot be re-

futed, that for the purpose of judging how far the privileges of the British constitution might be extended to India, and how far colonization is applicable to it, a residence of three or four years in Bengal is of more value than ten times the number spent in Central India. In Bengal, there is a very extensive population of British-born subjects, a large and increasing body of Anglo-Indians, and a great many Natives who have become familiarized with our language and institutions, and attached to them and to us by habits of daily intercourse. When we speak of Bengal, however, we mean to include not merely Bengal Proper, but a greater portion of the territory subject to this Presidency, in which, in fact, colonization, so much descried, and so much dreaded by Sir John Malcolm, is already in progress. Need we refer to the indigo planters, sugar manufacturers, cotton growers? &c. Besides which, if we are to apply as a rule of legislation, the principle, that what is best adapted for a large majority of the population, is best for the whole, where shall we look for the standard but in Bengal and its subordinate territories, which include a very great majority also of our Native subjects?

Now, how long has Sir John Malcolm resided in the Bengal territories? We cannot answer precisely, but we know that his experience does not qualify him to decide the important questions on which he has chosen to pronounce his dictum in a form so pompous: and we know, moreover, by his works, that his inferences as to a system of Indian Government, are drawn chiefly from his experience and inquiries in a newly conquered territory! See his repeated references to Central India. Whatever, then, may be his own estimate (and he is not likely to do himself injustice in that respect) of his capacity to decide on the question of a free press, we believe that, even if his mind were unbiassed, he does not possess the requisite information.

We must now conclude our notice of this work, and we shall do so by adverting to the very extraordinary prophecy included in the closing remarks of the chapter on the press. Sir John says that we may change the character of the Natives; but we never can change the character of our government over the country! That is, it must ever continue a despotism; in other words, that India shall not participate in that advancement of the human race, which the spread of knowledge is so rapidly accelerating. Thy wish, Sir John, may be father to that thought, but there is as little in it of genuine inspiration as of sound philosophy.—*Calcutta Chronicle*.

EARTHQUAKE IN NEPAUL.

WE have just received the following interesting account of a severe earthquake, which is stated to have occurred in the valley of Nepaul on the 29th of October last.

At seven minutes past two o'clock, A. M., of the 29th of October, the valley of Nepaul was convulsed by a violent earthquake. The first shock was tremendous, and was followed, at intervals, up to half-past eight o'clock, A. M., by eight lesser vibrations. For some days previous to this awful visitation the weather had been (as is usual at this season in Nepaul) somewhat unsettled; the sky obscured, and, though no rain had fallen in the valley itself, showers attended with thunder and lightning, had occurred on the summits of the mountains enclosing it. This foul weather had, however, passed away, and the twenty-four hours immediately precedent to the earthquake had been singularly fine. A sunset, never surpassed in brilliancy, and a night of perfect beauty, were the harbingers of Nature's internal strife! The first and severest shock was itself momentary, though it caused every house to shake for some seconds after it had passed away. It was not a long vibration or undulation, but a sudden vertical jolt; and hence, perhaps, we must account for two facts relative to our perceptions of it: viz. that its direction could not be easily discerned, and that it did not cause the usual reeling and giddiness. Its violence may be conjectured from the following detail of destruction and injury, which has been gathered on the instant, and before remote evils can be ascertained.

It destroyed six houses in the city of Catmandhoo, burying under them seven human beings. It razed to the ground a temple near the same city. It destroyed fourteen houses in the city of Patun, but happily no lives. Of the buildings of the Residency, there is hardly one solid wall left without a crack in it, and most of the higher and ornamental parts of the Resident's own mansion are either broken off, or so injured as to require taking down. Yet no circumstance connected with this convulsion is more remarkable than the inconsiderable motion of the earth, as compared with the awful noise which preceded, accompanied, and followed it; in proof of which I may mention, that the minister of this state, when he started from his couch, is reported to have exclaimed, 'There goes my minar!' alluding to a column or structure, 300 feet high, which he has recently raised in the immediate vicinity of his dwelling-house, and which he conceived to have fallen with one crash; so insensible was he to the earth's motion, so alive to the horrible sound which accompanied it! All the Nepaulese agree that the present is distinguished from every other similar visitation, by the awful noise which attended it. Slight earthquakes are not

uncommon here; the gentlemen of the Residency have been witnesses to three within the short period of ten years; but all these were trifling, and the noise accompanying them caused no sensation at the time. So, too, the earthquake of 1803, though far more destructive than the present one, was, say all the Nepaulese who experienced it, unattended by those awful sounds which distinguished that of the 29th instant. The writer of the present notice was perfectly awake at the time of the earthquake, and was summoned from his bed, not by the motion of the earth, but by a sound more awful than ever struck his ear. It seemed like ten thousand horse artillery thundering over a drawbridge at full speed, or like a deluge of water sweeping down a mountain torrent's channel, and carrying away with it huge masses of rock! There was a continuous roar, over which more sudden and violent noises at intervals prevailed, and it came onward with the speed of light. This horrific sound seemed to the writer to approach him from the south. In an instant or two it swept past the city of Catmandhoo and the Residency, which is a mile to the north of the city. The shock followed,—30,000 human voices from the city rose in one peal,—the voice of the earthquake passed on to the north, and there it was answered by the echoes of a thousand mountains!

The whole city of Catmandhoo was celebrating the Dewali with the customary gaming—hardly a soul was in bed: the laugh and jeer were broken by the threat of Nature's dissolution; and in one instant, every voice in that thickly-peopled town was raised in a deprecatory exclaim! The best disciplined arms never answered the signal of the ablest general with such simultaneousness, as did the scattered inhabitants of that city the advent of the earthquake. This alone was a noise to stir the human heart, and the human heart it did stir; mountains, too, there were to give back its echo; but the puny wail failed to wake their voice, and the genius of the mountains lent all her chorus to swell the far more emphatic acclaim of the earthquake!

The unconcerned reader may haply smile at such exaggeratory phrases. But what say those who rushed naked from their beds, and, insensible to an atmosphere of 40 deg. to a night air, and to a chilling fog, stood absorbed by the voice of the earthquake, the echo of the mountains, the peal of supplicating man!

The second shock followed the first, after an interval of about eight minutes. It was less severe in violence, more undulating, and more horizontal in direction, than the first, and the noise which accompanied it much more subdued. It was nearly four o'clock before the third shock was perceived. The motion of the earth at this shock was very inconsiderable, a sort of trembling, passing from south-south-west to north-north-east. The sound which

attended it was, though not fearfully great, yet distinct, and very peculiar. I can compare it only to that of a single twenty-four pounder's discharge when heard at the distance of about two miles, yet fuller much, and withal mysteriously indistinct. The fourth shock occurred at half-past four o'clock. It was more considerable than the two preceding it, but far less severe than the first. It was undulatory from south to north, and attended with a deep muttering sound. The fifth, sixth, and seventh shocks were of similar character with the fourth, but the seventh considerably more severe than the other two. The fifth happened at about five o'clock, the sixth and seventh between half-past five o'clock and at a quarter before seven o'clock, which last noted time was the precise hour of the seventh shock.

The eighth and ninth shock occurred between the hours of seven o'clock and half-past eight o'clock, A. M.; the motion of the earth in both a mere trembling, and the attendant sound a subdued mutter.

I have mentioned that the first quake occurred at seven minutes past two o'clock, A. M., and it may be prudent to account for such precision by stating, that our public clock and several watches were stopped by the shock; whence we were enabled to learn, when at leisure for such observations, the exact moment of this awful event.

P. S.—The above notice was written immediately after breakfast on the 29th, and was intended for despatch by the same day's hawk. That hawk, however, was accidentally missed, and I may therefore add, that during the whole day and night of yesterday, the 29th, the earth was more or less in motion, and that, in particular, at the hours of seven, eight, and nine o'clock, P. M., three shocks occurred, but two distinctly felt. It was, however, the noise rather than the motion which excited attention; and by general consent that noise was declared to resemble that of the discharge of a six-pounder, at the distance of a mile or more. There was, however, about this subterranean sound a certain indistinctness, strongly contrasted with the clear conviction it brought home to every bosom of its reality; it was indistinct, yet no soul mistook it.—*Government Gazette.*

Nepaul, 30th October, 12 o'clock of day.

INDIAN FESTIVAL OF THE DOLA, OR THE SWINGING OF THE INFANT KRISHNA.

As observed in Bengal, this festival is considered one of the twelve great Jattras held in highest veneration by the Vaishnava sect, or followers of Vishnu, agreeably to the sect of Chaitanya. It is not, however, restricted to them, but partaken of by every class of Hindoos; neither is it limited to the present occasion, but is repeated at different periods of the year, according to local usage or individual convenience.

As celebrated at this season, it commences on the 14th lunar day of Phalgun (March.) The head of the family fasts during the day. In the evening, fire-worship is performed; after which the officiating Brahmin sprinkles upon the image of Krishna, erected for the purpose, a little red powder, and distributes a quantity amongst the assistants. This powder, termed phalgu, or abira, is made of the root of a species of curcuma, and of sapan wood. After this ceremony is concluded, that called *Chanchar* takes place, or a bonfire is made for burning the *Holika*, a kind of Guy Fawkes figure, made with bamboos and straw. In the country, the bonfire is made in a place without the village, and the figure is borne to the spot by Brahmins, or Vaishnavas, in regular procession, attended by musicians and singers. When arrived at the place where the pile has been previously prepared, the image is placed in the centre, and the priest worships it, and circumambulates it seven times, and then sets fire to the pile, on which the assistants immediately return home. The rest of the night is spent in festivity.

Before day-light on the morning of the 15th, the image of Krishna is conveyed to a place where a swinging bed or cradle has been erected, and placed in the cradle, which is set in motion two or three times at gun-fire. The same is repeated at noon, and again at sunset. During the day, the members of the family and their visitors amuse themselves by sprinkling each other with red powder, and rose water, through syringes, as well as with their hands. The place where the swing is set up, is a place of particular peril. For a week, boys, and persons of low caste, also take a delight in scattering red powder of any kind over passengers in the streets, accompanying it with insulting language. In the villages, persons of respectability, and females particularly, are liable, for several days, to gross abuse, and even to personal ill-treatment, if obliged to leave the house; and consequently all intercourse is at this time suspended.

The people of Orissa differ from the Bengalese in the disuse of the bonfire; they have the swinging and the scattering of the *abir*, but they have also some peculiar usages.

Their Gossains carry, in procession, the image of the juvenile Krishna, to the houses of their disciples and patrons, to whom they present some of the red powder and *utr*, and receive presents in return.

The caste of Gopas, or Herdsmen, particularly observe this holiday, and renew their own dresses, and all the equipments of their cattle; they also bathe them, and paint their foreheads with sandal and turmeric. They themselves collect in bodies, and run about, as if wild with joy, carrying slender sticks in their hands, and the leaders occasionally turning round to face those who follow them, they strike their sticks together, making a clatter expressive, they imagine, of exultation—singing songs, at the same time, in celebration of Krishna.

In Hindoostan, the Holi is held to begin upon the Vasanta Panchami, and to last for about six weeks. The actual celebration of it rarely commences till about ten days prior to the full moon of Phalgun, and is then limited to the wearing of new apparel, red or yellow, feasting and making merry. On the 8th day of the light half, or a week before the full moon, the festival is fully commenced. Images of Krishna are erected and worshipped, smeared with red powder, and sprinkled with liquid of the same dye: and the people of the villages and small towns begin to collect, upon a spot in the vicinity, cow-dung and other fuel; the head man of the village commences, and all then contribute to the pile whatever they can lay hold of, stealing, for the purpose, the stakes of fences, gateways, doors, and articles of household furniture, if not prevented; and if these things are once added to the heap, the owner cannot recover them, and it is a point of honour not to complain. During this time, the people wander about the roads and streets scattering red powder, singing, dancing, and annoying passengers, by mischievous tricks, or abusive language.

On the 14th, the crowd assembles round the Kanda, or pile, which is consecrated, and lighted by an officiating Brahmin: when the pile is in a blaze, the spectators approach, as if to warm themselves, an act that is supposed to avert ill luck for the rest of the year; at this period their frolics become outrageous, and it is not safe for any decent person to approach them. This extravagance continues for two days. When the pile is consumed, the ashes are thrown into water.

In the south of India, the rite is also that of the Dola Jatra, but it offers some peculiarities. The image of Krishna is committed to a swing, and red powder and rose water scattered about, as elsewhere. A bonfire also is made, but the effigy is supposed to represent Kamadeva, the Hindoo god of love, and the combustion is emblematical of his having been burnt to ashes by the fire from Siva's eye, when incensed by the little deity's wounding him with

his shafts, and inspiring him with love for the daughter of Himalaya. The bonfires are made usually in front of the temples of Siva or Vishnu, at midnight, and the ashes are distributed amongst the spectators. In many places worship is offered to Kamadeva; similar extravagancies are practised in southern, as in western Hindoostan.

The season at which this festival occurs, the frantic merriment by which it is characterised, the scattering of red or purplish coloured powders, indicative of the blossoms which now begin to show themselves, and even the bonfire, which may express the return of warmth, leave no doubt of the original purpose of the celebration, and designate it as a festival typical of the return of genial temperature, which, there is no doubt, was once common to all the Pagan world, and of which Christianity long retained marked traces, in May-day games, and Beltane bonfires. We find, indeed, the practices which now prevail among the Hindoos, described in works of some antiquity, as appertaining to the *Vasanti*, or Spring festival, which comprised various observances, as the worship of the *Dona* flower, and the swinging of the gods, and their procession in cars, or the *Dola* and *Ratha Jatras*, and seems to have been wound up with the worship of the God of Love. It may be doubted if the term *Holika* occurs in any work of unquestionable antiquity. The practice of later times has lost sight of the meaning of the festival, dislocated some of its constituent parts, and removed them to other periods; has appropriated the celebration to the honour of a different divinity, or the infant Krishna, and has invented new legends to account for the ceremonial.

Thus the effigy which is burnt is supposed, in general, to represent a female demon, who sought to destroy the life of the infant Krishna, but was slain by him. After death, however, her body was not to be found, and the Gopas, or Cowherds of Mathura, therefore, burnt her in effigy. In the *Bhavisyotara Puran*, however, the effigy is said to represent a female fiend, named *Dhondha* who, in the days of *Raghu*, made a practice of killing children. *Raghu*, by the advice of *Vasishtha*, instituted the bonfires, and the songs and merry-making of the people, to arrest her malpractices, and, accordingly, the particular efficacy of this rite to the preservation of infant life: whence, also, its more ready transition to the worship of Krishna. This appears, however, to have been an after thought, and the original practice, which was equally common amongst all the nations of antiquity, had no relation either to Krishna or a witch.

The songs that are sung so vociferously at this season, have little to recommend them except their brevity: the following are some specimens.

Each consists of but a single stanza and a burthen, and is

repeated without end. They all allude to the juvenile Krishna, and are supposed to be sung by some of his female companions.

1. I met in the path the Lord of Madhuvan. How can I go to fetch water? If I ascend the roof, he pelts me with pellets of clay. If I proceed to the river, he scatters over me the red dye. If I visit Gokul, he covers me with the tinted dust. Thus he drives me distracted.—I met in the path, &c.

2. O friend! proud as you are of your youth, be careful of your garments. The month of Phalgun muddens those whose lovers are far away.—O friend! &c.

3. My boddice is wet through: who has thrown the tinted water upon me? It is Kanhaiva, the son of Nanda. It is the month of Phalgun.—My boddice, &c.

4. O Lord of Vrui! you gaily sport to the merry sound of the tabor, and dance along with the nymphs of Vrindavan.—O Lord of Vrui! &c.

SOURCES OF THE BRAHMAPOOTRA.

THE progress of geographical discovery on our north-east frontier has assimilated itself to the development of a well-wrought tale, in which expectation has been kept alive by a succession of incidents promising, yet retarding, the denouement, and disappointing expectation only to excite curiosity. In the same manner we have been constantly coming upon the sources of the Brahmapootra without attaining them, and, at the same time, determining a variety of new and interesting points, which, although not the ultimate object of inquiry, have not defrauded it of its legitimate reward.

A recent excursion to the east of Saddiya has, we learn, been prosecuted by Lieutenant Wilcox, who in the first instance proceeded up the branch of the river called the Thenga Pani, or Thenga Nadi. After passing the Mora Tunga Marbar, and Disavi, the stream diminished to the breadth of eight or ten yards, and the navigation was stopped by trees that had fallen into the river, or across it. Like all the streams east of Saddiya, it abounds with rapids, and, from the great inclination of its bed, it never overflows the banks, although they are low. The whole tract through which it flows is said to be highly fertile; but the country is thinly peopled, and the lands scantily cultivated. Such is the want of labourers in the fields, that the Simho chiefs are obliged to put their hands to the plough themselves.

The Thenga Nadi, from this description, has not contributed to the determination of the origin of the main stream; and we had lately an opportunity of showing, that it does not rise from the reservoir on the Lohit, on the side of the mountains, to which the designation of Brahma Kund is now applied. In the account we published in our

paper of the 21st of last month, it was stated that the river was seen flowing down a gentle slope for a considerable distance within the first range of hills running from the south-east. On the present occasion, it has been ascertained from oral, but apparently trustworthy, information, that the Brahmapootra rises by two branches, one to the north and the other to the east, the Talooka and the Talooding. The former is the smallest of the two, and its water is impure. It skirts the hills which runs off northward, and its banks are thinly peopled. The Talooding has villages on both banks: it has its source in a snowy mountain in the Khana Deba's country, from the opposite side of which issues the Irrawaddy. The conflux of both is said to be within the frontiers of the Lama's country, one day beyond Sitti on the boundary, which latter is eight days' journey from Taen. Taen is the third village on the route from the Meesmee country to that of the Lama, but it is sometimes made in one day's march from Chella, or the Thenga, by a difficult path that passes by the Brahma Kund. This route, however, is impracticable for travellers with baggage or burthens. At Taen, the river is crossed by a cane suspension-bridge, and cattle may proceed along the remainder of the road in a circuitous direction. Bameya, the seventh stage on this route, is described as an immense hill, which can only be crossed in a direct line with the assistance of ropes.

The sources of other principal branches of the Lohit or Brahmapootra proper, as well as of the great southern portion, the Bor Dehing, are, however, still undetermined. Of the latter, nothing has yet been published; of the former, some additional information has been obtained, but it requires verification. The sources of the Dibong are apparently not far from the frontiers of the Lama's country, as the Meesmee, situated on the former, carry on an active traffic with the latter. Of a more important branch, the Dibong, the Bor Abors confidently assert that it flows from the west, and that a lake through which, or from which it issues, gives rise to the Soobunsheeree also. The description, however, seems to be rather incompatible with the assertion, that in the north-westerly route to the Lama's territory, the Dibong is crossed from east to west at the twelfth stage, and then left.

Similar reports have been received on this, as on other occasions, of a very considerable river skirting the further side of the hills, to which the term Sri Lohit is applied. It is said to flow from east to west, a direction that would disunite it from any possible communication with the rivers of Assam; but this is probably an error, and the river, if not altogether a nonentity, may possibly be the Irrawaddy. The Sri Lohit is said to have been crossed by the posterity of Khunling and Khunlae, the heaven-descended founders of the family, which, to the period of the Burman invasion, governed Assam. It may possibly, therefore, be a river of merely mythological origin.—*Bengal Hurkaru.*

INJURIES TO THE BENGAL ARMY BY POSTING MAJORS TO COMMAND OF REGIMENTS.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,

Bengal, February 1827.

I SEE in one of your late Numbers an address to Lieutenant-Colonel Watson, as Adjutant-General of the Bengal Army, calling upon him to stand up in support of the rights of that Army, &c. The call, I fear, will be in vain. Every day shows more plainly that he will sanction, by continuing in office, any alteration that a Commander-in-Chief, ignorant of its constitution, may think proper to make in it. The present Commander-in-Chief has lately thought proper, contrary to the constitution and immemorial usage of this Army, (where an officer rises to the rank of major in his own regiment, and then in the line,) to remove senior majors from their regiments to take the command of those whose colonels, lieutenant-colonels, and majors, are absent; thus entirely annulling the good fortune which the juniors of those regiments may occasionally meet with. By the constitution of this Army, a major has no more right to the command of a regiment than a captain, unless his colonel and lieutenant-colonel should be absent; he, equally with the captain, belongs to one regiment, and ought to take his chance in that regiment. If it be said that a captain is too low in rank to command a regiment when it falls to him, it is the fault of the service; and there ought to be more field-officers to each regiment to remedy this evil. A major, according to the constitution of the Bengal Army, is, to all intents and purposes, a regimental officer equally with the captain; and the system adopted of removing them to the command of other regiments, must create heart-burnings and jealousies in the regiments to which they are removed, highly injurious to discipline, and that *esprit du corps* which ought to be encouraged. It will frequently happen that the major thus removed is junior in the service to the captain who would otherwise command the regiment; therefore, it cannot be on the pretence that the captain is too young an officer to command. An officer, after going through the hardships and chances of service with his regiment, is deprived of the benefits accruing from the dangers he has shared; whilst they are given to a man who has been pleasantly passing his time in the security and comfort of cantonments. Is this just or reasonable? And is this the way to induce old officers to remain with their regiments? It ought to make every captain and subaltern, who is entitled to it, take his furlough. The frequent changing of commanding officers of regiments must be injurious to discipline; and the insecurity of command must destroy the interest a commanding officer should feel in the discipline of his regiment. It opens a door, too, to a shameful abuse of patronage, as all the senior majors are not thus provided

for, but some passed over. Why is this? If they are not fit to be intrusted with the command of regiments, they are not fit for the service; and who is to be the judge of their fitness? The Commander-in-Chief must almost always be a stranger to their qualifications, except through the report of the adjutant-general, an officer, perhaps, junior to them; thus exercising an influence which ought only to be intrusted to an officer of high rank and long service. It may so happen that there may not be a major available for the command of a regiment that has no field-officer to command it; the principle then ought to be extended to the senior captains of the army, for they have as much right to it (some of them more) than some of the majors, being equally regimental officers, and older in the service than the majors. If the principle were to be invariably followed in practice, there would not be so much room for complaint against it; but this is not the case. Sufficient discontent already prevails amongst the officers of this Army, occasioned by the supercessions consequent on its late re-organization, and unjust postings of officers to the extra regiments, without increasing it by these encroachments upon its invariable usage; but it appears that the ruling powers will never stop until they have driven us to some act of despair, detrimental alike to the Army and to our masters. The apathy, too, with which the Court of Directors behold the injustice of the local Government towards us, is a striking feature in their character, and tends mainly to weaken the allegiance we ought to feel. The time is fast approaching when the allegiance and fidelity of this Army must be brought to the test, and woe be to the Company's dominion should they be found wanting. It is politic to take warning betimes, for repentance may come too late.

MILNERS.

THE TORY AND THE LIBERAL PRESS OF INDIA.

It is the fashion with a certain class of writers in this country (India), with a view to gain currency and credence for their own peculiar views of the political questions that are occasionally agitated, to appropriate to themselves all integrity and patriotism, and to represent their opponents as discontented and designing men, poor and unprincipled, without any attachment to the British Government in India, and without any desire for the preservation of its power, or the promotion of its interests. In the exuberance of their vanity and malevolence they have even gone a step further than this. If you happen to agree with them on the evil of any proposed measure, but adopt a line of argument, produce an illustration, or make a reference, which to them appears improper or

disrespectful, however innocent in itself, the same charges are reiterated, and without any diminution of virulence, thus proving the radical intolerance of their principles, and that to differ from them, whether in manner or in matter, in shadow or in substance, is the unpardonable sin of their political opponents. We are quite convinced, that they do not themselves believe in the truth of the charges which they advance, and that they employ them merely to bring odium on those whom they dislike; and we are aware, also, that it is only the most unthinking and prejudiced that attach the slightest weight to their assertions and insinuations; but as they appear disposed to persevere in the use of these invidious weapons, it may not be altogether useless to show the utter groundlessness of the calumnies and misrepresentations which they attempt to propagate.

Let us inquire, then, whether the course adopted by the Tory or the Liberal Press of Calcutta is most calculated to benefit the people of this country, and to give stability and permanence to the Government under which they live.

There can be no doubt, that a powerful and energetic executive is requisite under every government, and especially under every despotic government, such as this is, to secure tranquillity at home and respect abroad; and there can be as little doubt that, with whatever degree of energy this Government may be endowed, their power is great and uncontrollable. But mere power and energy are not alone sufficient, unless they be employed to administer and enforce just and equal laws, to punish the corrupt and guilty, and to protect the oppressed and the innocent; to encourage industry, and promote commerce; to increase the comforts, and to elevate the character, of the people. If, on the contrary, the executive employ its overwhelming power to enforce unjust and unequal laws, to screen the corrupt and guilty from the exposure and punishment they deserve, and thus leave the innocent and the oppressed without protection and without redress; to impose constantly increasing shackles on industry and commerce, and thus impoverish the country, and ruin its inhabitants;—in such a case as this, no physical power, however gigantic, possessed by the Government, can contend against that moral force which is arrayed against it in the heart of every one of its subjects, and which will give sinews to their arms whenever a fit occasion shall be offered, either by insurrections at home, or by invasions from abroad. The attachment of the people is the only certain means of securing the stability of the Government; and their sincere and cordial attachment can only be the effect of good treatment. It follows, therefore, that those who are anxious to repress the voice of the people, who refuse publicity to their complaints, and redress to their grievances; who bestow on the Government, undeserved

praises, and thus seek to blind them as to the real effect of their measures on the public mind, these, however unintentionally, are the real enemies of the British power in the East; while those who adopt a contrary course, and endeavour to expose to public view the most rotten parts of the system, for the purpose of correction and improvement, are its best and truest friends. No one that knows any thing of the matter can doubt, that the introduction and extension of the British power in India has been attended with incalculable advantages to the people, as contrasted with their condition under the Mohammedan sway; and if it be true, that the well-being of England depends on her authority in the East, it is still more so that the well-being of India depends on British predominance, the continuance of which, therefore, should be the prayer not only of every patriot but of every philanthropist. But to deny the evils that exist under the British Government, would be just as absurd as to deny the good that it has effected; and as no Government can stand still,—as every thing must either retrograde or advance,—no effort should be spared, by those who wish well both to India and to England, to expose, to check, and to remedy, the vices of the existing system. The hold thus gained on the affections of the people will form the only true safeguard against the intrigues of Native powers, or the designs of foreign enemies; and without such a hold, we have no security that the very soldiers who now receive British pay, and are trained under British officers to British discipline, will not in the time of need turn their arms against us.

‘Govern India well, and there is nothing to fear from India.’ Mis-govern it, and there is every thing to fear, both from within and from without. This is the language of all history and experience, and we do not see why the lessons of these guides should not be applied to the state and prospects of India, as well as of all other countries. The maxim of the alarmists, however, is very different, and implies that the mere suggestion of the possibility, the duty, and the necessity, of governing India better than it is already governed, is a crime against the state, a symptom of disaffection, an incitement to revolt. Their policy is not to please the people, and thus secure the Government, but to shut the ears of the Government against the discontent, the groans, and cries of the people. It is a mere make-believe system, which is necessarily of temporary duration, and will one day result in some terrible explosion, overwhelming both deceivers and deceived in one common ruin, unless a better spirit prevail, and a better system be established. On this subject we are happy to corroborate the sentiments we have expressed by the authority of the ‘Westminster Reviewer,’ who discovers an intimate acquaintance with the state, relations, and character of the people in India, which entitles his opinion to high

admonishing Dr. Harrison, although the same unfavourable conclusion must have been drawn from the fact, they might have lingered on for a few months longer in a state of doubtful existence, and levied a few more fines on offenders by means of their licensing board. But having proceeded so far, it will be more creditable, although not less unsafe, 'to go o'er than to return.' So, however, does not think a Fellow in a Licentiate's mask, who addresses the public, in the 'London Medical and Physical Journal' for September 1827, under the head of 'The College of Physicians *versus* Dr. Harrison.' This article vehemently deprecates proceedings on the part of the College. The writer gives advice gratis to the College, to Dr. Harrison, and to the editor of the Journal. The apprehension, the exclusive spirit, and the angry feeling, which he evinces throughout, denote the monopolist as clearly as if he gave us his name; and the contents exhibit internal evidence of a demi-official character. It is a performance which, in felicity of mystification, would do no discredit to the most practised school of sophistry. Yet the writer occasionally betrays and contradicts himself. 'I acknowledge,' says the Licentiate, 'the power of the College.'—'I believe that if they persevere they will gain their action,' &c. Yet he advises them not to persevere. 'The College will better show their prudence in abstaining from, than in courting the publicity of, a trial at law.' What! after proceeding so far that it is less dangerous to go on than to retreat! Again: 'The charter of the College, though old-fashioned, has hitherto worked well.' For whom?—Not for the public, not for the medical profession, but for a few monopolists. 'Let the College think seriously,' says he, 'ere they bend the old bow to its full stretch of power.' He would have been more correct if he had said, 'Let them not touch the old bow, lest they find it to have lost all the virtues that were formerly attributed to it.' If it were possible to believe this writer to be a Licentiate, we must also believe him to be one who does no honour to his class; for he not only exults in the supposed legal existence of that power by which he is himself oppressed, degraded, and excluded, but professes that he is thoroughly contented with the lot of a slave, since, in the quality of an appendage to the monopoly, (literally, the *appendix vermiformis*.) he enjoys some advantages which, under a fair competition, he could not hope to procure over the independent physician. 'I am perfectly satisfied,' says he, in the language of traffic, 'with what I have got for my money, partly in increased respectability, partly in increased notoriety, but chiefly in the entrance it has afforded me to two charitable institutions.' The deceit is here much too gross. But it is the precise language with which Fellows would bait their hooks in order to catch licentiates. Whether they do or do not proceed in their threatened action against Dr. Harrison, this species of fishery is for ever at end. After this season the College will, assuredly, catch no more gudgeons.

We conclude, from internal evidence, that the article to which we refer is not, as it professes to be, the production of a licentiate, but a demi-official manifesto, issued by a Fellow, a legitimate monopolist, under a Licentiate's mask; and, in this view, it may be deserving of notice. His sentiments betray him in almost every line. The burden of his song is peace and harmony in the profession; and he assigns numerous reasons, some of them very curious, why the College should now defer legal proceedings. He sets out by giving an alarming description of the preparations already made for battle. 'The tocsin of war has been sounded. Dr. Harrison is currently reported to have received notice of action.' (We are not aware, and we do not believe, that Dr. Harrison has received any notice of action beyond what is contained in the preceding correspondence; but we do believe that the writer of the article before us well knows, whether he has, or has not.) 'My object, I again repeat, is peace and harmony in the profession.' So, if, by dint of monopolies, the public be despoiled, and the order of nature inverted, all this is to be atoned for by the preservation of harmony in the profession! Injure and destroy whom you please; but be sure you agree among yourselves as to the division of the spoil. Exquisite morality truly! 'Bickerings among professional men are always viewed with great disfavour by the public; and the provocation must be strong indeed, and the benefit to be gained clear and substantial, before the public mind will acknowledge the justice of checking a man in the exercise of his calling.' Aye! 'the public mind'—there's the rub. But it seems the College, without being aware of their good fortune, are surprisingly popular. 'The College ought to know, and I hope they do know, that their truest and noblest source of power is—not the charter of Henry VIII., but the charter of public opinion. They enjoy the good opinion of the public for many reasons,' &c. In various Journals of this month, the College will probably find proof of what degree of reliance they may safely place on each of these two sources of power. But, notwithstanding their high popularity, his earnest advice to them is—not to swerve from the path which has hitherto proved so fortunate for them, and so useful to the public,—not to allow themselves to be hurried away, by the bold bearing of one angry man, to an act that savours more of bravery than of caution.

'Their authority (that of the College) is acknowledged by all the respectable physicians of London.' So, those who acknowledge the authority of the College are respectable, and those who do not, are not respectable physicians! This is a definition of respectability equally novel and ingenious. 'The public attaches a high degree of importance to the title of "member," or "licentiate" of the College; and this alone would be a sufficient motive for very many.' If this be so, the editors of the London medical journals, who are Licentiates,

distinction of ranks afterwards instituted, and especially the limitation of the highest rank to the graduates of Oxford and Cambridge, were consequently palpable usurpations, with the sole view of preserving, not the respectability of physicians, as is falsely alleged, but the monopoly of the practice of physic in a few hands. If to engross business were not the principal object of every incorporation, we should have proof of its being so here from the different conduct, at different periods, of the managers of College affairs, to the graduates of Oxford and Cambridge. It is notorious that, until the middle of the last century, the persecutions of the College (having assumed the power of examining and licensing Doctors in Physic) were as bitter against the independent graduates of those Universities, as in the cases of Dr. Bonham, in 1606, and of Dr. Schomberg from 1746 to 1753, as of any others. It was in 1752 that the iniquitous by-law, limiting the fellowship to graduates of the two English Universities, was first enacted. The ground of this by-law was obviously to preserve the monopoly on its original narrow basis; for it was seldom that more than one physician graduated annually at each of these places. The English Universities, therefore, owe nothing to the College for this apparent preference, for if it had better suited their main purpose of narrowing the monopoly, and they could have done it without increasing odium and provoking resistance, they would have instinctively transferred their regards, perhaps, to the foreign schools of Salernum and Salamanca; their chief object, wholly regardless of the interests of the public, being, with a view to the monopoly, to exclude from a fair competition the numerous graduates of Leyden and the Scotch Universities. This was indeed essential to the perfect preservation of their exclusive privileges, which had long been the paramount duty of this self-constituted incorporation; and if the members, individually, consisted of Solomons and of Catos, if they did their duty as incorporators, the *esprit de corps* would necessarily prevail over the individual character. The inevitable effects of the long-continued operation of this spirit, even upon the soundest and best constituted minds, is to inflate, stultify, and paralyse. But to return to the mysterious statutes of the College; it is obvious that, under a system of secrecy so complete, by-laws may be made extant or 'non extant' at pleasure. In the case referred to, we leave Mr. Roberts, the *ci-devant* attorney to the defunct College, to solve the contradiction if he can.

It is notorious that no incorporation ever enjoyed a power more absolute, or exercised it more despotically, than the College of Physicians; *i. e.* as self-conferred subsequently to the charter and act of Henry VIII.; for the powers, then legally granted to them, were, for the times, liberal and moderate, and, if literally acted upon, would have scarcely constituted a monopoly. In the precise proportion in which they exercised their assumed powers, did empiricism increase and flourish; for which they very sagaciously con-

cluded, reasoning most logically from cause to effect, that there would be no other remedy than a further augmentation of power to themselves. Dr. Goodall, their historian, informs us, that it was thought necessary, in the reigns of Elizabeth, James I., and Charles II., to grant to the College further 'liberties, powers, and privileges, by reason of the great increase of unskilful, illiterate, and unlicensed practisers of physic in London, and within seven miles thereof.' It would be difficult, indeed, to conceive how any other result could happen under a limitation of physicians to twenty, and the total prohibition of surgeons and apothecaries from the practice of physic. In November, 1595, the College of Physicians, by letter, requested the Company of the Chirurgeons in London, that they would *wholly abstain from the practice of physic*. And it is notorious that a similar prohibition extended to the apothecaries.

As it was quite impossible that a twentieth part of the medical service of the inhabitants of London in the 16th century, amounting probably to from 400,000 to 500,000 persons, could be properly performed by twenty physicians, to which number the Faculty was restricted by the College; as the surgeons and apothecaries were prohibited from practising physic; and as the sick, if they could not have legal, would have illegal attendance; the inevitable and immediate consequence of such an extraordinary state of things, was the conversion of nineteen-twentieths of the whole practice of physic in the metropolis into an illicit or contraband trade. Irresistible temptations to smuggling were held out to unadmitted physicians, and to surgeons and apothecaries, as well as to quacks and empirics; and, of course, they prevailed. But these offenders against College monopoly being liable to be arbitrarily punished by prosecutions, persecutions, fines, and imprisonment, it became necessary for them, in bargaining with their patients, to indemnify themselves by payments beforehand for the damages which they might have eventually to sustain for their trespasses on exclusive privileges. Hence arose the custom of exacting large sums at the commencement of the treatment, in part for cures to be performed. As these poachers were frequently fined and imprisoned in rapid succession by the preservers of the College game, the same patient might have had to pay, by anticipation, repeatedly for his promised cure, without any progress having been made towards effecting it. This fertile source of fraud rendered the expenses incidental to sickness no less enormous than the quality of the medical attendance was execrable. The unfortunate sick had to suffer the double drain of the exactions of the illegal, and of the fees, rendered exorbitant by their monopoly, of the legal practisers. Besides their own regular charges, the College were enabled to transfer to themselves, in the shape of fines, a vast proportion of the gains of all the irregular practitioners. The latter formed the sponge through which they levied their principal taxes upon the public. The revenue which they derived from both sources, in the

course of two centuries, must have been enormous. In the work of their historian, Dr. Goodall, is found an amusing, and, notwithstanding his egregious partiality, an instructive narrative of the achievements of the College, during the greater part of that period, *professedly to put down quackery*. But, even by his own account, it somehow happened that the more measures they adopted for the suppression of quackery, the more did quackery increase and flourish; and the philosophy of this is very explicable, when we consider that the more quackery increased and flourished, the more money flowed, in the shape of fines, into the exchequer of the incorporation; and that the revenue arising from this source was shared among twenty, and afterwards among thirty physicians, for a long time composing the whole number of the monopolists of the College. We speak of the first period of the monopoly.

Whilst the College, labouring in their vocation, were incessantly occupied in contriving by-laws, which were eminently calculated to augment and to extend quackery, they were, as might be expected, constantly the loudest declaimers against its destructive progress, and instead of abolishing the restrictions by which it was obviously occasioned, were perpetually soliciting from government and the legislature new powers for its suppression. Did this conduct arise from artifice and design, or a total ignorance, in this case, of the relation between cause and effect? However that may be, the fact of the extraordinary increase of quackery was universally admitted and deplored by the public.

In the preamble to the charter of Charles II. it was acknowledged and assigned as a ground for further enlarging the powers of the College, that empiricism continued progressively to flourish: 'And whereas, notwithstanding all the care, travail, and endeavour, had and taken, in the creating, modelling, and establishing of the constitution and corporation aforesaid, and the many and great liberties, powers, and privileges, thereunto given, granted, and confirmed, by the said severall letters patent, and Acts of Parliament aforesaid; and notwithstanding the constant and indefatigable pains and endeavours of the President and College aforesaid, on all opportunities, had and taken, in putting the same in due execution to the ends aforesaid, it hath been made most apparent and evident unto us, that the number of unskilful, illiterate, and unlicensed practizers of physicke in and about our said cittie of London, hath of later years much increased, and att present doe daylie multiply; together with the renewed frauds, abuses, and deceits, of divers apothecaries, druggists, and others, inhabiting the same cittie, &c. . . . the chief cause or ground whereof, as we are given to understand, ariseth from some defects in the said constitution, THE COERCIVE AND PENAL POWERS THEREOF BEING NOT APTLY AND USEFULLY PLACED AND SETTLED.'

In 1669, Dr. Merrett, a Fellow of the College, talks of 'the mul-

titude of empirics swarming in every corner.' But it was an evil, the people felt, which was infinitely to be preferred to the absence of all kinds of assistance in nineteen out of twenty cases of sickness, the other alternative offered by the College monopoly. Quackery was, therefore, in reality, to be considered a mitigation of the greater evil of the absence of all assistance in sickness, to which the public were, for nearly two centuries, exposed by the selfish and illiberal restrictions of the College. During that period, informations, prosecutions, fines, imprisonment, and interdiction, proceeded in a continued series, and with a constant increase of the mischiefs which it was the professed object to remedy. Contraband practitioners, in a state of rapid transfer from the sick-room to the jail, and from the jail again to the sick-room, whether consisting of unadmitted physicians, or of surgeons, apothecaries, quacks, and empirics; invalids in a state of rapid transfer from the sick-room to the grave; and a College occupied with receiving informations, levying fines, and directing imprisonments, instead of being attending to their patients, form a picture no less true that it is disgusting and horrible. It is also true, that at this period, when any of these descriptions of persons were charged with killing their patients by mal-practice, which very frequently happened, a fine to the College, with, in some cases, a trifling imprisonment, was deemed a sufficient atonement. A constant succession of fines, of five, ten, fifteen, twenty, forty, and even up to a hundred pounds, large sums in the 16th and 17th centuries, must have formed an immense revenue, when divided among a body of monopolists consisting of only twenty, thirty, or forty persons. What the sick must have suffered, in their purses and persons, during this extraordinary state of things, may be imagined, but cannot adequately be described. From what has been said, the reader will be able in some measure to contrast their afflicting condition with what it would have been under an unrestrained professional competition. Yet we may expect still to find persons foolish or profligate enough to desire to prolong or to renew this disgraceful, destructive, and factitious monopoly.

We discontinue, for the present, the regular course of our historical narrative of the nature, operation, and effects of the College monopoly, for the purpose of adverting to some extraordinary occurrences, practically illustrative of their character, which are passing immediately before our eyes. Although they relate immediately to a misunderstanding between individual physicians, the affair is, nevertheless, of great general importance, as involving in its issue, on the one hand, the rights of the community to the free choice of their own physicians, and a due supply of appropriate medical advice; and, on the other hand, the pretensions of the College of Physicians, for the benefit of their own members, to restrain that choice, and to limit that supply.

Early in May last, Dr. Chambers, a Fellow of the College of

Physicians, thought fit to decline meeting in consultation with Dr. Edward Harrison, an experienced physician of the metropolis, distinguished for the part he had long taken in the promotion of that medical reform, which the very circumstances of this case prove to be so much wanted, and may be the immediate means of bringing about. Dr. Harrison made no delay in addressing a letter to Dr. Chambers, with a view to ascertain, 'whether, in refusing to meet him in consultation, he considered himself as acting discretionally, or under an indispensable obligation imposed on him by the laws of the College;' to which Dr. Chambers replied, that he 'acted in obedience to a positive regulation of the College.' As this correspondence may be found in full in vol. xiv. p. 125, of the 'Oriental Herald,' we shall here advert to those passages only in which the College are called upon to try in legal form the validity of the privileges which they claim the right to exercise.

'Should the College still be of opinion,' says Dr. Harrison, 'as they formerly professed to maintain, that they can legally compel the acceptance of a license, or the discontinuance of practice, I beg them to be assured, that I am perfectly ready to try the question, whenever they may think proper to afford me the opportunity. I must, however, in the mean time, strongly remonstrate against the custom of endeavouring to obtain their object by a course injurious to medical science, and prejudicial to the community.'

'You may possibly be aware, that I formerly stated the same sentiments to Dr. Baillie, and after his death, to Dr. Turner. I did not omit, on either occasion, to add, that the Fellows were, in my opinion, highly culpable in making regulations which they dare not attempt to enforce in a court of law.'

'As my sentiments remain unaltered, I embrace the opportunity you have afforded me to renew my offer, through you, to the College. Should the challenge be at length accepted, I pledge myself to carry the suit to a full hearing, and final decision.'

'In repeating my offer for the third time, I desire to remind you that I have hitherto been content to assert my own privileges and independence, when they were unnecessarily assailed. But after so many provocations, I now think myself called upon openly to claim for myself and colleagues all the rights and privileges of British subjects, agreeably to the union of the two kingdoms.'

'If the Fellows shall still think fit to decline the contest, an enlightened public cannot fail to appreciate their real motives, however they may be disguised or concealed.'

By the publication of this correspondence, in various periodical and daily Journals, after a due period for meditation had been allowed to elapse, the College found themselves placed under the disagreeable necessity of trying the question by a formal process, or of tacitly acknowledging that the privileges which they claim

are not founded upon any legal or competent authority. Either in ignorance of their real position, or in the hope of intimidating their opponent, and contrary to the expectations of those who gave them credit for discretion, they at once resorted to the latter alternative, and the Censors addressed to Dr. Harrison the following letter of admonition:

No. I.—To Dr. Edward Harrison, Holles Street.

'We, the Censors of the Royal College of Physicians, London, having received information that you are practising physic within the city of London, and seven miles of the same, do hereby admonish you to desist from so doing, until you shall have been duly examined and licensed thereto, under the common seal of the said College, otherwise it will be the duty of the said College to proceed against you for the recovery of the penalties thereby incurred.'

'WILLIAM LAMBE.

'J. COPE.

'H. H. SOUTHEY.

'CORNWALLIS HEWETT.

'College of Physicians, Pall Mall East,
'July 6, 1827.

'A Board for examining persons who have the requisite qualifications will be holden at the College on next Friday, 13th July 1827.'

Having thus committed themselves, there was for these gentlemen no return. With what safety could they now retreat? But it was still more difficult to advance. It became necessary to inquire by what title they could get into a court of law. It will be difficult for Sir James Scarlett and Mr. Brougham, their retained advocates, able and ingenious as they undoubtedly are, to furnish them with a suitable one for the occasion. Will they adopt the title of 'President, College, and Commonalty, of the Faculty of Physicke in London, originally given to them by Henry VIII.? They have long ago forfeited all claim to it: first, by disuse; secondly, by a change of their whole structure, as well as name. Will they take that of 'President, Fellows, and Commonalty of the King's College of Physicians in the City of London,' bestowed on them in the charter of Charles II.? They have never assumed this title: they have at present no commonalty. This charter was never valid, having been refused to be confirmed by parliament. Will they endeavour to get into the presence of the legal authorities of the land by the name under which they have for a long time actually designated themselves, of 'President and Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians in London'? It is not valid. They have legally no Fellows. Neither are they a Royal College, excepting by their own creation. They cannot bring an action at law, then, under any of their *aliases*. As we are assured by persons connected with legal technicalities. As well might any private medical society in the metropolis attempt to procure entrance into a Court of Justice under the title of 'President and Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians in London.' They would, without ceremony, be turned out of Court. It was,

therefore, in evil hour that the College thought fit to order their Censors, a designation also wholly unknown to the laws, to issue an admonition which they had not the power to enforce. The purport of this admonition is to direct a medical graduate—legally authorised by his University, not only to practise, but to teach medicine throughout the world—to desist from so doing within the city of London, and seven miles of the same, until he shall have been duly examined and licensed thereto, &c.

No. II.—*Dr. Harrison's Answer to the Censors' Communication.*

'GENTLEMEN,—I had last night the honour of receiving a communication, purporting to be signed by you, as the Censors of the Royal College of Physicians, London, wherein you are pleased to admonish me to desist from practising physic within the city of London, and seven miles of the same, until I shall have been duly examined and licensed thereto; and alleging, that, otherwise, it will be the duty of the said College to proceed against me for the recovery of the penalties thereby incurred. Before I answer the above communication, will you have the goodness to point out to me the authorities under which you act, and the penalties to which you allude?—I have the honour to be, Gentlemen, your very obedient humble servant,

'Holles-street, July 7, 1827.'

'EDWARD HARRISON.'

These were rather startling questions; and, instead of giving them direct answers, it was endeavoured to draw Dr. Harrison into a personal conference at the College, by the following letter from one of the Censors:

No. III.—*To Dr. Harrison, Holles-street, Cavendish-square.*

'SIR,—Being senior Censor of the College of Physicians, I opened your letter of the 7th instant, which I shall lay before the Board at their next meeting. I think it right to inform you, that such Board is appointed for Friday next, at three o'clock, where you may appear, if you think proper, and obtain whatever information the Board may think it their duty to communicate to you.—I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

'2, King's-road, Bedford-row, July 9, 1827.'

'WILLIAM LAMBE.'

On the same day, it is understood, that Sir James Scarlett was generally retained for the College. In order to avoid the issue apparently meditated, as well as to prevent any misinterpretation which might arise from a visit to the Censors, under such circumstances, Dr. Harrison declined the invitation:

No. IV.—*To Dr. Lambe, 2, King's-road, Bedford-row.*

'SIR,—I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of Monday last; and I have only to repeat the request made by my former letter.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your very obedient humble servant,

'Holles-street, July 12, 1827.'

'EDWARD HARRISON.'

The design of drawing Dr. Harrison into a conference, where the witnesses of the proceedings would be all on one side, a mea-

sure which would at any rate have subjected him to suspicion; having, in consequence of his refusal to attend it, failed, the Censors could not avoid making some reply to his questions; and they accordingly entered into the following explanation:

No. V.—*To Dr. Edward Harrison, Holles-street.*

'SIR,—We, the Censors of the Royal College of Physicians, London, having taken into consideration the request made in your letter of the 7th July, "to be informed under what authorities we act, and what are the penalties to which we alluded,"—have to inform you that we act UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF OUR CHARTER, CONFIRMED BY PARLIAMENT, 14th AND 15th HENRY VIII., which is well known, and has been repeatedly enforced.

'WILLIAM LAMBE.

'CLEMENT HUE, FOR DR. COPE.

'H. H. SOUTHEY.

'CORNWALLIS HEWETT.'

'College of Physicians,
July 19, 1827.'

'There will be a Censors' Board held at half past four o'clock on Thursday next, 26th July, at which, if you think proper, you will have an opportunity of appearing.'

If the College have hitherto been allowed, without question, to exercise the privileges which they erroneously assumed under the charter and act of Henry VIII., it is certainly a proof that they are far from being well known; and if they have never been formally contested, they cannot with truth be said to have been 'repeatedly enforced.' In what instance has a fine been enforced by the College against any Doctor of Physic denying their jurisdiction? But let us hear what Dr. Harrison himself says to the authority under which the Censors profess to act upon this occasion; after merely observing that they have, by taking this specific ground, still more fully committed themselves.

No. VI.—*Dr. Harrison's Answer to the preceding Communication.*

'GENTLEMEN,—After acknowledging the favour of your letter of the 19th instant, informing me "that you act under the authority of your charter, confirmed by Parliament 14th and 15th Henry VIII.," I beg leave to observe, that I can no where find the title of "Censors of the Royal College of Physicians" mentioned in that statute; or their right to examine graduates of Universities recognised. And what is no less relevant in this case, it does not appear to confer the power of constituting two different classes of physicians, under the denomination of Fellows and Licentiates. Such is the result of a careful examination of the above-named act. But if you can point out particular clauses in it, by which the title and powers in question are distinctly given, I shall feel obliged by the communication.—I have the honour to be, Gentlemen, your very obedient humble servant,

'Holles-street, July 23, 1827.'

'EDWARD HARRISON.'

The Censors, no doubt, now felt that they had to do with an opponent who required that every assumption should be proved; that nothing would be taken for granted; and that the contest would be decisive.

of the fate of the College. In vain would they have looked for their present title of Censors in the charter and act of Henry VIII.; they would there find that the four superintendents of the internal affairs of the College were described as Supervisors. But it would be too glaring an abandonment of their ground to drop this title wholly and at once; and, accordingly, in their answer to Dr. Harrison, they only drop a part of it,—namely, the word ‘Royal,’ which they, perhaps, hoped would not be missed. It would have been more decorous, and equally safe, to have dropped the whole, and become Supervisors again. But even this would have availed them nothing. For, besides their incompetency to resume a title which they had so long abandoned, unless they could prove their legal right to examine medical graduates, upon what ground could they pretend to prosecute them for penalties for refusing to submit to an examination? In this letter, their right to examine, and that to establish different ranks among doctors of physic, are denied, and their authority for assuming such powers requested to be pointed out. But respecting these matters, the Censors are, in their answer, of necessity totally silent; and would doubtless gladly have retraced all their preceding steps in this affair.

No. VII.—*The Censors to Dr. Harrison.*

‘WE, the Censors of the College of Physicians, have received your letter, bearing the date of July the 23d, 1827, and have nothing to add to our last communication, excepting that the next Censors’ Board for examining all persons *who have the requisite qualifications*, will be held at the College of Physicians, on the 1st of next October, at four o’clock, P. M.

‘College of Physicians,
July 26, 1827.’

‘WILLIAM LAMBE.
‘J. COPE.
‘H. H. SOUTHEY.
‘CORNWALLIS HEWETT.’

Satisfied with the progress and the issue of it, Dr. Harrison terminates this discussion by refusing to ‘recognise their authority as Censors of the Royal College of Physicians,’ declining their ‘invitation to offer himself at their licensing board on the 1st of next October,’ and concluding his letter by ‘referring them to his solicitors, Messrs. Tennant, Harrison, and Tennant, of Gray’s-Inn, in case of their choosing to institute proceedings against him.’

No. VIII.—*Dr. Harrison to the Censors.*

‘GENTLEMEN,—In reply to your communication, bearing date the 26th of July, I desire to state, that I was led in my last letter to propose three questions for your consideration, with the view of encouraging amicable discussion, and of producing, if possible, a conformity of sentiment between us. As my conciliatory efforts have been frustrated by your uncompromising answer, I beg to inform you, that having bestowed no inconsiderable attention upon the constitution of the College of Physicians, I am led to conclude, that the privileges and powers granted to it by the statute 14th and 15th of Henry VIII., are not now in existence,

or at least are no longer available for College purposes. Upon the consideration, generally, of the other insurmountable difficulties and objections to the exercise of your monopoly, I shall think it unnecessary to enter, unless the paramount one can be removed.

‘Intelligent and enlightened physicians, as well as gentlemen learned in the law, entertain similar opinions to my own. I have also reason to know, that even among those who formerly ranked with the highest of the Fellows, the boasted authority of the College was denominated a mere “*brutum fulmen*.” As I had not lately met with opposition from any of the Fellows in the exercise of my professional duties, I concluded that I should be suffered to pursue them without further molestation, until I was roused from my deceptive quiet, and forced into the field by your colleague, Dr. Chambers.

‘Fortified with the concurring approbation of accomplished lawyers and physicians, I thought that I could not bestow greater service upon the medical profession, to which I am enthusiastically devoted, than by bringing all disputed matters formally into open court, under a conviction, that however they may be decided, the interests of the Faculty and of the public will be essentially promoted by the investigation.

‘Actuated by these motives, I have tendered to the College, for a series of years, through some of its Fellows, opportunities of examining legally their pretensions to interfere with me, or my practice.

‘I am unwilling to suppose, that the gentlemen who now compose the “Royal College of Physicians,” and for whom, individually, I entertain every respect, are less desirous than myself to come at once to the points at issue between us, without the introduction of those foreign topics which have hitherto embarrassed the question, and prevented a satisfactory decision.

‘Acting on public grounds only, and for the advantage of our common profession, I pledge myself that if proceedings are instituted, they shall, on my part, be carried on without unnecessary irritation or excitement.

‘In pursuance of the great objects for which I contend, I now declare that I do not recognise your authority as “Censors of the Royal College of Physicians,” and shall therefore decline your invitation to offer myself at your licensing board “on the 1st of next October.”

‘I have only to add, in concluding my correspondence, that Messrs. Tennant, Harrison, and Tennant, of Gray’s-Inn, are my solicitors. To them I refer you, in case of your choosing to institute proceedings against me. They are furnished with instructions to give every facility to a legal investigation of your assumed privileges, but they are directed neither to compromise my rights, nor those of my professional brethren. I have the honour to be, Gentlemen, your very obedient humble servant,

‘Holles Street, August 4th, 1827.’

‘EDWARD HARRISON.’

The College are now in the position, that, whether they advance or retreat, it will make but little difference to themselves, and none at all to the public or the independent part of the profession. If they advance, they must be defeated on the merits of the case; and, if they retreat, the inevitable conclusion is, that they find themselves destitute of those powers with which they had hitherto supposed themselves invested. Had they, indeed, abstained from

admonishing Dr. Harrison, although the same unfavourable conclusion must have been drawn from the fact, they might have lingered on for a few months longer in a state of doubtful existence, and levied a few more fines on offenders by means of their licensing board. But having proceeded so far, it will be more creditable, although not less unsafe, 'to go o'er than to return.' So, however, does not think a Fellow in a Licentiate's mask, who addresses the public, in the 'London Medical and Physical Journal' for September 1827, under the head of 'The College of Physicians *versus* Dr. Harrison.' This article vehemently deprecates proceedings on the part of the College. The writer gives advice gratis to the College, to Dr. Harrison, and to the editor of the Journal. The apprehension, the exclusive spirit, and the angry feeling, which he evinces throughout, denote the monopolist as clearly as if he gave us his name; and the contents exhibit internal evidence of a demi-official character. It is a performance which, in felicity of mystification, would do no discredit to the most practised school of sophistry. Yet the writer occasionally betrays and contradicts himself. 'I acknowledge,' says the Licentiate, 'the power of the College.'—'I believe that if they persevere they will gain their action,' &c. Yet he advises them not to persevere. 'The College will better show their prudence in abstaining from, than in courting the publicity of, a trial at law.' What! after proceeding so far that it is less dangerous to go on than to retreat! Again: 'The charter of the College, though old-fashioned, has hitherto worked well.' For whom?—Not for the public, not for the medical profession, but for a few monopolists. 'Let the College think seriously,' says he, 'ere they bend the old bow to its full stretch of power.' He would have been more correct if he had said, 'Let them not touch the old bow, lest they find it to have lost all the virtues that were formerly attributed to it.' If it were possible to believe this writer to be a Licentiate, we must also believe him to be one who does no honour to his class; for he not only exults in the supposed legal existence of that power by which he is himself oppressed, degraded, and excluded, but professes that he is thoroughly contented with the lot of a slave, since, in the quality of an appendage to the monopoly, (literally, the *appendix vermiformis*.) he enjoys some advantages which, under a fair competition, he could not hope to procure over the independent physician. 'I am perfectly satisfied,' says he, in the language of traffic, 'with what I have got for my money, partly in increased respectability, partly in increased notoriety, but chiefly in the entrance it has afforded me to two charitable institutions.' The deceit is here much too gross. But it is the precise language with which Fellows would bait their hooks in order to catch licentiates. Whether they do or do not proceed in their threatened action against Dr. Harrison, this species of fishery is for ever at end. After this season the College will, assuredly, catch no more gudgeons.

We conclude, from internal evidence, that the article to which we refer is not, as it professes to be, the production of a licentiate, but a demi-official manifesto, issued by a Fellow, a legitimate monopolist, under a Licentiate's mask; and, in this view, it may be deserving of notice. His sentiments betray him in almost every line. The burden of his song is peace and harmony in the profession; and he assigns numerous reasons, some of them very curious, why the College should now defer legal proceedings. He sets out by giving an alarming description of the preparations already made for battle. 'The tocsin of war has been sounded. Dr. Harrison is currently reported to have received notice of action.' (We are not aware, and we do not believe, that Dr. Harrison has received any notice of action beyond what is contained in the preceding correspondence; but we do believe that the writer of the article before us well knows, whether he has, or has not.) 'My object, I again repeat, is peace and harmony in the profession.' So, if, by dint of monopolies, the public be despoiled, and the order of nature inverted, all this is to be atoned for by the preservation of harmony in the profession! Injure and destroy whom you please; but be sure you agree among yourselves as to the division of the spoil. Exquisite morality truly! 'Bickerings among professional men are always viewed with great disfavour by the public; and the provocation must be strong indeed, and the benefit to be gained clear and substantial, before the public mind will acknowledge the justice of checking a man in the exercise of his calling.' Aye! 'the public mind'—there's the rub. But it seems the College, without being aware of their good fortune, are surprisingly popular. 'The College ought to know, and I hope they do know, that their truest and noblest source of power is—not the charter of Henry VIII., but the charter of public opinion. They enjoy the good opinion of the public for many reasons,' &c. In various Journals of this month, the College will probably find proof of what degree of reliance they may safely place on each of these two sources of power. But, notwithstanding their high popularity, his earnest advice to them is—not to swerve from the path which has hitherto proved so fortunate for them, and so useful to the public,—not to allow themselves to be hurried away, by the bold bearing of one angry man, to an act that savours more of bravery than of caution.

'Their authority (that of the College) is acknowledged by all the respectable physicians of London.' So, those who acknowledge the authority of the College are respectable, and those who do not, are not respectable physicians! This is a definition of respectability equally novel and ingenious. 'The public attaches a high degree of importance to the title of "member," or "licentiate" of the College; and this alone would be a sufficient motive for very many.' If this be so, the editors of the London medical journals, who are Licentiates,

feel very differently from the rest of the public ; for, as if ashamed of it, they have discontinued the title on the covers of their respective works. They know, that by being *Licentiates*, they are not members of the incorporation. 'But, far more than all,' continues this demi-official writer, 'the qualification of a Licentiate is indispensable to all aspirants to the public hospitals and dispensaries of London. This it would still be, though the College were to lose their action to-morrow ; and I feel the most perfect confidence that, even in such an event, (which, however, I do not anticipate,) the same number of candidates for the College license would still annually appear before them.' This would, indeed, be a curious result. This writer puts a bold face upon the matter. His valour oozes out at his fingers' ends. But he occasionally relapses into dreadful apprehension. 'Supposing my advice is not taken,' says he, 'that Dr. Harrison's challenge is accepted, the action entered for trial in Westminster-hall, and the lawyers in their wigs are arranged "in terrible show ;" it will, I presume, be conceded to me, that the verdict will be either for plaintiff or defendant. If Dr. Harrison gains his action, either from a flaw in the indictment, (a very conceivable case), or on the merits, the consequences are serious,' &c. In token that his fears are predominant, he gives us a dissertation on what may be the probable consequences of a new charter. But let him make himself quite easy on all these matters, nor irritate himself with the thought that it can be of the smallest consequence whether his advice be followed or not. With respect to a new charter, before any can be granted, the constitutions of all the branches of the medical profession must undergo a thorough revision. And as to the course which the College may think fit to pursue, it will not make any difference in the ultimate fate of their monopoly. If they retreat, they are lost ; if they attempt to advance, they will not be able, even with the powerful assistance of the Attorney-General and Mr. Brougham, to procure a title by which they can sustain an action at law. Their conduct is, therefore, a matter of indifference as to the issue of the case, however it may affect themselves.

With respect to his gross strictures on the letter of Dr. Harrison to Dr. Chambers, they are so wholly unfounded, or rather so entirely contrary to the truth, that it would be to insult the understandings of those who have perused both, to make a single observation on the subject, further than to remark, that they are the effusions of some individual, angry and disappointed, no doubt, at seeing his dearly beloved monopoly, by the instrumentality of Dr. Harrison, about to be snatched from his grasp.

MELANCHOLY CHANGES IN THE STATE OF AFFAIRS AT SUMATRA.

Bencoolen, January 1827.

You will have heard of the sad business of the transfer of this place to the Dutch, and the ruin that it has brought upon every one who had property here ; and, indeed, upon those who had none. It is desolation in the extreme. While the English were here, the labouring classes were sure of employment, but that is now completely done away with, and the poor are left to starve. I have no mode of representation by which I can give you a clear idea of the change that has taken place. On the first blush of the business, we one and all flattered ourselves that it would not prove so destructive as we now see it is. At the first sale of the houses, the English made a few purchases, thinking that as they had cost thousands, they might be safely bought at the rate of hundreds, and concluding that for every Briton gone, there would be a Dutchman to replace him in time ; this hope, however, proved to be completely delusive, as not a single house, a plantation, or any other property, has been purchased by a Dutchman, excepting only a small quantity of furniture which was bought from the English Government-house by the Dutch Government for their Resident, and which served for him and the Governor of Padang also.

By the inclosed list of sales you will see how much Mr. Canning was mistaken when he made the observation, 'that it could make no difference to the people whether they were under the Dutch or English.' During the time the English were here, property of every kind bore nearly its intrinsic value ; sometimes above, sometimes a little below. Now, property of every kind is perfectly valueless, and the houses purchased, and still remaining on hand, are become a burthen to those who are under the necessity of keeping people to take care of them. The Dutch huddle themselves together like so many pigs, and the different houses that fell to them, as belonging to the former Government, answer every purpose, civil, military, and naval. The place that was called the Stores would hold ten times the number they have to put there. In the new Government-house, is the Resident and his train ; in the old Government-house, the Commandant and his officers ; so that they require no houses beyond those belonging to Government. This is sufficient to give you an idea of the difference between the two Governments.

This, however, constitutes a very small part of our grievances. On the Dutch first taking charge of this place, though little was said on the subject, we were led to expect that matters would be allowed to remain as they found them for the first few years. But

we soon found that this would not be the case: in the commencement we were told that there would be a trifling duty on spices. On this we memorialized the Government of Batavia, stating, that as we had been at a very heavy expense in bringing the plantations forward, and were now only beginning to reap the benefit of our unwearied exertions, we hoped they would take our case into consideration, as our former Government had done, and permit us, for the present, to go on as heretofore. They wrote us back for answer, that our request was inadmissible, and they laid on a duty that may (as managed by them) be called 20 per cent., that is, they have put on a duty of 10 dollars a picul: their other duties may also be considered as exorbitantly out of the way. Upon every bag of Bengal rice they exact a duty of a rupee; a quantity came to me, some time back, at the time rice was very dear, that is, six dollars a bag. I therefore begged the Government to suspend the duty till the price came down a little, but I was told that regulations had been sent from Batavia, with a long list of other duties, and, therefore, it must take effect at once. It did, and all that has been landed since has been obliged to pay the same heavy duties. This, with other numerous matters that bear hard on the planters, will make their losses severe, and do away all hope that this class will be able to stand their ground. At the same time, these arbitrary habits of their present masters render them the most galling of mortals; and, in fact, make it impossible for an Englishman to live under their yoke.

The whole of their arbitrary system of punishments is abominable to an Englishman's feelings, for, however deserving of death culprits might be, we still consider them entitled to a hearing, which is not always granted here, though no English Governor would, of course, venture to hang a man without a trial. Two men were recently apprehended here for a murder: the case of one was thought clear, and he was condemned to death; the guilt of the other, it appears, was not so evident, he was therefore sentenced to be flogged at the gallows; but this flogging was so severe that he sunk under it before they had finished. He was taken to the hospital and there died. The man that was hung remained hanging on the green, before the Government-house, the whole day; the body was then taken down, and left to hang three days more outside. Two others have been hung since this; the same process has been observed. All this may be very well among themselves, though I doubt whether the Dutch have any of these horrid practices in Europe. I always understood quite the contrary; however, there is not a doubt but they carry things further in their colonies, whether they are authorised by the Government at home or not. They have also a system of torture here, to make witnesses, they say, speak the truth; that is, I suppose, to make them speak whatever they wish them; for it has that effect. It has as yet, I hear, been tried only on women.

The mode is to tie the wrists as close and as tight together as they can be, then to force them over the knees, and in this position to pass along heavy sticks over the arms and under the hams, which very soon give excruciating torture, and then they leave the victims tied in this cruel position till they will tell what may be required. Their shrieks and screams are dreadful; but in this state they must remain. For a woman to undergo this process, you will observe, they must put on a pair of breeches, as without them they would remain exposed to the police-men, who have to see this process managed. How would you be able to reconcile these horrid practices to your feelings? Can it for a moment be thought extraordinary that the Natives in all their islands should prefer being under the English? Our Ministers at home have given these Dutch gentlemen credit for feelings they never will possess; they hoped that, for decency's sake, they would not venture to make any great changes till a few years were expired. That they have been wrong in their conjectures, their heavy duties, and other exactions, will make sufficiently clear; and that they will act in direct opposition to the strict terms of the treaty is equally evident.

The English Government left 300 or 400 African negroes here; they had been originally slaves of the East India Company, but were liberated by Sir Stamford Raffles. On the English rulers of the settlement going away, they made a representation of their hard case, stating that they should be left to starve unless the Government stretched forth a saving hand towards them. The matter was brought to the notice of the Bengal Government, and they offered a pension of six rupees a month each, to all those that wished to go round to Singapore, desiring their agent to procure a passage for them. When they came to inquire how many there were that wished to embrace the offer of Government, they found there were about 300; they, therefore, thought it advisable to write to the agent at Batavia to procure them a vessel for the purpose of taking the said negroes to Singapore, mentioning, at the same time, to the Resident the measures they were adopting. To make short, the vessel came, the ship *Mary* of 500 tons. The expense attending her coming was 20,000 rupees; that is, she was taken up for 17,000, and the expense to the Honourable Company for water-casks, and other little matters, for the accommodation of so many men, came to 3,000 rupees more. However, no sooner was this vessel anchored in the roads, than it was notified that none of the negroes would be allowed to leave the place. A remonstrance took place without effect; a boat was also dispatched to the Supreme Government at Batavia to state the circumstance, and to request that the individuals whom the ship *Mary* came to take, might be allowed permission to depart, as they were all free, and a pension granted them at Singapore by the English Government. The only answer the Dutch Govern-

ment deigned to give was, that they approved of the measures of their Resident at Bencoolen.

Now, can there be a greater violation of the treaty than this was? Yet though the East India Company has been obliged to pay the money, I am tempted to think that the whole will be allowed to die away without a comment, and the poor wretches, whom it was intended to secure from want, be forced to stay here and starve. The reason assigned for this extraordinary step was, that the Government did not choose to stand quietly by and see the place abandoned. This argument would have been equally good in preventing the sepoy and civilians from going; all that can be said is, that we are at such a distance, and so completely thrown from the protection of our native country, that let whatever atrocities may take place, no hope can be found of a helping hand being stretched out to save us. We are, therefore, obliged to abandon every thing, however valuable it may have been, and trust to the Government at home for our future support. How they may be disposed towards us I have no mode of ascertaining, as it is now just one complete year since I had a letter from my agent in London, who, I am led to think, is seeing what can be done.

An individual lately died here, and just before his death it was thought advisable that he should have his will drawn out; and as he was very desirous that his own countrymen should have the management of his affairs, in case of his death, he begged it might be so ordered. The Resident, and the other Dutch authorities, being present, all desirous to see every thing should be done as he wished, they pointed out the way the will should be worded, so as to prevent the Dutch Government, or their Orphan Chamber, from interfering in case of his death; and he was firmly assured that all was secure. The house he lived in he left, with every thing as it stood, to his house-keeper and his son by her, and we imagined things would be allowed to continue as they were, as they would have done under the late Government; but an order has been given that the household property and every thing should be sold, and what would not sell to be valued, that the transfer and other duties might be levied. One of the executors of the estate told me, he thinks, by the mode they are calculating, that they will contrive to screw from the estate at least 10,000 rupees. This will oblige them to sell, and so impoverished is the estate that there will be nothing remaining of any valuable property. This they say is done by the Orphan Chamber, to secure and assist the heirs. Now, I am of opinion, that they have no right to the transfer duty till the end of six years, but they contend they can take it in the first instance, and dispute the point hereafter; that is, they are determined to take all advantages, and leave their Government at home to defend their measures here; but, without further elu-

cidation, this will give you an idea how we are situated. At any rate, I shall feel obliged if you can ascertain from any of your political friends, whether they have a right to this transfer duty, or, indeed, to any other duty for the first six years, beyond what existed at the time of their taking charge. If you can make a question of these points in the 'Oriental Herald,' it may lead to some further investigation. At any rate, as I am still residing here, and must do so for some time, it will be of importance that my name do not appear, as it might bring about another Amboyna affair; for when these men have the power, they have very little care about the result of their actions.

I have just written to Sir Stamford Raffles, and given him, perhaps, a more enlarged statement, saying, at the same time, I was greatly surprised that the whole of the transaction of the treaty had not been brought forward by any of our political writers of the day. I also begged to know what would have been the case, had Ministers found it their interest (or the interest of the nation at large, for it must not be supposed for a moment they can be guided by any other principle) to exchange Jamaica for Java, or any other place; and that our Ministers, still consulting the good of the nation, had, without one moment's notice, thrown the inhabitants of Jamaica from the protection of the British Government, under the full and absolute rule of the Dutch;—why the case would have been, that all the pens in London would instantly have started from their stands, to inveigh against the iniquity of the measure, and would have demanded that Ministers should step forward with an offer of indemnity to the sufferers.

I plainly perceive that property here will no longer be of any value, as those places already sold would not now fetch one-tenth of their late purchase-money. In fact, a very valuable estate here would now fetch no more than one of the ancient palaces on the plains of Palmyra. The places are nearly equally desolate.

Statement of Houses and Plantations sold, with their original costs, and account of sales; stating, also, the former Owners, and the names of the Purchasers.

	Dollars.		Dollars.	Dollars.
Mr. Winter, the clergyman's house, cost 3500.—		Sold to Mr. Baskett for 520.—	Loss 2979. ¹²	
Mr. Gurling's house, 5500.—		Do. Ceusedjei 900.—		4600. ¹²
Mr. Winter's plantation at Bentering, 25,000.—		Do. Diang Mabila 525.—		24,475. ¹²
Mr. Waid's house at Mount Edgcomb, 3000.—		Do. Mr. Baskett 3323.—		2667. ¹²
Mr. Neish's plantation, 10,500.—		Do. Ceusedjei 188.—		10,312. ¹²
Do. 21,500.—		Do. Mr. Williams, 404. ²		21,100. ¹²
Mr. Osborn's plantation, 3000.—		Do. Ceusedjei 124.—		2876. ¹²
Miss Salmond's plantation, Arrow Grove, 5000.—		Do. Mr. Shepherdson, 1030.—		3970. ¹²
Mrs. J. He Gant's house, 3000.—		Do. Put up, and not bid for.		
An estate called Mount Pleasant, 5000.—		Do. Do.		
Fir Grove, 4500.—		Do. Do.		
Dr. Tyndal's house, 3000.—		Do. Do.		
Mr. Barnes's house, 3000.—		Do. Do.		

GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEYS.

WE noticed, some time ago, the failure of an attempt to proceed along the Brahmapootra in an easterly direction, and that it was proposed to repeat the undertaking at a more favourable opportunity. In the mean time, circumstances having occurred which were considered propitious to a northerly excursion along the Dihong, towards the country of the Bor Abors, this journey, we understand, has been accomplished by Lieuts. Wilcox, and Burlton. The result has not satisfactorily solved the great problem of the connexion of any of the rivers of Assam with the San-po, the advance to a sufficient distance having been impeded by the unwillingness or inability of the hill tribes to give necessary assistance; but we should think little doubt can remain of the identity of that river with the Dihong, unless the geography of the Lamas is wholly erroneous. The travellers ascended the Dihong to the village of Pashee, two days' journey beyond the point reached by Captain Bedford in his journey up the same river, of which we gave a summary in our paper of the 2d February 1826. The people of the villages along their route, offered no interruption to their progress, but expostulated with them on the toil and danger to which they exposed themselves, declined supplying them with guides; and with such information as they furnished, deceived and misdirected them. Under these circumstances, they found the natural difficulties of the route insuperable. The banks of the river rose perpendicularly from the water's edge, and were surmounted by steep hills covered with thick jungle, through which it was impossible to cut a path. Having proceeded, in a small canoe, a few miles up the river, beyond the point where a path along shore became impracticable, the travellers were stopped by a formidable rapid, which it would have been difficult to ascend, and dangerous to return by. On climbing up the rock, an unbroken reach of water was observed running for some distance in a westerly direction: according to Native information, it follows this course for twenty miles, and then runs as far north. The path to the Bor Abor country goes directly to the north, and, consequently, leaves the river at this point. The width of the stream is here reduced to one hundred yards, and the current is slow; but as no considerable branch had joined the Dihong, on the route, all the water poured by it into the Brahmapootra, in quantity more than double the contents of the latter, must be comprised in this channel. The source of the stream is said to be remote;—a tribe, called the Simongs, are in the immediate neighbourhood of the point reached, and it is supposed that the country of the Lamas is next to theirs.

The view from the Pashee village is described as most magnificent, comprehending the course of the Brahmapootra from the hills

as far as Seesee, its junction with the Dihong, the course of the Koondul and other streams, and lofty ranges of mountains, including the snowy mountains behind the Suddya Peak, and the snowy range to the south-east, at least one hundred and fifty miles remote.

By information received from the merchants of Bhot and Lhasa, the city of Lhasa lies to the south of a large river, which is not the case in the map of Du Halde, who places it thirty miles to the north, on the banks of the Kalyu. According to Stewart, however, (Annual Register 1788) Lhasa is on the banks of the San-po. This position is not wholly incompatible with Burnet's account, although not derivable from it. He says, he saw from the rock of Teshoo Lomboo, the Erechomboo, or Brahmapootra, washing its northern base, running to the east, in a wide bed and many channels. From his own apartment looking south, he had the road to Lhasa on his left, or to the west; and it is possible, therefore, that the river may cross the road, and thus run south of Lhasa. We wish, however, we had some latitudes and longitudes on which we could depend. We should then be better able to judge how far the Dihong is likely to be connected with the San-po, or how far Du Halde's map is reconcilable with other standards. We may presume the following verifications are allowable with Turner:

Shigatzee	29°. 6'. N.	89°. 2'. E.	Jikse	29°. 10'. N.	89°. E.
Painom.	28. 58.	89. 17.	Painam	28. 50.	
Jhansu.	28. 48.	89. 32.	Chiane	28. 40.	

The latitudes and longitudes, therefore, are much the same, and encourage us to put some trust in the latter, which are Du Halde's or D'Anville's.

The San-po is lost in the latter, in lat. 26° 20', N., and long. 118° 20' E. from Ferro—or 95° 30'. Hamilton says about 96°, but his map and Rennel's give 95° 20'. The Omchu disappears in 27° N., and long. 93° 50'; but, as we observed on a former occasion, the oblique direction it follows to the S. E. renders it probable that it joins the San-po. Now, we understand that the former survey of the Dihong terminated in lat. 28° 2', and long. 95° 22', and the present being extended two days further in a westerly direction chiefly, may have ascended to about 28° 6', and long. 95° 3'. In either case, however, we must be very close upon the San-po, if not actually in it; and the latter must be the case, if Du Halde's positions are not much further wrong than in the example we have given from Turner. The course of the Omchu and San-po, from the west and north, respectively, will explain the accounts given by the Natives of the western and northern reaches of the Dihong.—*Bengal Hurkaru.*

PROGRESS OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL IN HIS TOUR THROUGH THE
INTERIOR OF INDIA.

To the Editor of the *Oriental Herald*.

SIR,

Upper Provinces of India.

I HAVE no doubt but curiosity is on the stretch to know the movements of the Governor-General of India, and the public grounds of the expense (somewhere about a lac of rupees per mensem) of his trip to the Upper Provinces. The former I can gratify, but the latter have not as yet transpired: though it is but natural to suppose some good to the state is contemplated.

On the 6th of November 1826, his Lordship and suite left Allahabad, escorted by the body-guard and 2d extra regiment of Native infantry. His Lordship leaves his tents at day-break, and the infantry follow him, coming to their ground at 10 and 11 A. M. Fortunately the weather is pretty cool, or it would be hot work for the old *Qui Hi's*. On the 16th the Governor-General reached Cawnpore, where rather a ludicrous circumstance occurred. At the durbar held by his Lordship, at which Lady Amherst, the ladies of the suite, and some others were present, the Punnah Rajah mistook them for the ladies of his Lordship's seraglio, and asked *which was the favourite?* However, he afterwards made amends, for, on being informed that her Ladyship was the chosen favourite, he presented her with a handful of diamonds. This, you will say, was getting out of the difficulty with *eclat*.

The King of Oude came over to Cawnpore to pay his Lordship a visit, and was received with all the state that could be mustered; all the troops being drawn out to receive him. Unfortunately it was a rainy day, and they got a complete soaking. In this state they had to remain from seven in the morning until past ten, without breakfast. I fancy it did not occur to his Lordship or suite that a tent might have been pitched to give the officers refreshment. Not being a military man, like the Marquis of Hastings, his unfortunate escort, to use a vulgar expression, 'get more kicks than halfpence.' However, they expected to have come in for a share of the good things at Lucknow, but again the unfortunate circumstance of Lord Amherst not being a military man operated against them; and with the exception of the commanding officer of the 2d extra and his lady, they were left out of the breakfast party, which his Majesty gave on the morning of his Lordship's arrival, and by this means were deprived of the good things distributed, and allowed to be retained on that occasion. To make up for this, they were invited to the dinner given by his Majesty, and each received a gold and silver necklace of Gotah, value one rupee! which they were liberally allowed to keep. You may perhaps remember when the Marquis of Hastings went to

Lucknow, and the difference of the state of things upon that occasion; but, *tempora mutantur*, with regard to the small fry. Not so with the higher powers, however, if we may judge by what we saw; what we did not see, of course we cannot know. We are now, thank God, once more on the move, and shall be happy enough when we turn our backs upon his Lordship's procession. The soldiers of his Lordship's escort, both officers and men, have lengthened in the face since leaving Lucknow, for they rationally expected to have been treated by his Majesty in the same manner as when they formed part of the Marquis of Hastings's escort.

I have not given you an account of the fights between elephants, tigers, buffaloes, &c., for they were total failures, not even calculated to gratify the curiosity of second childhood. I fear this unfortunate trip will lower us sadly in the estimation of the Natives; but Mr. Canning must answer for the gambols of his 'lamb.'

The good folks in England will hardly believe it, yet it is nevertheless true, that so little is the *military* character upheld by the present state-procession through our Eastern dominions, that the Governor-General's band have to tramp on foot, or find their way how they can on the march; whilst the menial servants of his Lordship's household are furnished with elephants to carry them.

SPECTATOR.

Since writing this letter, I have learned that Lady Amherst has held a durbar for the presentation of Native ladies. I could not have believed it, had it not been from good authority; but what will not cupidity hazard? It is said that she fainted under the weight of presents; of course there could have been no Mr. Stirling present to have taken an account of them; therefore they were all fair gain;—*loot*, I was going to say, but I hate to coincide with general opinion. I should like to know who presented the Native ladies, and how many left-handed wives were presented, and who was *interpreters* on the occasion. I shall endeavour to find out some of these particulars. Shame seems to have taken leave of persons in high situations.

PUBLIC ASSEMBLAGE AT BENARES.

We are much obliged to the correspondent who has favoured us with the following account of a public assemblage at Benares, of the character of those respecting which we lately intimated our wish to be favoured with communications. The *mela* here described, we remember to have witnessed with much gratification. A more picturesque concourse than that which is beheld on this occasion, cannot well be conceived: when the river is covered with boats, and the ghats crowded with spectators, and the fantastic architecture of the temples and buildings animated by moving groups, and the most brilliant variety of colour and costume.

Doorga Mungul.—On the first Tuesday after the Holey, the worship of Doorga is prescribed in the Kashee Khund; partly in consequence of which, and partly from the desire to protract every holiday amusement as much as possible, a large mela assembles on this day, in the neighbourhood of Doorga Koond; although there is no bathing in the Tulao, the attendance is generally greater than on the real festival of Doorga in Asin. The garden walls, from Bheloopoor to the tank, constructed with balcony terraces of stone, are seen covered with well-dressed spectators, while those who can sport a swaree prefer moving in the crowd, on richly caparisoned horses and elephants. There is no regular procession, but parties of strolling actors, dressed up as Jogees, with earth rubbed over their faces, and bunches of peacock's feathers in their hands, disguised as Nach women, as Chumarins, Sootrasuhees, and Musulman fuqeers, ply to and fro, dancing and singing; sometimes different groups oppose one another in the recitation of verses, and the public acclamation awards the victory. The poor are naturally prone to laud the blessings of wealth; no wonder, therefore, that such ballads, as the following of Nuzeer, are popular among an Indian crowd:

'Kouree nu the—to khate the basee pukoureean,
Kouree hooc—to chhoonne lugee lunhee choureean;
Kouree nu the—to sote the khal ec zumcen pur,
Kouree hooc—to sone luge—shah nusheen pur:
Kouree ka sub juhan men—yih nuqsh o nugeen hy—
Kouree nuheen—to kouree ke phir teen teen hy!

'Without a penny—be content to scrape up dirty crumbs,
With a penny—pick and choose, for every dainty comes,
Without a penny—on the ground lay down your restless head,
With a penny—like a king, loll on a feather bed.
Oh! pennies are 'mong worldly things the most esteemed of any,
And the pennyless poor wretch is valued—less than half a penny!

When the evening approaches, the crowd adjourns to the banks of the river, which now begins to afford one of the prettiest spectacles of which the fêtes of Kashee can boast. The whole river is covered with boats of all descriptions, fitted out with platforms and canopies, and lighted with variegated lamps, torches, and blue lights. The rich merchants, and such as can afford it, hire parties of Nach girls, or male buffoons, and dancing boys.

Those who cannot pay for a Nach, gather their boats around one upon which it is going forward, and subscribe their mite, when the dancer or singer turns towards them. At about nine o'clock, the Rajah's large pinnace floats down from Rambagur, and takes its place off the middle of the town; the Rajah himself, however, generally prefers rowing about incognito, in his sonamookhee, smoking his hookah, and listening to some favourite warbler in the service

of a more fortunate master. Year after year did he thus follow, with longing eyes, the celebrated Hingun, whose history is rather romantic, but cannot well be told here.

The most conspicuous object, or that which most strikes an European spectator, is the Rajah's state bed, with its mosquito curtains, exalted on the roof of his pinnace. I do not believe he ever uses it, for the show lasts, without intermission, until noon of the day following; of course, there are pastry-cook, or putwagee boats, in abundance, where 'all hot, all hot,' is the order of the night.

The only account which I can obtain of the origin of this water fête is, that when Meer Roostum Ulee held the Soubah of Benares, he lived on the banks of the river, (on the Meer Pooshta, built by himself,) and the Rajah Bulwunt Singh took to celebrating the Holey on the river, perhaps out of compliment, that he might enjoy the view from his window; but the name of the day augurs greater antiquity of institution. There is nothing religious connected with its observance.—*Government Gazette*.

THE ESCAPED CAPTIVES.

AWAY, away! swift as the wind,
When rushing in the tempest's wrath;
Away, away! the foe's behind,
Our base oppressor's on our path;—
The blood-hound fierce, the Arab steed,
Pursue not with the tyrant's speed.

Right on, right on! now o'er this rock,
What though the torrent foam below,
And shake, as with an earthquake shock,
The tottering masses in its flow;
There gapes not such destruction there,
As in the treach'rous foeman's snare.

Yet onward! onward through yon shade,
Though dark as death's own vale it be,
And thousand perils, there array'd,
Gleam like night's lightnings fearfully,
The wild boar's tusk, the trodden asp,
Fear not like his relentless grasp.

Yet forward, forward! ocean's roar
Is heard loud mingling with the blast:
Seize yon frail bark upon its shore,
The bark of hope, but oh! our last;
But 'tis not now from death we flee—
No, no! it is from SLAVERY.

DIFFERENT MODES OF PUNISHING SIMILAR OFFENCES IN INDIA.

In the 'Bombay Courier' of the 3d of March last, (which has recently reached us among other Journals from India,) we observe copious extracts from Captain Grant Duff's History of the Mahrattas. One passage of this History describes the conduct of a Brahmin, named Babajee Punt Gokla, who is said to have superintended the hanging of two English officers named Vaughan, taken when the Mahrattas and the English were in open hostilities, though without resistance on the part of the officers named. To this narrative the following note is appended, and repeated in the 'Bombay Courier,' namely:

'This person (Gokla) is now a prisoner in a wooden cage, in the fort of Singhur. Bajee Row (his sovereign) disavowed the murder of the Vaughans; but acknowledged that the Residency (the dwelling of Mr. Elphinstone, the present Governor of Bombay, while resident at Poonah) was destroyed by his orders.'

The transaction adverted to occurred in 1818, now seven years ago; and by the last advices from Bombay we learn, that the confinement of the Brahmin was still continued. The 'Government Gazette' of that Presidency (for the 'Courier,' be it understood, is the official paper of the Government of Bombay) thus recording, without the least sense of shame, an act of such barbarous inhumanity as that of keeping a human being in a wooden-cage, like a wild beast, for seven years, with the prospect of his lingering out his life in this brutal prison!

This act of confinement, and, it is to be presumed, the barbarous mode of effecting it, was the work of Mr. Elphinstone, the present Governor of Bombay, when Commissioner in the Deccan at the period referred to. The victim of this tiger-like caging was an officer high in the service of the Peishwa or Sovereign of the Mahrattas; and the allegation upon which he was sentenced to this ignominious punishment was, that he had ordered the execution of two English officers named above, who were captured while marching from Madras to Bombay, and passing through the territory of the Mahrattas, with whom the English were then at war. It is admitted that these officers were put to death, being taken in the enemy's territories, and during actual warfare; but it is confidently stated, by persons intimately acquainted with the history of those times, that no regular inquiry into their alleged mode of execution took place, and that no proof whatever was obtained of the Brahmin, now confined in a wooden-cage for life, having ordered their lives to be taken away.

This wretched being was still in his cage in 1824, being then seen by a person who visited the Deccan, where the general ques-

tion to strangers was, whether they had been to see the man, or the monster, in the wooden cage. To what place the poor creature has been since removed, is not known. But it is believed that he is still kept in his wooden cage, in some part of the interior, nothing having publicly transpired either as to his death or his release. It is said, indeed, that since the knowledge of Mr. Hume's motion in the House of Commons, for a return of all the persons confined by the Indian Government, he had not been talked of as before.

It is impossible not to contrast this circumstance with another act, described in the same history of the Mahrattas, by Captain Grant Duff, where the same conduct, on the part of an English officer towards an Indian prisoner, as that imputed to the Mahratta officer towards his English prisoners, met with a very different interpretation, and a very different issue. The English general, Sir Thomas Hislop, hanged up, without trial or process, the commander of an Indian fort, after he had surrendered; and though this was proved, admitted, and justified, on the ground of previous treachery, the English general was not merely acquitted, but received the thanks of both Houses of the British Parliament.* The Mahratta general, Babajee Punt Gokla, is alleged to have hung two English officers taken in time of war, but after they had surrendered: and without admission or proof of the allegation being true, without public investigation, inquiry, or evidence, without the usual forms of trial and defence, he is condemned, like a wild beast of prey, to linger out his existence in a wooden cage, and to be the scoff and scorn of every wanton gazer who may choose to make him the sport of an idle hour! But we shall give the history of this transaction of Sir Thomas Hislop, in Captain Grant Duff's own words, premising that it is one English officer in the India Company's service speaking of another English officer, greatly his superior, in the same service, and therefore saying nothing more unfavourable than the strict truth of history requires. The poor Brahmin has had none but *enemies* to tell his story; or we should have probably a different version of it. But, admitting it to be true as alleged, that having captured two English officers in an enemy's territory, and in time of war, (possibly suspecting them of treachery, as spies, surveyors, or conveyors of intelligence to the enemy,) the Brahmin had ordered them to be hung, and thus sacri-

* The Parliamentary Debates of this day (see 'Hansard,' vol. xxxix. p. 894, March 4, 1819,) state, that these thanks were voted *non con.* But we know of one honest friend of the Natives of India, who, in the House of Commons, gave his solitary vote against including Sir Thomas Hislop in this vote of thanks, on the ground of his hanging the Indian commander after his surrender, as above referred to. Would that his respect for the rights of humanity—whether towards black or white men—believers or infidels—were more generally felt and acted on!

‘ficed two English lives, (though it is contended that no proof of this allegation has ever been adduced,) let it be contrasted with the following conduct of Sir Thomas Hislop, conveyed in the history of the Mahrattas, in Captain Grant Duff’s own words :

Sir Thomas Hislop, as commander-in-chief at Madras, proceeded to Fort St. George ; but on his way to the southward, he took possession of those places in his immediate route, which were ceded to the British Government by Holkar. The Killedar of Talner, from a pertinacity common to governors of forts in India, resisted the order of surrender (is not this a virtue ?), and although warned from the first that he should be treated as a rebel if he refused to obey the orders of his government, he continued to fire on the British troops. A storming party was therefore sent to force the entrance of the fort, which is by five successive gates : of these, the first and second were passed without difficulty ; and at the third, the Killedar came out and surrendered himself. He also returned with the party through the third and fourth gates, which were opened : but at the fifth gate, there was some demur made by the Arabs (not by the Killedar, or by any of his Indian adherents), when told they must surrender at discretion ; the wicket, however, was at last opened, and a few officers and men entered, when the Arabs, from some misapprehension, rushed upon them, cut most of them down, and amongst the number killed Major Gordon and Captain McGregor. Their companions behind hearing of what had been perpetrated, with the exasperated feelings of British troops, where they suspect treachery, rushed in as fast as they could gain admittance, and of a garrison of about three hundred men, one only, by leaping the wall, escaped with life ! Sir Thomas Hislop, under the same impulse by which the troops were actuated, ordered the Killedar to be hanged, as the cause of all the bloodshed : without reflecting on the probability of his not being even in the first instance wholly to blame for this lamentable catastrophe, and that his subsequent conduct entitled him to clemency !

A word of comment upon this is unnecessary. The Killedar was as barbarously hanged, according to this our own history, under the superintendence of Sir Thomas Hislop, as the Vaughans, under that of the poor being, who is, or at least was for several years, wasting away his life in a wooden cage !

Another more recent case occurred not long since, of a Lieutenant Fenewick, of the Bombay Army, being guilty of the murder of a Bheel Chief, at a place called Looner Warra, on the 23d of January, 1823, by causing him to be hanged by the neck, till he died, twelve hours after his capture and surrender, and for the sake of making a ‘tunashau,’ a ‘merry-making,’ or ‘sight.’ He was proved by a jury of his countrymen, after a fair and patient trial, to have been

guilty of the deed in question ;* but, instead of being punished by confinement for life, in a wooden cage, he was discharged from custody, on some technical quibble, and not even removed from the service, or curtailed in any manner, as far as we are aware, of any privilege or enjoyment heretofore held by him ; but let loose to hang other chiefs after surrender, or perform any other act of injustice to which this escape might encourage him.

Such is the difference between the fact of an Englishman hanging an Indian, or an Indian hanging an Englishman, after surrender, in India. Who, after this, will dare to say, that, in the eye of the British law, all ranks and classes of men are equal ?

SUMMARY OF THE LATEST INTELLIGENCE CONNECTED WITH THE EASTERN WORLD.

SINCE our last, we have received papers from Bengal extending to the middle of April ; from Madras to the end of the same month ; and from Bombay to the beginning of May. These contain many articles of local interest, but afford very insufficient data for any general summary of the state of public affairs. We select, however, such portions of their contents as appear to us most likely to interest our English readers, in addition to the articles already interspersed among those intended for our Indian readers in the early part of the present number. It is the constant aim and object of this work to furnish information which shall be at once useful and acceptable to both of these classes, but the due apportionment of the space to be given to each, is a matter of more difficulty than would perhaps be conceived. The growing interest felt by the English community respecting India is such, however, as to induce us to encourage this feeling by making our pages more and more the means of laying before them the discussions of the Press in India itself, (which, without such re-publication in some European Periodical, have no chance of being read here,) whenever they relate not merely to personal or strictly local questions, but involve points of general interest connected with the commercial or political relations of the two countries, and involving in their issue the welfare of either or both. Keeping this principle in view, (without, however, excluding occasional reference to lighter matters when sufficiently attractive,) we proceed to the selections named, beginning, however, with the private correspondence to which we have access.

BENGAL.

THE private intelligence from Bengal is various, and of considerable interest. We have had an opportunity of seeing a number of letters from thence, addressed to different individuals, and from them,

* See the report of the trial at full length in the ‘Oriental Herald,’ of January, 1825, vol. iv. p. 116, and p. 275.
Oriental Herald, Vol. 15.

Summary of the latest Intelligence

observed on his arrival. The camp of the Governor-General halted at Dourala, on the road to Saharunpur.

The Governor-General arrived at Delhi on the 15th, and had an interview with the King on the 17th of February. The King met his Lordship in front of the throne, and after embracing him, led him to a chair of state. His Majesty conversed with much cheerfulness and affability. On the Governor-General taking leave, his Majesty also arose, and taking him by the arm conducted him to the ante-chamber. His Majesty was to return his Lordship's visit on the Friday or Saturday following. We understand a vast number of persons of consideration had assembled at Delhi, whose presentation would, in all probability, detain his Lordship there, till the first of this month, when the journey to the hills would commence.

Advices from the Governor-General's camp, to the 2d of March, give us the following particulars of his Lordship's visit to Delhi. His Lordship was met at Muttra, on the 31st of January, by the Prince Mirza Selim, bearing a complimentary message and invitation from his Majesty the King of Delhi, and on the following day Lord Amherst returned the visit of his Royal Highness. The camp halted a day at Firuzapore, in the Mewattee country, where his Lordship was entertained at dinner by Nawab Ahmed Buksh Khan, the Jageerdar of the surrounding territory.

On the 15th February, the Governor-General reached Delhi, and was met at the Lahore gate of the city by the King's eldest and third sons, Mirza Aboo Zoffar, and Mirza Babar, who conducted his Lordship to the Residency.

The morning of the 17th having been fixed for the Governor-General's visit to his Majesty Akber Shah, his Lordship proceeded in state to the palace at eight o'clock, accompanied by the Resident, the whole of the staff and suite, and a numerous party of English officers, civil and military. The whole of the troops of the garrison were drawn out in the front of the principal gate of the palace, under the command of Lieut.-Colonel Wilson.

When the Suwarree reached the inner gate, called Nuqqar Khaneh, the several gentlemen in attendance alighted from their elephants, according to custom, and proceeded on foot, whilst the Governor-General was carried in his tonjohn (chair) to the steps of the Dewan Khass. The King came into the hall of audience from the apartment called the Tusbeeh Khaneh, at the same moment that the Governor-General entered on the opposite side, and meeting his Lordship in front of the throne, embraced and welcomed him in the most cordial manner. His Majesty then ascended the Tukht-i-Taooos or Peacock throne, and the Governor-General took his seat in a state chair below it, on the right; the Resident and other officers present, as well as the chief personages of the Court, all standing. No nuzzers were presented. After a short conversation, consisting entirely of expres-

connected with the Eastern World.

sions of a complimentary and congratulatory nature, the King took a handsome string of pearls and emeralds from his neck and placed it around that of Lord Amherst, his Lordship rising to receive the Royal gift. Utter was then given by the King, and his Majesty, descending from the throne, took the Governor-General by the arm, and led him to the door of the Tusbeeh Khaneh, where his Lordship took leave. Salutes of nineteen guns were fired from his Majesty's park of artillery, both upon the entry and departure of the Governor-General.

On the 22d, the gentlemen of his Lordship's staff and suite, twenty in number, were introduced to the King by the Resident, each presented the usual Nuzzer and received a Khelaut.

On the morning of the 24th, the King proceeded to the Residency to return the visit of the Governor-General, when his Majesty was received with every demonstration of respect and honour. His Lordship, attended by his suite, went out half the distance to meet the King. On his Majesty's arrival, he took his seat on the Peacock Throne, which had been previously placed in the principal room of the Residency for the purpose, and the Governor-General, as before sat on a state chair to the right, every other person present standing. At the proper time presents were brought for his Majesty, consisting of one hundred and one trays of jewels, shawls, and cloths of various kinds, two elephants richly caparisoned, and six horses with costly trappings. The Governor-General then rose and presented the utter-dan to his Majesty, after which his Majesty signified his intention of taking leave, and was conducted by Lord Amherst to the royal litter in the veranda.

On the 26th, his Lordship was visited by the Heir Apparent, Mirza Aboo Suffur, and eight of the King's sons. His Royal Highness was conducted to the Residency by Sir C. Metcalfe, and met at the head of the steps by the Governor-General. The Prince sat in a state chair on his Lordship's right, and the sons of his Majesty were seated below his Royal Highness according to their ages. Presents, consisting of fifty-one trays, one elephant, and three horses, were given to the Heir Apparent, and twenty-one, fifteen, and thirteen trays, with horses, to each of the junior Princes. The following day the Governor-General returned the Heir Apparent's visit at the Koodsia Bagh, and was received with the same honours and ceremonial observances as had been shown to his Royal Highness. The Gentlemen in attendance were all seated in the presence of the Princes on both occasions.

During the Governor-General's stay at Delhi, his Lordship held ~~darbars for~~ the reception of the Nuwab Meer Khan, the Rajah of Kishenghari. Missions from Jyepore, Boondee, Kotah, Kerowlee, and numerous Chieftains and Jageerdars of the neighbouring country, who had assembled there to pay their respects, and the principal personages of the palace and inhabitants of the city, were also pre-

effectually, and will doubtless have a struggle to get free from Mahratta domination, which they particularly abhor.

'Runjeet Singh of Lahore is in very bad health, and not expected to survive more than a year or two at most. His death will be the signal for many a dispute. His conquests, also, are very modern, and of prodigious extent; and he has very recently raised and disciplined a compact, though not, as yet, a large body of regulars, under some very clever French and Italian refugees, and more such are on their way to him from Europe.

'What a figure poor Lord Amherst has made of himself in his silly tour! Nothing could be more absurd and unwise, in every point of view, than his childish curiosity leading him to Delhi, to raise knotty points of ceremony with the King, which had better have been left unsettled. A fine expense his idle trip must be altogether, and a cruel useless harassment to the impoverished ryots every where, in convoys, supplies, plunderings, and derangement of public provincial business in every department!'

BOMBAY.

The private intelligence from Bombay continues to be interesting, and sufficiently exposes the causes of the great hostility there felt, and expressed, towards the 'Oriental Herald' and all its readers and contributors. We could expect nothing else than the hatred and denunciation of those who find in its pages such faithful accounts of their misdeeds; and we take the expression of their anger only as proof of the effective nature of our reproof. When they praise us, indeed, we may well begin to be apprehensive that all is not right on our part. Till then, we shall indulge the belief that our strictures are not wholly useless.

The 'Bombay Courier,' which is the official Paper of that Government, and so avowed by its being made the channel of all official orders to the East India Company's Civil and Military Servants, continues to be edited by a Mr. Macadam, one of those servants, a surgeon in the Bombay Army, in defiance of the order or regulation of the Directors, sent out to India two years ago, prohibiting, on pain of dismissal, any of their servants from being connected, as the editors or proprietors, with any political or periodical publication whatever. Such is the contempt with which laws made here are treated by the Governors in India, when they do not square with the notions of those who are in power on the spot. It is pretended, at Bombay, that because the 'Bombay Courier' is not the actual property of the Government, it is therefore perfectly independent of it. But neither is the 'Government Gazette' of Calcutta, the property of the Government. It belongs to the Military Asylum, or Orphan School; and the 'London Gazette' and 'Court Circular' of England belong also to private individuals. But the fact of the respective Governments making these papers the official channel of

all their orders, and announcing, at the heads of each, that notifications appearing in them are to be taken as sufficient proof of their being published by order of the Governments in question, is quite sufficient proof of their entire dependance on the Governments of which they are the official organs. Besides which, in the case of the 'Bombay Courier,' it is almost wholly the property of members and functionaries of the Bombay Government, who also, in retaining their shares in it, act in defiance of the positive orders of the Directors, and is edited by one of their servants. The notion of independence therefore under such circumstances, is too absurd to be entertained for a moment.

As a specimen of the talent as well as the spirit of this pretended independent Paper, we select the following doggerel from the number for the 17th of February last, in reference to the Governor of Bombay, the Honourable Mr. Elphinstone, on whose breakfast-table, of course, this grateful incense was laid, though we have much too high an opinion of his talents and understanding, to say nothing of his good taste, not to be disgusted with such contemptible poetry and such wretched adulation:

'Our worthy Governor (long life to him) was there,
'And seemed in every body's delight for to share;
'And though from us all he's about to sever,
'We ne'er shall forget him—Oh! never, no! never.'

Mr. Elphinstone is a man of too much penetration and experience not to know that Sir John Malcolm, or any other successor, would not be a month in power, before he, or any other ex-Governor, could be forgotten; and the homage now shown to him, be paid to whoever should have the good places and high salaries to dispense. It is the office and its patronage that is worshipped, like the gods of the Africans, for their power of giving favours in return; not the individual. Poor Lord Hastings was a recent and a melancholy instance of that profligacy and ingratitude which is so common to all worshippers of power in every part of the globe, but in the East above all other quarters.

We have seen a late letter from Bombay, descriptive of the sort of deception practised there to deceive the authorities in this country (for there it can deceive none); and knowing that both at Calcutta and Madras similar delusions have been attempted, we can readily believe in the accuracy of the statement respecting Bombay. The truth is, that where there is no free press, or, in other words, where no pen or tongue dare censure public men and public measures but at their peril, addresses, and other modes of praise, are worthless, because there is no proof whatever of their conveying the real sentiments even of those who sign them. The following are a few only of the paragraphs of the letter referred.

'You have seen, no doubt, in the 'Courier,' the account of the

meeting of the Native School Book Society, and the grossly adulatory speeches of the Natives of Bombay to the 'beloved head' of our society (as Mr. Elphinstone is called). Do you really suppose these are the speeches of those Natives? Look at the language. They are, in fact, composed and written out by some of the Committee, of which Committee, Dr. Macadam, (the Editor of the 'Courier,') who inserts them in his paper, is one. They are then handed to these Native speakers, who read them with great difficulty, sometimes, indeed, they cannot read them at all, and who do not understand a word of them, but are much astonished and pleased at the applause which follows their effusions.

'At the meeting of 1825, a Parsee of some eminence could not read two words of his own speech; and after a long and vain attempt, was obliged to hand it to his son, who was a better English scholar than himself, to read for him. At the same meeting, a Hindoo Native could not read ten words of his own speech, and was literally obliged to sit down after many absurd attempts, which nearly convulsed the meeting with laughter.

'Our Governor has all at once become affable to the Natives, and aims at popularity with them. Till lately he never thought about them; his chief object has been popularity with those who had a voice, in England, and particularly with those who had a voice in Leadenhall-street, and he gained that popularity by a very simple expedient, namely, by letting the Civil servants do as they pleased, and increasing their salaries. But this license of the Civil Servants was, of course, oppression to the Natives. Among the Civil Servants those who fawned the most were sure to get the choicest things. Adulation was the price paid for every thing, and this could not be too gross; he is now, however, become affable to the Natives. The Government-house was full of them on the last new year's day. Shall I tell you the reason of this change? Mr. Elphinstone is turning every stone to get an address from the Natives upon his leaving the Government. He will of course succeed. It will be drawn up by one of his Civil friends, and not one of the Natives who may be asked will dare to refuse his signature.'

We can the more readily believe all this to be strictly true, from the following simple fact. The greatest pains have been taken at all the Presidencies, but especially at Madras and Bombay, to create an impression on the minds of people here, that the Natives of India were not merely regardless of the favour shown to them by the British Parliament, in admitting them (by Mr. Wyndham's Bill) to sit on petit Juries in that country, but that they were dissatisfied with it, as imposing duties on them which were degrading, troublesome, and without either honour or profit. At Madras, the imposition was exposed, by its being shown that the very reverse of this representation was the case. And at Bombay, so far are the

Natives from being displeased, that they have actually drawn up and signed* very numerous, (not prompted by their Governors, but in defiance of their known wishes), a petition to the British Parliament, in which they thank the Legislature for the benefit thus conferred, and evince their high sense of its value, by praying that it may still further be extended so as to enable them to sit on Grand Juries also! This petition will, no doubt, be sent home and presented during the next session. It is thus that facts continually refute the interested assertions of those in India, who are not contradicted there, for the plainest of all reasons, that the press is either in the hands, or entirely under the control, of the governing body; and that no man dare say any thing which they prohibit, but at the peril of all his fortune. Who can ever expect to hear the real state of any case under such restraints as these?

Our readers will remember the legal decisions recently given in favour of Native merchants, who had brought their actions into the Supreme Court of Bombay against the Government of that Presidency, and obtained verdicts. The following extracts of late letters from that quarter, shows how this operated, and what means were resorted to to prevent this demand for justice becoming too general.

'The Rajah of Colapore had talked a few months since of commencing proceedings in the Supreme Court against the East India Company for a large sum of money due to him. All at once a force (including, among the rest, artillery) were under orders to march to his frontier! or, rather, to be in readiness to embark for his territory. The rumour of his intended action against the Company dropped!—The silence of death supervened!—The force was accordingly countermanded.'

'Many actions, like that of Amerchund's against the East India Company, were threatened; but the same silence has followed. No one dares even to mention the subject; and unless the injured party happens to live within the protection of the British laws, it is absolute madness to proceed against any of the Indian Governments for redress.'

PROGRESS OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL IN HIS TOUR THROUGH THE INTERIOR OF INDIA.

THE Right Honourable the Governor-General and suite arrived at Meerut on the morning of the 5th of March. His Lordship, escorted by the body-guard, and attended by the ladies and gentlemen of his suite, was met on the high road from Delhi, by Major-General Reynell, commanding the division, the officers of his staff, and a squadron of his Majesty's 16th Lancers. At about half-past seven, this brilliant procession entered the street of troops, which, in honour of the occasion, had been formed on the road, leading from the mansion of her Highness, the Begum Sumroo, to that of Mr. Glynn, the collector, which had been appropriated for his Lordship's resi-

dence. The Governor-General alighted under the usual honorary salutes. At eleven o'clock of the same day, Lord Amherst held a levee, which was attended by the civil and military officers of Meerut, and many gentlemen from other stations. In the evening, Lady Amherst held a drawing-room, at which the ladies of the station were presented to her Ladyship.

On the morning of the 6th, the Governor-General, escorted by the body-guard, proceeded to the grand parade, when his Lordship was received by Major-General Reynell, and the whole of the troops under arms. After a beautiful display of military manoeuvres, the troops passed before his Lordship in review order, the colours flying and the band playing. Lady Amherst, Miss Amherst, the ladies of the suite and of the station, honoured the review with their presence. In the division orders of the day, entire satisfaction of the Governor-General was notified by the Major-General commanding. In the evening of the same day, Lord and Lady Amherst were entertained at a dinner, ball, and supper, by the civil and military officers of the station. His Lordship and family arrived at a quarter before seven, under a salute of nineteen guns, at the compound of the horse artillery mess-room, which was adorned with brilliant illuminations. As soon as dinner was announced, and the company began to move into the dining tents, the band playing God save the King, we observed an interesting groupe of little flower-girls, strewing roses and jessamine before our noble visitors, as they passed up the spacious area of the tent to the dinner-table, which was splendidly covered with plate, contributed by individuals for the occasion. Upwards of two hundred persons sat down to dinner, and our noble guests were pleased to express themselves highly gratified with the tasteful arrangement of the banquet. After dinner, and the usual toasts, the healths of Lord and Lady Amherst were proposed, in an appropriate speech, by Major-General Reynell; a salute of nineteen guns from the artillery lines responded to this compliment, and his Lordship, with much feeling, expressed, in the name of himself and Lady Amherst, their high sense of the marked attention and cordial hospitality which had distinguished their reception by the residents of Meerut. The company then repaired to the ball-room, which was handsomely fitted up with ornamental trophies and decorations. After a sumptuous supper, dancing re-commenced. Our noble visitors retired at a late hour. On the forenoon of the 7th, Lord Amherst gave audiences to several civil and military officers. In the evening, the Governor-General and Lady Amherst proceeded, under honorary salutes, to the parade-ground, where his Majesty's 31st regiment was drawn out, preparatory to the solemn occasion of the presentation of colours to the regiment by Lady Amherst. As soon as her Ladyship had committed the new banners into the hands of the junior ensigns, the Governor-General, in the name of Lady Amherst, made an appropriate and impressive address to

Colonel Cassidy, commanding the regiment, which was followed by three cheers and the usual ceremonies. All the European inhabitants of Meerut, and numerous visitors from the neighbouring stations, were present at this interesting scene. On the same night, Lord and Lady Amherst were entertained by Colonel Cassidy, and the officers of the 31st, at a ball and supper. The dancing-room was elegantly fitted up; at one end was an ornamented star and coronet, at the other, a well executed painting of the Kent in flames, in which were strikingly represented the horrors of that awful event; after an excellent supper, the new colours were unfurled and displayed, and the healths of his noble and distinguished visitors were proposed by Colonel Cassidy, in an appropriate speech, in which the Colonel complimented his regiment on the honour which had that day been conferred upon it, and which had never before been conferred in the Upper Provinces. Lord Amherst replied with much felicity of expression, in an animating address to Colonel Cassidy, and the officers of his regiment. Dancing recommenced, and the company did not disperse till a late hour. On the evening of the 8th, the Governor-General entertained at dinner the principal ladies and gentlemen of Meerut, visitors from neighbouring stations. On the morning of the 9th, his Majesty's 16th Lancers were reviewed by the Governor-General; the dust having been laid by the rain, which had fallen the preceding night, the superb equipments, the glittering lances, and the brilliant evolutions of this distinguished regiment appeared to full advantage. After the review, Lord Amherst visited the riding school, where the lance exercise was exhibited by a few selected horsemen. His Lordship and family breakfasted with Colonel Arnold, and the officers of the 16th, in the public mess-room. In the evening, Major-General Reynell entertained Lord and Lady Amherst at a musical party.

On the morning of the 10th, the Governor-General reviewed his Majesty's 31st; the steady movements of this well-disciplined and distinguished regiment, were highly commended, and his Lordship and family breakfasted afterwards with Colonel Cassidy and his officers, in the public mess-room.

On the 11th, Lord Amherst and family attended divine service at St. John's church. The text chosen by the Rev. Mr. Fisher, was the 5th verse of the 20th Psalm, 'We will rejoice in thy salvation, and in the name of our God, will set up our banners; in all manner of solemnity which had taken place that week. Our respected pastor, in an appropriate discourse on the perils of the ocean, and on miraculous preservation, exhorted the regiment he was addressing, to cherish their new banners, not only as incentives to future deeds of heroism, but as emblems of the past mercies of Providence.

On the morning of the 11th, the Governor-General and family quitted Meerut under honorary salutes; his Lordship, on this occasion, was pleased to dispense with the ceremonial which had been

observed on his arrival. The camp of the Governor-General halted at Dourala, on the road to Saharunpur.

The Governor-General arrived at Delhi on the 15th, and had an interview with the King on the 17th of February. The King met his Lordship in front of the throne, and after embracing him, led him to a chair of state. His Majesty conversed with much cheerfulness and affability. On the Governor-General taking leave, his Majesty also arose, and taking him by the arm conducted him to the ante-chamber. His Majesty was to return his Lordship's visit on the Friday or Saturday following. We understand a vast number of persons of consideration had assembled at Delhi, whose presentation would, in all probability, detain his Lordship there, till the first of this month, when the journey to the hills would commence.

Advices from the Governor-General's camp, to the 2d of March, give us the following particulars of his Lordship's visit to Delhi. His Lordship was met at Muttra, on the 31st of January, by the Prince Mirza Selim, bearing a complimentary message and invitation from his Majesty the King of Delhi, and on the following day Lord Amherst returned the visit of his Royal Highness. The camp halted a day at Firuzapore, in the Mewattee country, where his Lordship was entertained at dinner by Nawab Ahmed Buksh Khan, the Jageerdar of the surrounding territory.

On the 15th February, the Governor-General reached Delhi, and was met at the Lahore gate of the city by the King's eldest and third sons, Mirza Aboo Zoffar, and Mirza Babar, who conducted his Lordship to the Residency.

The morning of the 17th having been fixed for the Governor-General's visit to his Majesty Akber Shah, his Lordship proceeded in state to the palace at eight o'clock, accompanied by the Resident, the whole of the staff and suite, and a numerous party of English officers, civil and military. The whole of the troops of the garrison were drawn out in the front of the principal gate of the palace, under the command of Lieut.-Colonel Wilson.

When the Suwarree reached the inner gate, called Nuqqar Khaneh, the several gentlemen in attendance alighted from their elephants, according to custom, and proceeded on foot, whilst the Governor-General was carried in his tonjohn (chair) to the steps of the Dewan Khass. The King came into the hall of audience from the apartment called the Tusbeeh Khaneh, at the same moment that the Governor-General entered on the opposite side, and meeting his Lordship in front of the throne, embraced and welcomed him in the most cordial manner. His Majesty then ascended the Tukht-i-Taos, or Peacock throne, and the Governor-General took his seat in a state chair below it, on the right; the Resident and other officers present, as well as the chief personages of the Court, all standing. No nuzzers were presented. After a short conversation, consisting entirely of expres-

sions of a complimentary and congratulatory nature, the King took a handsome string of pearls and emeralds from his neck and placed it around that of Lord Amherst, his Lordship rising to receive the Royal gift. Utter was then given by the King, and his Majesty, descending from the throne, took the Governor-General by the arm, and led him to the door of the Tusbeeh Khaneh, where his Lordship took leave. Salutes of nineteen guns were fired from his Majesty's park of artillery, both upon the entry and departure of the Governor-General.

On the 22d, the gentlemen of his Lordship's staff and suite, twenty in number, were introduced to the King by the Resident, each presented the usual Nuzzer and received a Khelaut.

On the morning of the 24th, the King proceeded to the Residency to return the visit of the Governor-General, when his Majesty was received with every demonstration of respect and honour. His Lordship, attended by his suite, went out half the distance to meet the King. On his Majesty's arrival, he took his seat on the Peacock Throne, which had been previously placed in the principal room of the Residency for the purpose, and the Governor-General, as before sat on a state chair to the right, every other person present standing. At the proper time presents were brought for his Majesty, consisting of one hundred and one trays of jewels, shawls, and cloths of various kinds, two elephants richly caparisoned, and six horses with costly trappings. The Governor-General then rose and presented the utter-dan to his Majesty, after which his Majesty signified his intention of taking leave, and was conducted by Lord Amherst to the royal litter in the veranda.

On the 26th, his Lordship was visited by the Heir Apparent, Mirza Aboo Suffur, and eight of the King's sons. His Royal Highness was conducted to the Residency by Sir C. Metcalfe, and met at the head of the steps by the Governor-General. The Prince sat in a state chair on his Lordship's right, and the sons of his Majesty were seated below his Royal Highness according to their ages. Presents, consisting of fifty-one trays, one elephant, and three horses, were given to the Heir Apparent, and twenty-one, fifteen, and thirteen trays, with horses, to each of the junior Princes. The following day the Governor-General returned the Heir Apparent's visit at the Koodsia Bagh, and was received with the same honours and ceremonial observances as had been shown to his Royal Highness. The Gentlemen in attendance were all seated in the presence of the Princes on both occasions.

During the Governor-General's stay at Delhi, his Lordship held ~~darbars for~~ the reception of the Nuwab Meer Khan, the Rajah of Kishenghari. Missions from Jyepore, Boondee, Kotah, Kerowlee, and numerous Chieftains and Jageerdars of the neighbouring country, who had assembled there to pay their respects, and the principal personages of the palace and inhabitants of the city, were also pre-

sented. His Lordship returned the visit of the Nuwab Meer Khan, the Raja of Kisengurh, and Nuwab Fyze Mohamed Khan, and partook of an entertainment at the house of Begum Sumroo.

The camp was pitched at Shahdera, on the 2d, across the Jumna, on the road to Meerut.

A letter, dated Delhi, Feb. 27, 1827, says—'Yesterday a durbar was held at the Residency; not less than sixty persons were presented, amongst whom were Doonjun Saul's two sons, one of them was wounded in the thumb at Bhurtapore; he is a fat unwieldy boy; they are both residing at Delhi under Sir C. Metcalfe's protection, at the request of their father. This morning all the Princes of the Blood came to the Residency; they are a fine-looking race of men, but from their poverty dress badly; the Heir Apparent looked splendidly, his face very much resembling those of the older Emperors. He received one elephant and three horses, superbly caparisoned, two trays of jewels, and fifty-one of shawls, kinkobs, muslins, &c.; the others received presents of less value, proportioned to their rank. A little boy, the son of the King's third son, who died at Allahabad in the fort, and who was his favourite, was placed alone on the left hand of the Governor-General, by the express desire of the King, as a mark of distinction, and he received the next best presents. This evening Amcer Khan's visit is to be returned, and to-morrow two other durbars will be held. On Thursday the King entertains the Governor-General and suite at dinner, and on Friday we march. I had nearly forgotten to inform you that on the 26th Lady Amherst went to the palace to visit the Queen, to whom she presented a splendid diamond necklace. At seven o'clock this morning we paid a visit to the Heir Apparent, and a very amusing one it was; the Poet Laureat came forward and recited some complimentary verses on the Governor-General's visit to Delhi, which were presented, as also some specimens of Persian writing. The Prince called his Lordship his brother, and presented his daughter to him as his niece, a very pretty-looking girl of about six years of age.'—*Government Gazette*.

STAMP TAX IN CALCUTTA.

The following are among the productions of the Indian Press which this subject has drawn forth, in addition to the graver matters of argument and remonstrance which we have elsewhere given:

TAXATION.

I had a dream, which was not all a dream,
Golden and silver coin were gone; the Shroffs
Did wonder cackling through the drear bazaar
Listless, and cashless, and in mouldy heaps
Chattels and goods lay blackening in the air.
Morn came, and went, and came, but no relief,
And men forgot their squabbling in the dread
Of this their grim taxation; and all hearts
Were chill'd into a selfish prayer 'gainst Stamps.

And they did live with catchpoles; and the piles
And palaces of great Qui-hi's—the huts
Of wretches who near Bow Bazaar do dwell—
Were trod by bailiffs. Patience was assum'd;
And men were gather'd into grinning groups,
To talk by stealth about each other's Stamps.
Happy were those who dwelt without the ditch
Of the Mahrattas, and Entally's line.
A fearful hope was all the town contain'd:
Agents appear'd on fire; but hour by hour
They shrugg'd their shoulders. Editorial stars
Blaz'd, and were extinguish'd. All was black.
The brows of men, by the despairing light,
Wore a most wrathful aspect, as by fits
The taxes fell upon them. Some sat down
With folded arms, and yawn'd; and some did rest
Their chins upon their sighing breasts, and smok'd;
And others hurried to and fro, and call'd
For their sircars to bring their bills (all stamp'd)
With mad disquietude at the items star'd;
Abused them for the amount; and then again,
With curses, threw the bills in each one's face,
And kick'd them out, and roar'd. Fat Baboo's shriek'd
And, taxified, did flutter all around,
And flap their dumpy arms. The biggest wigs
Were tame and tremulous. Assessors crawl'd,
And twin'd themselves among the multitude,
Pushing and squeezing—taxing even food.
And feasts and dinner-parties were no more,
And simkin there was none. A meal was bought
With pice, and each sat sullenly apart
Gorging himself in gloom; no love was left;
The town was but one thought—and that was stamps,
Immediate and notorious; and the pang
Of taxes fed upon all entrails—men
Died, and their bones were tax'd as was their flesh;
Tax'd sugar'd punns were by tax'd brats devour'd,
Sircars inform'd 'gainst Sabib-logue, save one,
And he was faithful for a time, and kept
The ravenous tax-gatherers at bay,
Till hunger seized them, and the dinner hour
Lured their lank jaws; himself sought out no food,
But with a dinning and perpetual moan,
He braves craved, and getting none, resolved
To claim his share of penalty—he wept,
The crowd was taxed by degrees; but two
Of an enormous fatness did escape,
And they were Baboon; and they met beside
A smart green table in a lawyer's room,
Where had been heap'd a mass of solemn briefs
For an unholy usage; they raked up
And shivering urged their butts, their ifs, their ands,
Of feeble negatives against the stamps,
Blew for a little life, and made a flame
Which was a mockery; then they lifted up
Their eyes as it grew darker, and beheld
A taxman's visage—saw, and shriek'd, and died—
Even of their vexatiousness they died,
Unknowing how to wriggle an escape
From tax—that searching fiend, The world was tax'd,

ACCOUNT OF A VISIT TO THE VOLCANO OF POPOCATEPELT,
IN MEXICO.

ON the 20th of April, 1827, this volcano was visited for the first time by Messrs. William and Frederick Glennie, of the United Mexican Mining Company, and Mr. John Taylor, accompanied by a youth named Jose Quintana. A supplement to the Mexican paper called 'El Sol,' of the 8th of May, contains the following abstract of the diary which the travellers kept during their journey :

On the morning of the 16th, the party left Mexico, provided with a barometer, a sextant, a theodolite, a chronometer, a telescope, and other instruments. They passed the night in the town of Ameca.

On the 17th, they took the road to Puebla, which runs between the two volcanoes, with the intention of proceeding to Atlixco. At the highest point of the pass, they turned to the right, taking the road called De los Neveros. Having ascended to the limit of vegetation, which, according to their barometrical measurement, was at the height of 12,693 feet above the level of the sea, they met some men, who informed them that they could not proceed that way, either to the summit of the volcano, or to Atlixco, on account of the quantity of sand which obstructed the road. They therefore descended ; and taking the road which they before quitted, they repaired to San Nicolas de los Ranchos.

On the 18th, they continued their journey towards Atlixco. The road runs to the east of the volcano, and along the skirt of an extensive plain covered with large stones and fragments of rock, which probably were once lodged in the mouth of the crater. Having ascertained that the town of Tochimilco was nearer to the volcano, they resolved to proceed thither, in order to obtain information relative to their expedition. Don F. Olivares, the Alcalde of Tochimilco, who had never ascended to the summit of Popocatepelt, though it is situated on his own territory, not only furnished them with all the information he possessed, but also offered to accompany them, and to procure them guides and attendants to convey their instruments, &c. It was arranged that on the following day they should proceed to Santa Catalina, which is at the foot of the great mountain.

On the 19th, they set out for Santa Catalina ; but before they reached it, Senor Olivares found that business would prevent him from continuing the journey. He, however, gave them a guide, who conducted them through a sort of wood to the upper boundary of the pine-trees, which they found at 12,544 feet above the level of the sea. Here they passed the night, wrapped in their cloaks, be-

TO A RIVER.

BEAUTIFUL River ! where art thou flowing ?
Whence didst thou thus in thy melody come ?
Where hast thou been all thy freshness bestowing ?
Why dost thou wander so far from thine home ?
Dost thou not know that the tempest will meet thee,
Heave into dark waves thy calm azure breast ?
Dost thou not know that the torrent will sweep thee
Along in its whirlpools, and give thee no rest ?
Dost thou not know that its blendings will dim thee ?
Dost thou not know that with earth it will stain ?
All the sweet sunbeams that often shall gem thee,
Never can make thee untainted again.
Dost thou not know the ice-gale will come o'er thee,
E'en from the shores thou hast watered and blest ?
And midst thy music, thy light, and thy glory,
Make Heaven's own beamings seem dark on thy breast.
Dost thou not know that the sea will engulph thee,
Take thy bright waters, but give thee none back ;
Roar out its joy, like the wolf, as he quaffs thee,
But send not a spray-drop to freshen thy track ?
No—thou know's't not ; and the young heart's pure feelings
Flow on as thou dost, and meet the same fate ;
Sorrow's rude storms, in their darkest revealings,
Passion's wild torrents, when seek they their mate.
Oh ! can the stain and the loss of that bosom
E'er be made pure by the sun-beams of Fame,
Flourish again in its depths the white blossom,
Rooted as firmly as ere the flood came ?
Ice too will meet them,—the ice of unkindness
Still all their sweet tides, and chain all their flow,
Dim the bright eyes till they turn, as in blindness,
From the sweet heavens, all dark to them now.
And the world's ocean, to which they are pouring
All their deep streams gushing warm from the heart,
Ne'er of its wealth and its smiles lavish showering,
Will to that living-waste one drop impart.
Yes, thou art emblem, thou beautiful River !
Of the young warm bosom's destiny here ;—
And is there none, is there none to deliver ?
Ope's there no path in this desert of fear ?
Yes—there is one, one sure path of escaping,
One radiant channel that leads to no ill,
Streams that through this are their bright courses shaping,
Ice-chains, nor tempest, nor torrent shall feel !
Calm and untainted shall e'er be their flowing,
And Heaven's sea, when life's desert is past,
Oh, it shall be on each bosom bestowing
Waters of joy that eternally last !

S. E. H.

A NEW VISION OF JUDGMENT.

I HAD a vision as I lay,
 Stretched on my couch the other day,
 When my brain had got heavy and eye-sight dull,
 Poring over that morning's 'Bull.'
 And it seemed to me as if I stood
 In the midst of a countless multitude;
 Who gazed with a fixed and stupid stare
 On a great red Lion up in the air,
 Who trod a black cloud to and fro,
 Scornfully eyeing the crowd below,
 And cracking o'er head, at every step,
 His tail as a coachman cracks his whip;
 And at every stamp the lion did make,
 That wretched multitude seemed to quake,
 As if an electrical apparatus
 Were giving them all their last quietus.

And I heard a faint whisper grow stronger and stronger
 'Petition the Lion to stamp no longer!
 And, oh, how these poor sons of perdition
 Like drowning men caught at the word 'Petition!'
 And I heard a terrible scribbling then,
 And the mingling voices of legal men;
 And it seemed as if by a coalition,
 All people rushed to sign the Petition.

But I looked, and the Lion shook his mane,
 And he roared till the multitude quaked again,
 And they ran like sheep, and left behind
 (The slaves!) that same petition unsigned!
 Their flight was rapid, but something checked it,
 In a quarter whence 'twas least expected;
 And the dread of that stamping came on again,
 And they blushed at their flight so base—so vain!
 For sudden—a terrible voice, though single,
 Made the ears of all who heard it tingle,
 And public feeling burst down like a river,
 And the very ground echoed, 'Peter Gordon for ever!
 But, oh! the rage of the Lion then,
 How he stamped and he roared and he stamped again,
 And how the dark cloud grew darker below him,
 And his countenance changed, that I could not know him;
 How his tail kept cracking like distant thunder,
 Till the frame of that cloud seemed rending asunder,
 I thought of my sins and the Judgment Day
 Till my senses reeled and I swooned away.

How long I lay I could not say;
 It must have been many a weary day—
 But I looked about me, and I knew,
 It was the year of our Saviour thirty-two.

And there was the self-same multitude,
 And there was the Lion up in the cloud;
 But, Lord! what a change from the royal brute
 That was wont to stamp with so firm a foot!
 The great black cloud which he used to tread
 Had dwindled to a very shred,

connected with the Eastern World.

And his footing upon it was now so frail,
 He was frightened even to wag his tail;
 And he cursed himself in his royal woe,
 'Oh that I had not stamped it so!
 When a luckless hole that escaped his view,
 Let a hind leg of his Highness through,
 And fast he plunged and kicked and roared,
 Calling aloud for help on the Board,
 But the Board was deaf, and the hole it grew
 So big that at last the Lion fell through;
 And the crush of his fall, and the awful yell
 That rung on my ears as the monster fell,
 And the damning hiss of a world's derision,
 Made me gasp, and shriek—I awoke—'twas a vision!

1st April, 1827.—*Calcutta Chronicle*.

J. C. S.

ADVOCATE-GENERAL OF BENGAL.

T. E. TURTON, Esq. has been appointed to act as Advocate-General during the absence of J. Pearson, Esq., or until confirmed from England.—*Bengal Hurkaru*.

NATIVE IMITATION OF ENGLISH MANNERS.

NOTWITHSTANDING the freedom of our comments on a late occasion, our native friends, we are happy to find, have still full confidence in our liberality, and do not hesitate to request our assistance to give eclat to their festivals. We have been requested, by very sufficient authority, to insert the following, of the accuracy of which we make no doubt, and we are equally satisfied that it will have due effect, the postscript especially. The idea of promulgating such 'News of Fashion,' through the columns of a newspaper, is decidedly of English origin, and will be hailed as an encouraging specimen of the progress of enlightened customs. In fact, the advantage here, is on this side of the globe, and the substantial promises it holds forth, would be an obvious improvement on the intimations of an 'at home' in the 'Herald' or 'Morning Post.'

'A Native Festival is to be celebrated at Baboo Rooplol Mullicks, in Chitpore Road, Calcutta, on the evenings of the 14th, 15th, and 16th instant, (April,) in the grandest and most splendid style; an English band will be in attendance, and the nautches and entertainments will excel every amusement of the kind ever witnessed at this Presidency.

'Tickets are under distribution to the Baboo's friends, and all the respectable ladies and gentlemen of the Presidency who may feel desirous of honouring the Baboo with their company.

'P. S. Gunter and Hooper are to furnish the supper, and to supply the best champagne, claret, and all kind of wines and liquors, &c. &c.'—*India Gazette*.

STORM IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF CALCUTTA.

Chandernagore, March 29.—It was about five o'clock in the afternoon of yesterday, the 28th of March 1827, when indications
Oriental Herald, Vol. 15. M

of an approaching storm appeared. It commenced with sheet lightning, and distant thunder, wind south-east. At a quarter before six, the wind chopped round to the westward, varying from west to west-south-west, blowing hard. At length a shower of hail commenced, which lasted fifteen minutes, and the whole plain around us resembled a field of snow. The hail was so very large, and made such a report upon the tile flags before our Bungalow, that at first I actually thought the castle and fort was being stormed. We gathered three buckets full, and, without exaggeration, the largest of the stones were full four inches in circumference. When partly dissolved, the heart of them resembled a fish's eye; and some of them resembled a shell. Old T—— concluded that it certainly was a shoal of frozen fish, and put it down in his log-book as such. A severe hurricane followed, accompanied with thunder and lightning, which lasted nearly two hours. During the remainder of the night it was cool and pleasant.—*John Bull.*

Serampore, March 30, 1827.—Last Thursday night, at a quarter past ten o'clock, a severe storm accompanied with a heavy shower of rain, with hailstones, fell in Serampore, and lasted for almost an hour. The stones were uncommonly large, so much so, that each of them was equal to the size of a goose's egg, and pouring down in abundance with a tremendous sound. The effects have injured many of the branches and leaves of every tree in my garden; small mangoes and leeches were destroyed at a great rate, and very few left in the trees. In fact, I do not think there will be any fruit this season. My gardeners were employed sweeping all the part of the garden from six this morning, until six in the evening. The stones were gathered with each other, and their appearance were similar to a large stone of one or two maunds weight, all were melting through the night, and the whole day to-day: on the whole I never experienced any thing of the kind in my life, and it was a most shocking event that happened.—Pillars, walls, windows of some of the pukkah houses were injured, besides the loss of the huts and choppers of many poor classes, which is beyond extremity.

Here is the 24th of March, and no rain, with the exception of a few partial showers to the southward, about the 11th and 12th instant. There is now every probability that the indigo sowings will be much later than they have been for many seasons back; and the inevitable consequences must be an unprofitable winding up. We had half our cultivation sown before the 10th of March last year; still the produce, in general, did not average a fourth of that of the three or four preceding ordinary seasons. Our principal dependence being on February and early March sowings, there is every likelihood that this will turn out, if possible, a more disastrous season in Lower Bengal than the last. These are cheering

prospects, while we are daily, and indeed, I may say, hourly harassed by the unrestrained encroachments and interminable artifices of the surrounding talookdars, who consider our scattered property "fair game" for their unseemly speculations, now reduced by them to a system of legal robbery, under the specious pretext of a "competition in trade!"—*Calcutta Chronicle.*

MURDER OF AN ENGLISH OFFICER, IN HIS VOYAGE UP THE GANGES.

SOME weeks ago, we gave a brief account of the atrocious murder of Lieutenant and Paymaster Monk, of his Majesty's 31st regiment, on his passage up the Ganges, on the 4th of December last. Our cotemporary of the 'India Gazette' now enables us to add the following further particulars of this melancholy event, which he received from a friend at Meerut.

Mr. Monk was proceeding with a detachment of the regiment, under the command of Captain Bolton, by water, from Dinapore. Being some days behind the fleet, and very anxious to join it, he quitted his budgerow at Benares, and proceeded thence in a small oolak of about 300 maunds, in hopes of joining the fleet more expeditiously.

On the evening of the 4th December, Mr. Monk's boat came to for the night at the end of a long sand-bank, below the village of Chuckoa on the right bank of the river, and opposite Boorepoor on the other.

The place is situated about half-way between Allahabad and Mirzapore, and is described as a long low furrowed bank of sand, of a peculiarly wild and desolate aspect, and the banks on each side being high, and intersected with deep ravines. The locality had a bad name, on account of the reputed lawless disposition of the inhabitants; and Mr. Monk was advised by the manjee of his boat not to put up there, but to pass to the other side of the river; unhappily for himself, he did not attend to this advice.

The crew of Mr. Monk's boat consisted of a manjee, golyah, and five dandies. There were also on board, Mr. Monk's dobee, and his son, a boy of about twelve years of age. It is not unworthy of remark, that three of Mr. Monk's servants had absconded the day previous to his murder.

Between the hours of ten and eleven o'clock, the boat was attacked by a band of decoits, supposed to be about fifty or sixty, some of whom entered the bow from shore, while two other parties of the same gang broke into the oolak from a dingy on each side.

The golyah was on watch in the bow, and was speared at once. He died of his wounds two days afterwards. The rest of the crew were at this time sleeping on the chopper of the oolak, when the dobee, who was on the front part of the chopper, was awoken by the cries of the golyah. Hearing also his master calling out from

the inside to know what was the matter, he jumped down on deck, and saw Mr. Monk, who was at the door of the apartment, or rude kind of cabin, and in the act of lifting up the purda at the entrance, hastily informed him that they were attacked by decoits. At this juncture the dobee himself (who had a glance of the decoits breaking into the cabin, from their doongas on each side) was thrown overboard into the river, and made his way to the bank, but afterwards returned to the boat.

From his evidence, and that of the dandies, it seems that the first thing the decoits did was to bind the crew.

It is supposed, that they then bound the unfortunate Mr. Monk, and cast him into the stream, as there was a great noise heard as of a violent struggle, followed shortly by a plunge or splash in the water, as if something heavy had been thrown overboard.

On examination of the cabin, every thing was found in great confusion. Mr. Monk's trunks were broke open, and the property missing. One of the feet of the couch was found wrenched off, as if the poor man had desperately clung to it. His sword was lying on the floor, with the ornaments torn away. In short, the confused state of the things in the cabin indicated that the deceased had made a desperate resistance.

A human skeleton, it is said, has been found near the spot where the murder was perpetrated, supposed to be the remains of Mr. Monk.

The Magistrates of Allahabad and Mirzapore have, we learn, taken the most active steps to ascertain all the particulars, and discover the perpetrators of this foul deed; a reward has also, we believe, been offered for the apprehension of the murderers.

Mr. Monk, it seems, had very little property with him at the time, and nothing of value.

The conduct of the three servants who deserted him the day previous to the murder, is not without suspicion. A sharp inquiry has been instituted after them.

It may be satisfactory to persons proceeding up the river to learn that a strong police thanna is immediately to be established near the spot.—*Madras Courier*.

MURDER OF AN ENGLISH OFFICER AT NAGPORE.

A report has been some time in circulation of the murder of an officer at Nagpore; from a letter, with the perusal of which we have been favoured, dated at Kamptee, (the British cantonment near Nagpore,) the 23d February, we have deduced the following particulars relative to the melancholy occurrence alluded to: Lieut. Dallas, of the Rifle Corps, having disposed of his house, had commenced to build another, and had pitched his tents in the compound of the new house, in which he was living; it appears an officer of

the same corps had his tents pitched in the same compound, and the servants of the deceased were lodged in a baggage-tent close at hand; over the latter, we are led to believe, a sepoy was stationed. On the night of the 22d of February, some villian entered the tent, whether with the intent to rob or to assassinate is yet doubtful. It is presumed the miscreant must have been in some measure dressed, a large turban, a cumley, and a string of beads, having been found in the tent; an unusual incident in cases when plunder is the object, and especially from the small inducement which offered to attract the notice of a thief, there being, as we are informed, scarcely any property in the tent, except a few articles of furniture, &c. Whatever might have been the object of the villain, it is evident a scuffle must have taken place, the table, glasses, &c., having been found upset. It appears no other person slept in the tent; but that his chockra, or servant-boy, was sleeping outside of it. The officer in the neighbouring tent, as well as the chockra, heard the struggle, and on the deceased exclaiming, '*Chor, chor, Khalasee puckerro*,' the officer immediately ran over to the tent, and on approaching it, he saw the villian run off and his friend drop; and came up only in time to see him breathe his last. The deceased was wounded in three places, one wound on the right side, another on the left shoulder, and a third on the breast; the latter was three or four inches deep. We understand the sepoy, stationed near the baggage-tent, pursued the assassin, but hearing the screams of the chockra over his poor master's body, unfortunately gave up the pursuit, and returned to the tent.

A letter from a friend at Nagpore adverts to a tiger hunt, which took place in that neighbourhood on the 27th of February, when a small party of gentlemen, mounted on elephants, succeeded in killing a large, tall, and ferocious tiger. His length was ten feet two inches, which, we believe, is rather uncommon. His height, however, was more extraordinary, being four feet two inches; and the circumference of what our correspondent calls his fore-arm, was two feet and a half inch, and stout throughout. The monster had killed a bullock on the 26th, but his depredations were soon destined to be terminated with a vengeance. When he found that the game was up, he showed much pluck, and charged in such desperate style that he had nearly annihilated the mahout of one of the elephants, but luckily did no more mischief than leaving the marks of his claws deeply indented high upon both sides of the elephant's head. Although he received several shots, which knocked him down repeatedly, he charged several times before he received the *coup de grace*.

While on the subject of tigers, we may as well mention a circumstance which lately happened at Amherst Island, which shows that *nil desperandum* is a good rule in the most desperate circumstances. A tiger breaking into a shed in which a colt and a pony were sheltered, killed the former. The pony then attacked the tiger and

pummelled him so heartily with his heels about the head and ribs, that he knocked out some of the monster's teeth, and all his courage, for he had just strength enough to crawl to a nullah hard by, where he was found by the Natives shortly afterwards, as he appeared so much bruised that he could hardly move; they accordingly fell upon and killed him with bludgeons. Previous to this, five horses had been killed near the same spot.—*India Gazette.*

DEATH, POLICY, AND CHARACTER OF MAHA-RAJAH DOWLUT-RAO SINDIAH.

On the evening of Saturday, the 31st of March, a discharge of 48 minute guns from Fort-William, in Calcutta, announced the death of Maha-Rajah Dowlut-Rao Sindiah.

The Maha-Rajah had for several months, we understand, laboured under a lingering disease, from which there was no hope of ultimate recovery; so that the melancholy event which has just happened was anticipated; and all proper measures had been taken, we presume, for preserving public tranquillity, and settling the succession.

Notwithstanding his tedious and serious illness, the Maha-Rajah, we have understood, has left no will; at least, so far as our information goes, none has been found.

Perhaps the omission was caused by that dilatoriness natural to some valetudinarians, and the unwillingness of determining upon a task of a disagreeable nature, that could not but give rise to melancholy reflections; or, perhaps, his Highness was satisfied that matters would be duly adjusted and settled after his death, whether he left any directions to that effect or not.

Sindiah's reign could not be called a happy one, although it closed more prosperously than that of some of his contemporaries, which was owing rather to the decision of others, and peculiar political circumstances of the times, than his own talents or deserts.

His life was chequered by those floods and ebbs of prosperity, and extraordinary contingencies, which are to be expected in that of a Mahratta Prince; but in these he was more passive than active, and, in general, was ruled more by the advice and intrigues of others than by any original movements of energy in his own mind.

Accordingly, in the history of British India, for a period of some thirty years, he will be found at one time with another, to have played a considerable part on the political arena; but his military talents were not of a first-rate order; and whatever views he might have indulged in of independence and conquest, he never was any thing more than a partisan.

Impelled no less by the encroaching policy of his neighbours than his own vanity, he always kept up a large military establishment, but in general it far exceeded his financial means, and he was not unfrequently exposed to the disagreeable necessity of listening to

the clamours of tumultuous troops long in arrears. To silence these, when money was not immediately to be procured, he was sometimes obliged to send out his troops to subsist themselves the best way they could in the surrounding country.

Armies that in extensive regions had been accustomed to license and plunder were, as matters might happen, or the exigency dictate, confined to tracks comparatively small; consequently the sphere of their violence being diminished, the burden of their exactions in many places became intolerable, and districts before cultivated and populous, were sometimes rendered waste and wretched.

Even for the supply of personal demands, Sindiah was often obliged to have recourse to bankers, who, at large rates of interest, furnished them with such occasional advances as he stood in need of. Concerning a Mahratta potentate, it is some praise, it may be claimed, to say, that he was content to borrow, when he might have pillaged.

For many years he was too much swayed by the counsels of Shree Rao Ghatgay, his connection with whom rendered him unpopular. This man's cruelties and enormities rendered him generally detested, and his name is yet remembered with horror in the districts where he perpetrated his atrocities, which were instigated by avarice, and a natural love of violence and rapine. Sindiah, though not cruel himself, yet shared at times the obloquy of the crimes of Ghatgay and men of that stamp.

Not only was this Ghatgay a constant instigator of outrages, but he cherished the most virulent hostility against the British; from which sentiment, events have shown that Sindiah himself was not wholly free.

Impelled by evil counsellors, no less than by the confidence of ignorance, and the hopes of delusive advantages, he was occasionally driven into measures which often terminated in disaster, and at one time almost in total ruin.

The death of his evil genius Ghatgay was important, both in tranquillizing the domestic feuds and public dissensions, which it seems that turbulent agitator was perpetually exciting in Sindiah's dominions.

At one time his insolence had so far overcome the patience of Sindiah, that he had him seized. This adventure, which was by no means an easy one, or free from danger, was very successfully and happily executed by the late Colonel Hession, then in Sindiah's service, and another person. Ghatgay was again restored to confidence and power; but at length fell a victim to his own confumacy, and died a violent death, being speared by a person who had orders to arrest him. Dowlut Rao, if he did not exactly order, seemed to approve of the deed, and it is said that he has all his life been a prey to remorse for the atrocious actions to which he was induced to lend his sanction, when under the influence of the monster Ghatgay.

Sindiah's name in the late times frequently occupied a conspicuous place in the stirring topics of the day, on account of the important events in which he was engaged, and his collusion with the Pindharee system, which, at one time, it was supposed he encouraged, if not fostered, in the hopes of making it a powerful instrument of his own purposes.

By having lands in Sindiah's territories, the Pindarees had a place of refuge where they might concentrate their strength; and opportunities were not wanting whereby they might extend their dominions by conquest and hereditary encroachments.

The growth of this body (which was somewhat similar to that of the first Mahrattas) was rapid to an extraordinary degree. When the Mahrattas, having, as it were, obtained a sufficiency of territory, ceased to spread themselves, the Pindharees, who had attended their armies, were obliged to plunder the districts of their former protectors for subsistence. To the unemployed military adventurers of India, particularly to Mohammedans, the life of a Pindharee, we are told, had many allurements; but the Mahratta horsemen, who possessed hereditary rights, or had pretensions to respectability, did not readily join them.

The predatory visits of these robbers were like a whirlwind or a pestilence, sudden, unforeseen, devastating. Whilst they continued their excesses, marauders of all descriptions sallied out to join them, or to profit by their presence, and whole districts became a scene of rapine, conflagration, and dismay. The ordinary modes of torture inflicted by these miscreants, were heavy stones placed on the head or chest; red-hot irons applied to the soles of the feet; tying the head of a person into a tobra or bag for feeding horses, filled with hot ashes; throwing oil on the clothes and setting fire to them; besides many others equally horrible. The awful consequences of a visitation from the Pindharees, can scarcely be imagined by those who have not witnessed them. For some time, until the districts in Malwa, Marwar, Mewar, and the whole of Rajpootana were exhausted, and the Pindharees were encouraged and excited to venture on more fertile fields, their ravages were chiefly confined to those countries and Berar. A few of them, however, ventured almost every year into the dominions of the Nizam and the Peishwa, though little notice was taken of them by the British Government, whilst they refrained from molesting its own subjects and territories.

At length matters took such a turn, that the British Government could no longer forbear interfering. The collision of conflicting interests and fierce chieftains, including Ameer Khan, Sindiah, Holkar, the Pindharees and the Rajpoota States, rendered the people on the British frontier miserable; all the elements of predatory power being stirred up in an unhappy range of country, till Ameer Khan and Sindiah began to found higher hopes, foreseeing a prospect of support from the Peishwa and other allies,

A plan of an extensive confederacy was formed to thwart, if not to overthrow, British supremacy, at the head of which was Bajee Row. This, however, with a genius, energy, and wisdom, upon which it is unnecessary to dilate here, the Marquis of Hastings signally overturned. He, by a grand stroke, succeeded in the complete suppression of the predatory system in Central India; gave peace to those desolated provinces, and security to the rest of the country.

Sindiah's intentions, at the juncture alluded to, were well known to be any thing but friendly; however, before irretrievably placing himself in a false position, a judicious manœuvre was executed, which disarmed one important member of the confederacy, and Sindiah signed a treaty, which really ensured his own safety; and he remained, we believe, from that time until his death, a faithful ally of the British Government, which, but for an obvious sinister influence, he was, perhaps, always disposed to be.—*Bengal Hurkaru*.

MAHARAJAH RUNJEET SING.

It appears by the Ukhbars, (Native India Papers,) that up to the 2d March, the Maharajah was at Lahore. A petition from the commandant at Attock was received, stating that in consequence of his having received intelligence of parties of Yvsczeys, Noorzays, and Milkies, to the amount of 30,000 men having taken up arms, an army was dispatched against them; but they met near the fortresses of Hakoot: 2000 men were killed and wounded on both sides, and the enemy was dispersed. Monlovee Sadoolah and others, four sirdars, with many other persons, were prisoners; 700 of their horses and a large quantity of ammunition came to hand. Salutes were ordered to be fired on this occasion, and Koor Khug Sing received orders to proceed towards Attock. After perusing a letter from Nand Mahomed Khan, the Maharajah expressed his dissatisfaction of the conduct of that chief, and said to his vakeel that the grand army will turn him out of the country; the vakeel urged his master's innocence, and in verification thereof, stated that he had sent an army against the rebels; but Runjeet considered it as mere mockery. Orders were dispatched to Mons. Lord, to direct the movement of the army marching from Bhoolpore, towards Attock.

INDIAN TRAVELLERS.

WE have been favoured with the perusal of some letters written by Mr. Guthrie, one of the companions of the late Mr. Moorcroft, who unfortunately shared the fate of that lamented traveller. He intend to publish extracts from these letters, as soon as we can find room for them. One is written on the bark of the birch tree, which was so much employed by our northern ancestors as a substitute for paper; that the word book is said by etymologists to be derived from the same word. It is singular that we should find this substance put to a use in the heart of Asia, which was generally believed to be confined to the extreme north of Europe.—*Bengal Hurkaru*, April 7.

DEBATE AT THE EAST INDIA HOUSE.

Wednesday September 26, 1827.

THE minutes of last Court having been read,

The CHAIRMAN (the Hon. Hugh Lindsay,) laid before the Proprietors the list of the superannuations made since July last, according to the 19th section of the 6th chapter of the By-laws.

The CLERK then read, at the request of Mr. Hume, the names of the persons who were upon the list. The first was Mr. Henry Matthews, aged fifty-one years.

Mr. HUME wished to know, whether Mr. Matthews had resigned from ill health.

The CHAIRMAN answered in the affirmative.

Mr. DIXON stated, that if such was the case a certificate of the cause ought to be produced, and he trusted that such certificates would in future appear on the list of superannuations.

Mr. WIGRAM said, that by Act of Parliament, a person if sixty-five years old, or about that age, might resign without producing any certificate at all, but if he were under sixty-five, he must produce a certificate of ill-health.

The CHAIRMAN then laid before the Court certain papers relative to the College at Haileybury, and the seminary at St. Addiscombe.

The Hon. DOUGLAS KINNAIRD wished to know, whether any gentlemen were sent to India without having gone through an examination at the College.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that eight gentlemen had been sent out, according to an act of Parliament lately passed, and that a day of examination was now approaching, when a certain number more would be sent out under that Act, who had never passed through the College.

Mr. HUME wished to know how many cadets had been sent out to India during last year, and how many had received their education at Addiscombe.

The account was read by the Clerk, and laid on the table. It appeared that the total number of cadets educated at the college during the last year, was 399, of whom 307 had been appointed to commissions in the cavalry and infantry in India, and ninety-two had been sent to the Military Seminary at Addiscombe.

Mr. HUME asked what was the gross expence, after deducting the receipts, which the Company had been put to.

The CLERK stated, that the total expence was 8047*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.* for 145 pupils, making an expence of about 57*l.* for each pupil.

Mr. HUME thought some arrangement should be adopted with respect to the education of officers, by which every individual sent out to India might be fitted to discharge the duties of his situation.

The CHAIRMAN said, that the Hon. Proprietor seemed not to be aware of the number of pupils which Addiscombe contained. That College did not, and could not keep up the annual supply of cadets for India.

The Hon. DOUGLAS KINNAIRD said, that an examination of the officers

before they went out to India, was only so far just and reasonable; and no man ought to complain of that examination being required before he went out to India, where he went to exercise certain functions of much greater importance to any of those which an European officer was required to discharge.

The CHAIRMAN then stated, that the General Quarterly Court was further made special 'for the purpose of submitting to the Proprietors for their confirmation, the Resolution of the Court of Proprietors of the 20th of June, approving of the unanimous resolution of the Court of Directors of the 23d of May last, granting to Major-General Sir A. Campbell, G. C. B., a pension of 1000*l.* on the grounds therein stated.'

Mr. HUME did not rise to oppose the present motion, having on a former occasion stated his approbation of the grant. He had, on that occasion, asked the Court of Directors, whether they had taken into their consideration the services of the army who had served under that gallant General, and he now wished to know whether any decisive resolution had been come to with respect to offering a grant to that army.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the Bengal Government had decreed that a reward of three months batta to that part of the army, which had been employed in Ava under twelve months, and that six months batta should be given to those who had served upwards of a year. The Court of Directors came to the resolution of doubling that amount, and he begged leave to say, that then the amount considerably exceeded the sum paid by the Burmese to the Indian Government—he meant the fifty lacs of rupees. (*Hear.*)

Mr. HUME asked whether the relatives of those who fell during that struggle, would derive the same advantages as those who survived. In cases of prize-money, a share of the money was allowed to the relatives of those who died, but he did not know whether this custom was attended to in cases of a grant.

The CHAIRMAN begged leave to state, that the relatives of those who fell during the Burmese war, will participate in the grant, in the same manner as those who survived.

Captain MAXFIELD desired to know whether that grant applied to the marines as well as to the army.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the marines and the navy had had batta allowed them from the first, which the army had not; and that, therefore, neither of those establishments would participate in the grant.

Captain MAXFIELD said, that he had been misinformed, if any grant had been made to the marines on this occasion.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that batta had been specially made to them for their services in the war.

Mr. HUME stated, that he had reason to believe that batta had not been allowed to the Bombay marines. He knew that the Bengal marines received not only batta, but treble the pay of the officers of the legitimate service of the Company.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the officers of the legitimate service had received as much as the officers of the Bengal establishment. The same batta had been allowed to both from the beginning of the war.

The motion was then put and carried unanimously.

APPOINTMENT OF A STAFF CAPTAIN TO THE SEMINARY AT
ADDISCOMBE.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the Court was further made special 'for the purpose of laying before the Proprietors, for their approbation and confirmation, according to the 17th section of the 6th chapter of the By-laws, a resolution of the Court of Directors, of the 20th June last, for the appointment of a Staff-Captain to be attached to the Military Seminary at Addiscombe, with an allowance of 15s., per diem, as pay, and a further allowance of 26l. 5s., per annum, in lieu of diet.

Mr. HUME rose to express his regret, that after an endeavour had been made to obtain an account of the expenses attending the College of Addiscombe, only that of the professors had been put down, and no part of the military expenses. It would be satisfactory to the Court to know,—as their appeared to be two establishments,—what was the expense of the military part. The expenses of the professors amount to 4600l., and he should be glad to know what was the amount of the military establishment connected with the College of Addiscombe.

The CLERK then read the amount of salaries from Midsummer 1826 to Midsummer 1827, which was 7,815l. 19s. 8d.

Mr. HUME said, that according to that account there would be left 3200l. as the military expense. He did not object to that item, but he observed, gradually from year to year, a considerable increase, beginning at 1500l. or 1600l., and going on to 7000l. or 8000l. He left it to the Directors to consider how far they were outstepping a fair remuneration for the services of their servants, who would, under a proper salary, remain useful and attentive to their duties. He thought it would be better to have a separate detail of the military and civil establishment, when the account was laid before the Court.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the hon. Proprietor did not take into consideration the increase of the pupils at Addiscombe, which amounted to 150 within two years. To educate the whole 150, it would cost the Company 8000l.

Mr. HUME said, that three times that amount would educate the whole number who went out to India; and he was one of those who thought that no cadet should be allowed to proceed to India without first being examined.

GRANT OF 20,000l. TO THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the Court was made special 'for the purpose of laying before the Proprietors, for their approbation, a resolution of the Court of Directors, of the 3d ult., granting to the present Marquis of Hastings the sum of 20,000l. on the grounds therein stated.'

The resolution being read,

The CHAIRMAN stated, that previous to moving that the Court adopt the resolution which had been just read, he would beg leave to offer a very few observations upon the subject. In the first place he felt great satisfaction in mentioning to the Court, that this resolution had been signed by nineteen members of the Court of Directors, but in mentioning that circumstance he did not mean to say that it had been carried unanimously. He was quite sure that those who differed in opinion from the majority of the Court of Directors had been actuated by an honour-

able, fair, and honest motives as those who had signed it. He would, however, pass over all that had taken place since the last General Court, and would only observe that, after the Marquis of Hastings arrived in England from India, he had been appointed Governor of Malta, for which place he departed, and where he died in the discharge of the important duties of his situation. During last year, the late Chairman had brought before the Committee of Correspondence the state in which the Marquis of Hastings's family had been left, for the purpose of proposing some mark of the Court's approbation for the services of the late Marquis. The proposition met with some discussion in the Committee of Correspondence, and there were some differences of opinion on the subject, in consequence of which the proposition was not proceeded on, and no resolution was brought before the Court of Directors. Shortly after, he (the Honourable Hugh Lindsay) had the honour of being placed in that chair, he gave notice to that Court of Directors of his intention to bring before the notice of the Court the services of the late Marquis of Hastings, for the purpose of affording some aid to his family. That proposition was not received with that unanimity which he hoped, and he yielded to the general opinion of his colleagues, and withdrew his motion, giving notice at the same time that he would again bring the subject under their consideration. Accordingly he did bring forward a resolution, which was something like the one which had been just read to the Court, and he did so because he felt it to be his duty to place before the notice of the Court of Directors the services of the Marquis of Hastings, and the necessities of his family. He was quite sure that he had no right to mention the necessities of his family, if it were not for the services rendered by his family. He would take the liberty of stating what he knew to be the situation of the present Marquis of Hastings, and he trusted that when he had done so, the Court would concur in the view which the Court of Directors had taken. The Marquis of Hastings has succeeded to an entailed property of 4000l. per annum, and barely more than the possession of two mansions. The property of the Marquis of Hastings was under such difficulties as rendered it impossible for the present Marquis to avail himself of it. All the personalities belonging to the house were under pecuniary obligations to the creditors of the late Marquis. It was for the object of relieving these appurtenances that it was proposed the present grant should be made; and he hoped by that means that the present Marquis would be able to receive his mother and sisters in one of them. It was not for him to draw an invidious comparison, between the late Marquis of Hastings and the many distinguished persons who had held the Government in India; neither should he draw a parallel with the rewards which each had received. It was sufficient for him to state, that the Marquis of Hastings governed a longer period than any other Governor-General, with the exception of Warren Hastings. How he discharged that important duty was well known to that Court, it was known by the unanimously recorded facts of the general Court. It was well known that when he assumed the reins of Government in India, the Company's paper was at a discount. There was a war ready cut and dry to his hand, he repelled the aggression of the Nephars by force of arms, and also successfully terminated the attacks of the Pindarees. The Court at that time recorded their approbation of his conduct, of his military knowledge, zeal and ability in English words, and gave him as he himself called it, a princely donation

After having thus exercised the duties of Governor-General, turning his mind to finance and other matters, he signified a wish on account of family circumstances to be relieved from his important duties. The Court of Directors after having expressed their approbation of his services, signified their wish that he should remain in India till his successor arrived. How did he answer this desire of the Court of Directors? That his duty made him stay there as long as they should command. When he was relieved how did he leave the paper of the Company? He left it at a very high premium, and left the treasury full. These were the services of the Marquis of Hastings, and he felt sure, that when the executive applied to the Court of Proprietors to reward the services of their servants, be they high or low, they have never rejected the application. The noble youth who was the subject of the present liberal grant, would feel deeply grateful for it, as it was a mark of kindness from the East India Company towards his family, and a mark of approbation of the public services of his father, would prove some consolation to him under the deprivation providence had inflicted on him, and would never fail to be thankfully received by him. The hon. Chairman concluded by moving that the resolution be agreed to.

Mr. PATTISON stated, that as the motive for the grant had been most ably and clearly expressed by the hon. Chairman, he should now only second the motion and reserve himself for reply.

Mr. DIXON thought that no public body could act in a more liberal manner than the East India Company did; but, he thought that some further information ought to be adduced before the proprietors were called to declare their opinion on the present motion. If he remembered rightly a grant of 60,000*l.* had formerly been appropriated to the family of the Marquis of Hastings, and the impression on his mind that in consequence of great disregard, nay, total neglect of pecuniary matters by the late Marquis, the greater proportion of that grant was so settled, that his family should receive the benefit of it. Now he wished to know how much the family were receiving annually in consequence of that grant.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that that grant, amounting to 60,000*l.*, had been put in the hands of Trustees, for the purpose of being invested in the funds, and that the interest of that sum was entirely devoted to the Marquis and Marchioness of Hastings. Thus, during the life of the Marchioness, the family derive no benefit from that grant, but at her death it will be divided in certain proportions among the family of the late Marquis.

Mr. DIXON asked, whether he was to understand that the Marchioness of Hastings received no interest from that grant, and that the sum was to be divided at her death among the family.

The CHAIRMAN.—She receives the interest of the sum during her life.

Mr. DIXON said, that the more the matter was explained, the more reason appeared why the Proprietors should not give their votes with their eyes shut. He disapproved, however, of that part of the Resolution of the Court of Directors in which the distress of the family of the late Marquis of Hastings was represented as a situation to which they were 'reduced by the dispensation of Providence.' He considered this language ill applied in this instance; for if ever there was a man who had forgotten his duty to his wife and children, it was the late Marquis of Hastings, (*hear, hear!*) He hoped he should be excused if he said, that if the present Marquis had only 4,000*l.* a-year, such an income would go but a little

way to maintain his rank; and that it would, therefore, be more prudent if the proposed grant of 20,000*l.* were applied in some other way to his benefit than in fitting up a house in which he could live only in splendid misery. (*Hear!*)

The CHAIRMAN begged leave to offer an explanation of the object of the proposed grant. That object was to enable the Marchioness and her daughters, by living together, to join their means together for the purpose of maintaining that rank in society to which they were born. At the death of the present Marchioness, the noble lord would then become possessed of a fortune, though not so large as he might have been entitled to expect; and he had no doubt, from what he knew of the good habits of the noble youth, that he would live to bring back, by his prudence, the riches of his family.

Mr. HUME stated, that on the occasion when the grant of 60,000*l.* was proposed he had objected to it, because that reward was given to the Marquis of Hastings, not for his services as a statesman, but as a warrior. He thought, that if the Court of Proprietors had consulted their own dignity, they would have been more anxious to support the merit of an able statesman than that of a successful soldier. But the Court thought differently, and granted the 60,000*l.* to the noble Marquis for the talent and ability exhibited by him in his military capacity. He must confess, too, that he was very much disappointed at the manner in which this grant was brought forward. The value of the Marquis of Hastings as a Governor-General became known only when he was no longer in that situation, and he had expected, that before the present time the services of the noble Marquis as a statesman would have been brought under the consideration of the Court. That time had passed away, and the Marquis of Hastings was now no more. The words of the Resolution, he believed, were, that 'it would be consistent with the high character for liberality which had always been maintained by the East India Company, not to suffer the immediate successor of the late Marquis of Hastings to fall under the pressure of those circumstances to which he was reduced by the dispensation of Providence.' But the Court of Directors thought to retrieve their character for liberality by the present grant. There were two things to be considered in a grant;—first, the amount; and secondly, the manner. If ever there was a grant proposed to any public man more discreditable than another, the present was that; and if he were the Marquis of Hastings, he would rather starve on bread and water, than submit to receive a sum of money under such conditions; for when merit did call for public reward, that reward should be given in a way as gratifying to the receiver as to the giver. During the life-time of the noble Marquis attempts were made, though defeated by opposition, to offer him a suitable reward. In history he would stand as one of the greatest Governors-General that ever existed. One who held power during an extraordinary crisis, and brought several important affairs to a favourable conclusion, and left India in perfect peace; in which it might have remained to the present moment. He did not think it consistent with the character of this Court to agree to a grant of money on the conditions which were now proposed; and he submitted it to any man of common sense, or common feeling, whether the resolution was not degrading in the highest degree to every person concerned. In raising his voice against the terms of the resolution, he was willing, however, to agree to the amount of the money proposed. He would have submitted a much more plain and simple motion,—namely, that this Court, in testimony of the deep and im-

portant services of the Marquis of Hastings, do grant a further sum of 20,000*l.* to his son the present Marquis of Hastings. He thought that this simple grant would have been more consistent with the dignity of the Company. He held in his hand a statement, by which it appeared that the revenue of India, at the time the Marquis of Hastings went out, was 18 millions; but that when he returned it was 23 millions, making an increase of 5 millions. If the Court wished to act a liberal part, he entreated them to look to the grant they had given to a former Governor-General of 40,000*l.* for services expected, not for services actually performed. He wished to make one observation on what had fallen from an hon. Member near him respecting the private conduct of the Noble Marquis. When would they find a man of any eminence who had not his weak points? His embarrassments arose from his heart being open to the calls of humanity and misfortune. However, a public Company had nothing to do with the state of his finances. They were not to reward a man because he was poor, but on account of his public services. However much hon. Gentlemen might disapprove of a man for neglecting the affairs of his family, yet they ought to reflect that the evils fell upon that family, and not upon those who were benefitted by the individual. The title which the present Marquis of Hastings bore, it should be remembered, had been granted to his father by his Sovereign, in consideration of his services in India; and if this Court, when the circumstances of the family made it impossible for them to support that title with becoming dignity, should think proper to relieve them, he was sorry that their opinion would pass in the language which had been unfortunately agreed to by the Court of Directors. A simple and plain motion would have placed the grant on its proper footing. He should, however, in either case, concur in giving his support to the grant, though he considered it small; because he thought that to be gracious it should be passed unanimously, and he would be the last person to hazard any interruption of the unanimity of the Court on this occasion. He threw out his amendment in the shape of a suggestion, rather than of a formal motion.

Colonel STANHOPE highly approved of the spirit of justice and liberality in which the proposed grant had originated, though he disapproved of the terms in which the resolution was expressed. That part of it in which the Court complimented its own liberality, was awkward, and in bad taste. He recommended that it should be retrenched. Nevertheless, he thought the thanks of the Court were due to the Directors for their liberal conduct on this occasion, and in paying a tribute, which he considered not as a tribute paid to the distress of the family of the Marquis of Hastings, but to the virtues of the late illustrious Marquis. To praise the virtuous dead was excellent; but there was no sentiment more abused than that of '*de mortuis nil nisi bonum*.' To attack a living man was to inflict a real injury; but to attack a dead man was to do no injury at all. It was, however, honourable to praise the merits of the dead, and merits such as the Marquis of Hastings's was rarely to be met with. Let the Court look to his conduct in America, and to his conduct against the Pindarees, where he displayed the strongest proof of the knowledge of the art of his profession. Let them look to his struggles in favour of suffering Ireland, and there was a proof of his patriotism. His conduct in favour of suffering debtors afforded proof of his humanity, and his loyalty to his Prince was unaccompanied by any feeling of selfishness, or by any flattery. Under those circumstances, though he preferred the motion which had been read by an hon. Proprietor below him to the resolution

solution, in which the Directors had eulogized themselves, (hear,) yet he should give his vote for the original motion.

General THORNTON could not give a silent vote upon the present occasion. He should support the motion, though he could wish it had been couched in other terms. He would have been pleased to see the proposed grant larger, but as it was a great object to give a cordial vote on this occasion, he should not move any amendment.

Sir C. FORBES wished his hon. friend (Mr. Hume) had followed the example set by the Chair, and abstained from drawing comparisons between the services of the late Marquis of Hastings and his predecessors in the Government of India. He was sorry in particular to hear his hon. friend make observations tending to depreciate the services of Lord Wellesley, in comparison at least with those of Lord Hastings. [No, no!] He understood his hon. friend to have said, that the services of the Marquis of Hastings were infinitely superior to any of his predecessors.

Mr. HUME: I said they would bear a comparison with any. Sir C. FORBES admitted they would bear a comparison, but however he might respect the memory of Lord Hastings, his services must always fall before those of the Marquis of Wellesley, who had saved our empire in India by the destruction of the power of Tippoo Saib; again, by the suppression of the formidable power collected at Hyderabad, under General Raymond; and in the tremendous conflicts in the Deccan, with the Peishwah, Sindiah, and Holkar. Were the battles of Assye and Delhi, and all the splendid achievements of that time, to be forgotten? If Lord Hastings's services were long, why were not Lord Wellesley's equally so? Only because he was not permitted to remain to put the finishing hand to his vast and valuable services. Then as to grants: on the fall of Seringapatam, Lord Wellesley had the offer of a grant of 100,000*l.*, which he nobly and generously declined, because it was intended to have taken it from the spoils of Seringapatam. What was done for him? As he would not accept the principal, the Company gave him the interest during the remainder of their Charter. In fact, he believed the Noble Marquis repaid the annuity to this day. The honourable Baronet said he would deal but the same measure of justice to the family of the Marquis of Hastings as to others. Lord Cornwallis had received 2000*l.* a-year, and his son received a grant of 40,000*l.*, which was also equal to an income of 2000*l.* The Marquis of Hastings had received 60,000*l.*, which was equal to 3000*l.*, and it was now proposed to give his son 20,000*l.* more; so that it did not appear that the Marquis of Hastings's services had been rated below those of others. He admitted the great merits of the Marquis of Hastings as a financier; and for whatever had happened since he left the Government of India, of course he was nowise accountable. This grant clearly resulted from their difficulties, and it would be a liberal act on the part of the Company, though he would have been better pleased if the words had been left out in which they eulogised their own liberality. He would be well pleased also if this measure were coupled with another, which he was sure would meet the approbation of the whole Court; he meant that a statue (he meant) of the Marquis of Hastings should be placed in that room, amongst the heroes and statesmen whose effigies already adorned it (hear, hear). Then the late Lord Hastings, a more noble-minded gentleman, never existed (hear, hear). If he had come down from heaven his conduct would not please every body; yet he (Sir Charles Forbes) was quite sure that the more it was examined, the more it would

be approved. In finance the Marquis of Hastings had undoubtedly surpassed all former Governors-General.

Mr. DOUGLAS KINNAIRD thanked the hon. Baronet for the admissions which he had made in contesting the claims of the late Marquis of Hastings to the first station amongst the statesmen of India. On all hands, it was agreed that he was the most successful administrator of the affairs of that extensive country. His splendid fortune had been spent in mitigating the misfortunes of rank and birth suddenly hurled from their elevation. His name was connected with the best recollections of the circumstances attending the French revolution. When he received his appointment to India, he was compelled to raise the means of equipping himself, by anticipating, at the very outset, the greatest possible benefit he could derive from the Company's service. It had been asked what had become of the 60,000*l.*? The broad fact was, that Lord and Lady Hastings had sold their life interest in the money vested in the trustees, in order to pay debts incurred by the late Marquis's service when he accepted the Government of India. The hon. gentleman then stated in detail his objections to the mode in which this grant was proposed. The more Lord Hastings's family were in difficulties, the more delicate ought to be the conduct of the Company in relieving them. He declared to God he would sooner cut his hand off than have signed that resolution. He would vote for it, because, at any rate, it contained a recognition of the Marquis's services, though he sincerely regretted that it was so worded. He regretted that the revenues of the Company were not in a condition to allow of a larger grant. The Marquis of Hastings went out to India with all the disadvantages of a man unacquainted with the habits and manner of thinking of the Natives, but with an energy unprecedented in history, finding his own agents of contrary opinions to himself, having scarcely any support from others, he acted on his own responsibility, and the result had been most successful. The Marquis of Hastings ought to be painted like Pericles, with Fortune at his feet. He would give his voice for the present motion, though he was very sorry to see it worded as it was. The more legitimate object of the grant would have been to enable the family of the Marquis of Hastings to assemble round their own hearth,—that place which was consecrated by some of the best virtues exercised by their father to suffering virtue.

Mr. ASTELL said, that being one of the Directors who had withheld his signature to the Resolution, he felt, after what had passed, that he ought to state his view of the question. For that purpose, it was necessary to make known much more than the Chairman had stated. In his opinion, it did not become any deliberative body to vote a sum of money without sufficient information. The grant was recommended, in the Resolution of the Court of Directors, on the plea of the necessities of the Noble Lord, but it had been argued by the Chairman on the ground of the late Marquis's services; an ample reward had been given to those services in 1819, by the grant of 60,000*l.* That sum was vested in the names of trustees, for the benefit of the family, as it was unluckily notorious, that if it had been given directly to the late Marquis it would have been transferred immediately to his creditors. The Court had been that day told, by the hon. Proprietor who had spoken last, that this annuity had been sold by the noble lord and his lady, so far as their life-interest was concerned; and the hon. Gentleman had wished it to be inferred, that they had been compelled to this act by debts incurred in order to enable the Marquis of Hastings to take on himself the government of India. But it appeared, in fact, that the sale had been made the year

after their return to this country, and he (Mr. Astell) would say, that it was extremely discreditable to them. The object of the Court of Directors had been defeated. This fact had been incidentally mentioned, but it ought to be borne in mind in considering this application. There was not a single document before the General Court relative to this grant. The facts were all kept out of view. As a guardian of the Company's funds he was bound to tell the General Court, that in 1823 a proposition was made to the Court of Directors to give the noble Lord 5000*l.* It was negatived, eight only having voted for it. It afterwards pleased the Committee of Correspondence to entertain the subject, at the instance of Sir George Robinson. At the end of two days' debate, it was negatived. A proposition was then made by the Chairman, to give 40,000*l.* to the noble Lord and his family. His services were taken as the groundwork of this grant. The Court of Directors again negatived the proposition. It was, however, withdrawn, and the Chairman had liberty to bring forward another. A new proposition was accordingly made, which was met by an amendment, that enough had been done for Lord Hastings and his family; with a slight alteration of words, this proposition was that now before the Court. The necessities of the present Marquis form the ground of this appeal to the sympathy of the Court. He (Mr. Astell) called on his nineteen colleagues, who had signed the Resolution, to say whether that was not their motive. He, however, was of opinion, that neither liberality nor justice had any thing to do with the question. The late Marquis himself, when he received the 60,000*l.* voted by the Company, styled it a princely donation. To go beyond that, would be an excess of liberality. These were his sentiments, and he felt it his duty to declare them. Not only had he not signed the Resolution; but he would resist it by all the means in his power.

Mr. WIGRAM was one of those who had not signed the resolution, though he admitted the high services of the Marquis of Hastings. The Hon. Director then stated the several times that a motion for granting had been brought before the Court of Directors, and had always been negatived, and stated that those were the reasons why he could never bring up his mind to agree to the proposed grant. Besides, before they voted this sum of money, the Court ought to know how the rest of the family were situated.

The CHAIRMAN said, that on his first proposition, he had stated not only the situation of the Noble Marquis, but of his sisters also. He had omitted the latter part in his notice that day, as the Court of Directors had not sanctioned his first application. He trusted the General Court would act liberally towards the Marquis's family, as he had been an able steward of their affairs.

Mr. WIGRAM thought, that if the circumstances of one part of the family were mentioned, the circumstances of the whole ought to be brought forward.

Mr. CAMPBELL observed, that it had been contended to-day, that the present grant was to be given in consideration of the poverty of the family of the Marquis of Hastings. If the Marquis of Hastings had not been in the service of the Company, with what countenance could the Chairman have come forward to propose this grant to the present Marquis: The services of the late Marquis were the ground, and the poverty of his family was the motive, of the present grant. A distinction should be

made between the ground and the motive. In his opinion, Lord Hastings's services had not been adequately rewarded. The grant of 60,000*l.* was sufficient up to 1819, but were his subsequent services of no value? The Noble Lord had remained in India three years at the request of the Court of Directors, and was no reward to be given for his services during that period?

The DEPUTY CHAIRMAN said, it was the misfortune of those who argued a question warmly, to press altogether on one point. In this case, the parties had agreed that something was due to a merciful consideration of the state of the Noble Marquis's family, as well as to his services to the Company. In order to bring all parties to unison, they had consented to incorporate mercy with justice. The vital purpose of the grant of 60,000*l.* had been gained; for though Lord and Lady Hastings had vested their life interests, estates worth 1800*l.* a-year had been purchased for the family. The objections to the grant urged by his two friends (Mr. Astell and Mr. Wigram) amounted to as little as he ever heard from any two gentlemen in that Court (*a laugh*)—in fact, to nothing (*a laugh*).

Mr. JAMES STUART contended that the services of the Marquis of Hastings had been more amply rewarded than those of Lord Cornwallis or Lord Wellesley, but he thought that the family of Lord Hastings was entitled to the generous sympathy of the Court.

The CHAIRMAN said, that as so much had been said about comparative grants, he would state them. To the Marquis Cornwallis an annuity of 5000*l.* had been granted for twenty years, and afterwards a further sum of 40,000*l.* to his son. To the Marquis Wellesley an annuity of 5000*l.* had in like manner been granted at first for twenty years; it had been afterwards extended to the term of his natural life. He (the Chairman) then had not been so far wrong, when, with a view to comparative grants, he had originally proposed 40,000*l.* for the family of Lord Hastings.

Mr. STUART had no intention of instituting a comparison between the services of the different Governors-General. Perhaps it was not necessary to say, that the Deccan prize-money ought to be taken into consideration as forming part of the award to Lord Hastings.

Sir JOHN DOYLE remarked, in reply to the Hon. Director (Mr. Stuart), that the prize-money to which he alluded was a grant from the King in the first instance. As well might they debit the Marquis of Hastings with 20,000*l.* if he had received that sum from the Lottery while in their service.

Mr. D. KINNAIRD stated, that in consequence of the delays that had occurred in the payment of the Deccan prize-money, an accumulation of interest was accruing on some debts owing by the late Marquis of Hastings in India, which would eat up the whole of the prize-money whenever it might be received.

Mr. STUART admitted, that in that case his argument failed.

Colonel CARLO DOYLE assured the Court, that of his own knowledge he could inform them, that the late Marquis's share of the prize-money would be absorbed by his debts in India with the interest. It would yet be a long time before the prize-money claims could be satisfactorily arranged. It was only lately that the prize-rolls had come over from India.

Mr. TRANT supported the motion on the same grounds as were assigned by the Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN said, that with regard to the Deccan prize-money, every

facility had been given by the East India Company in order that the money might be paid to the captors:

Colonel C. DOYLE imputed no blame to the Company. The chief blame, he believed, rested with the Officers commanding regiments not transmitting the prize-rolls.

Mr. D. KINNAIRD had heard the declaration of the Chairman with great satisfaction.

Sir C. FORBES asked whether it would be agreeable to the Court for him to propose his motion for a statue, as an addition to this resolution, or as a separate motion?

Mr. S. DIXON rose to order. He objected to have the proceedings of the day interrupted by the introduction of a new and separate question.

Sir C. FORBES could not see why it was not eligible to dispose of his motion at once, but as that course was objected to, he gave notice of his intention to bring it forward at the next General Court.

The CHAIRMAN then put the question, on the motion for the grant of 20,000*l.* to the Marquis of Hastings.

The motion was carried in the affirmative, with only the dissent of two Directors and two Proprietors.

EXPENCES OF GENERAL COURT AND BALLOTS.

General THORNTON stated, that it would be remembered that at a former Court, it had been stated by the late Chairman, that if any Proprietor, desirous of putting questions to the Chair, would send his questions in writing to the Secretary before the meeting of the Court, he would receive an answer to them when the business of the Court would allow. He had been desirous of knowing what was the expense to which the Company was put, in consequence of a Proprietor calling a Special Court, or demanding a ballot. He understood the Company was put to several hundred pounds' expense for these purposes; he had, therefore, sent a written question, respecting those circumstances, to the then Chairman, but to his surprise, when he asked the question in Court, he could get no answer. If the Chairman would answer the question now, it would save him the trouble of putting the motion of which he had given notice.

The CHAIRMAN was not aware of the communication to which the hon. Proprietor alluded; but he would not state to him that the expense of calling a Special Court was 15*l.*, and that of demanding a ballot 45*l.*

General THORNTON then withdrew his motion.

NEW STAMP REGULATION.

Captain MAXFIELD stated, that he brought this subject before the notice of the Court because he thought the question was extremely important. A doubt existed respecting the legality of the New Stamp Regulation, but upon that point he was not disposed to entertain any doubts. He might, perhaps, be told that, since the Stamp Act was in force in the provinces, there could be no objection to its being put into operation at Calcutta. The Stamp Regulations were, however, introduced into the provinces in order to prevent litigation; but that was the worst reason for introducing them among commercial transactions. The value of the stamps imposed in India, was treble that imposed in this country. He would presently read to the Court a petition from the merchants of Calcutta, to the Vice-President and Council. The manufacturers of India had been ruined by the introduction of machinery, and he expected that there was

a demand in that country for English silks, cottons, &c., but the subject would soon cease to be one of exultation, unless some means were devised of getting rid of the raw produce of India. The revenue, to be properly increased, ought to be increased from the different branches of commerce. What was the revenue derived from stamps? In 1825, the revenue derived from that duty was 22 lacs 96,000 rupees, while the charges upon it was more than 6 lacs 294 rupees, being a charge of more than 7 per cent. upon the revenue. Perhaps he might be told that this only harmonized with the other parts of the system; but that the revenue was badly managed in one department, was a poor excuse for its being badly managed in another department. Injurious as the Stamp Regulations were in Calcutta, they were still more severely felt in the provinces. Introduced, as they were, for the purpose of preventing litigation, they had also the effect of debarring the Natives from their right of appeal. He once caught a Native writer of his writing a petition for a poor Native. The writer told him that the Native could not buy paper on which to write his wrongs, for the purpose of getting them redressed! He (Capt. Maxfield) at first felt indignant towards the writer for libelling, as he considered, the Government, but when he knew the truth, his indignation was changed into sympathy. The hon. Proprietor, after stating the aversion felt by the Natives to be under the jurisdiction of the Provincial Courts, was about to read the petition to which he had alluded in the course of his speech, when

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the Court of Directors had not received the petition which the hon. Proprietors was about to read. He thought the hon. Proprietor had better wait till the Court received that petition, and it would then be competent for him to call for its production.

Capt. MAXFIELD said, he should read the petition as part of his speech.

The CHAIRMAN stated, that the Court of Directors could not promise to take into consideration a paper, of the existence of which they were ignorant.

Mr. HUME said, he had intended to have called the attention of the Court to this subject, but at present it would, perhaps be enough to put two questions to the Chairman. The first was, whether these new stamp regulations had received the mature consideration of the Court of Directors. The second, whether a petition, signed by nine-tenths of the European and native commercial inhabitants, had been referred home by the Bengal Government; and if so, whether it was under the consideration of the Court of Directors.

The CHAIRMAN said, in answer to the first question, that the regulations had been appointed by the Court of Directors. They had been made in India, and referred home, where they had been approved. In reply to the second question, he could state that no petition of the inhabitants of Calcutta had reached the Court of Directors; and that he did not know, therefore, to what decision the Bengal Government had come with regard to it.

Mr. HUME: The regulations state, that after May 1st, 1827, they were to be in force. Do you know whether the stamp duties had commenced?

The CHAIRMAN: We have no advice as to that fact. Our communication with the Government of India is not sufficiently late.

Mr. HUME censured this, as an act of extraordinary negligence on the part of the local authorities. There never was a greater instance of want of attention to the interests of the Company and the country. It was a

proof of their utter incapacity to rule over the population submitted to them. He would at the next Court move the strongest vote of censure that could be framed, against this attempt to suppress the public complaints.

The CHAIRMAN remarked, that the hon. Gentleman was premature in his censures. The Governor-General was absent when this petition was presented, and no official account of any of these proceedings had been received.

Capt. MAXFIELD, asked whether he was to understand that the Court of Directors were ignorant of the existence of this petition.

The CHAIRMAN replied in the affirmative.

Capt. MAXFIELD then gave notice, that he would at the next quarterly court or earlier if possible, bring forward a motion on the subject of the stamp regulations recently passed at Calcutta.

Mr. WIGRAM deprecated the line of conduct pursued by hon. Proprietors in condemning a Government by wholesale. The petition mentioned by the gallant Proprietor had not reached the Court of Directors, it is true, but hon. Proprietors must allow time for the Government of India to consider upon the subject.

Mr. HUME wished to know, whether during the time that the Government abroad were considering on the subject, the Stamp Regulations were suspended, if not, he thought the conduct of the Government unjust towards the petitioners.

After a few words from Mr. Trant, the motion was withdrawn.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT IN INDIA.

Colonel L. STANHOPE gave notice that he would, at the next Quarterly General Court, bring forward the following motion:—

1. That a petition from the debtors in the great jail at Calcutta, presented by Mr. John Palmer, and recommended by the magistrates, merchants, agents, of shopkeepers of that city to the Vice-President in Council, is entitled to the attention of the Court of Directors.

2. That it appears by the petition, that neither the insolvent nor bankruptcy laws of England extend to British India, and that the debtors are there subjected to cruel, unjust, and unnecessary imprisonment, without reference to the nature and extent of their debts, but depending on the caprice of their creditors.

3. That in 1812, one hundred debtors were liberated from Calcutta jail, under the operation of the Insolvent Act, one of whom had been in that hot jail for eighteen years, and that, when in 1813 this act was made permanent in England, it was not extended to British India.

4. That fourteen years had since elapsed, and though the Court of Directors have extended the spirit of the Insolvent Act under their immediate Presidencies, still debtors in the metropolis of the three Presidencies (under the laws of England,) are yet doomed to perpetual imprisonment. Thus one prisoner has been fourteen years, two have been twelve, and one has been eleven years in the sultry and offensive dungeons of Calcutta.

5. That this Court doth, therefore, humbly recommend the Court of Directors to use all their influence in order to extend the insolvent and bankruptcy laws to British India, and to aid in establishing, here, as in London, a society for the relief of unfortunate debtors, (the operation of benevolent exertion,) being in truth the only palliative applicable to the present system of English procedure.

The Court then adjourned.

CIVIL AND MILITARY APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, AND CHANGES, IN INDIA.

[B. signifies Bombay—M. Madras—and C. Calcutta.]

Alexander, R., Lieut., 48th N. I., to be Capt., v. Youngson, prom.—M. Feb. 9.
Awdry, J. D., Lieut., 1st N. I., to be Quart.-Mast., Interp., and Pay-Mast., v. Hodge, placed under orders of Government of Fort-Cornwallis.—M. Feb. 9.
Aldritt, J., Lieut., Artill., to be Capt., v. Gamage, dec.—M. Feb. 9.
Atkinson, U. H., Lieut., Engineers, to be 2d Lieut.—M. Feb. 9.
Anderson, G. U. Mr., to be Fourth Judge of the Sudder Dewance and Sudder Foudary Awdawlut, and Commissioner for Civ. and Crim. Justice in the Decan.—B. March 29.
Barton, N. D., Lieut., 6th Lt. Cav., permitted, at his own request, to resign the Adjutantcy.—C. March 14.
Beatson, W. F., 54th N. I., to be Adj., v. Urquhart resigned.—C. March 14.
Burt, T. W., Assist.-Surg., appointed to the Med. Duties of the Civ. Station, Megalmsinsing, v. Roe, removed.—C. April 6.
Blair, Lieut., 10th Lt. Cav., to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast., in the absence of Lieut. Skipton.—C. April 2.
Burnet, Brig., appointed to the Command of the Eastern frontier.—C. April 2.
Bain, J., Assist.-Surg., is placed at the disposal of the Med. Board in the How. Company's Dispensary.—C. April 2.
Buckle, E., Lieut., Engineer, to be Lieut.—M. Feb. 9.
Baker, B., Maj., 4th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. Feb. 16.
Biscoe, J., Lieut., posted to 40th N. I.—C. March 21.
Beardon, First-Assist., of the Garrison of Fort-William, to be Med. Officer to the Agent for the Gov.-Gen. on the N. E. frontier.—C. March 23.
Bell, H. B., Assist.-Surg., M. D., to be 2d Assist.-Gar.-Surg. of Fort-William, v. Spiers, prom.—C. March 23.
Butler, Ens., 55th N. I., to do duty with the 17th N. I.—C. March 26.
Bax, J. M., to be Secretary to Government, in the territorial and commercial Department.—B. March 29.
Black, W., Mr., to be Judge and Magist. of the Dist. of Rajeshaby.—C. Feb. 22.
Barbor, Lieut., 8th Lt. Cav., to act as Adjutant.—C. March 26.
Barret, J., Ens., (lately admitted,) to do duty with 62d N. I.—C. March 26.
Beecher, G., Lieut.-Col., 3d Lt. Cav. to officiate as Sec. to the Mil. Board, Commis.-Dep. during the absence of Capt. Young.—C. March 2.
Brooke, H. K. M., Ens., to do duty with 65th N. I. at Neemuch.—C. March 2.
Bacon, M. G. U., to be Magistrate of Cawnpore.—March 29.
Clarke, Mr., W. C., to be Assist.-Judge at Surat.—B. April 5.
Cracklow, H., Lieut., 22d N. I., to be Acting-Adjutant to a Field Detachment.—B. March 29.
Cunningham, W., Brev. Capt., 44th Madras N. I., to be Dep.-Assist.-Quart.-Mast.-Gen. to a Brigade.—B. March 31.
Collins, G. Mr., admitted a Cadet of Infantry, and prom. to Ens.—B. March 16.
Campbell, H. B., Lieut., to act as Adj. to the left wing of the Gren. Reg. N. I.—B. March 8.
Campbell, R. N., Lieut., 4th N. I., permitted to place his services at disposal of Government of Cornwallis.—M. Feb. 9.
Church, C., Lieut., 4th N. I., to be Adj., v. Campbell.—M. Feb. 9.
Crawford, W., Mr., to be Register of the Zillah Court at Sharunpore.—C. March 27.
Collins, C. Y. C., Lieut., posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 21.
Campbell, Lieut., 5th N. I., transferred to Pension List.—C. March 23.
Candy, G., Lieut., 3d N. I., placed at the disposal of the Commander-in-Chief.—B. Feb. 22.
Candy, T., Lieut., 20th N. I., placed at the disposal of the Commander-in-Chief.—B. Feb. 22.
Hayman, H., Assist.-Surg. app. to the Civil Station of Chittagong, v. Graham.—C. March 23.

Promotions and Changes in India.

Cowley, Lieut., 35th N. I., to act as Adjutant.—C. March 26.
Currie, Mr., F., to be Magistrate of Gorruckpore.—C. March 1.
Cull, A. D., Ens., 4th N. I., permitted to resign.—C. March 2.
Chester, C., Lieut., 23d N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—C. March 9.
Child, T. S., Assist.-Surg., appointed to the Med. charge of the Estab. at Hissar, v. Pennington, promoted.—C. April 6.
Croxtan, Lieut.-Col. Command., rem. from the 10th to 46th N. I.—C. April 2.
De Butts, A. Lieut., Engin. to be 2d Lieut.—M. Feb. 9.
Deedes, E., Mr., to be Head Assist. to the Export Warehouse.—C. March 22.
Dickson, C., Ens. 51st N. I. on furl. to Europe for health.—C. March 23.
Dawkins, Adjutant, 10th Light Cav. to be Brigade-Major on the Establishment.—C. Mar. 23.
Dawkins, C. D., Lieut., 2d Light Cav. to be Brigade-Major, and posted to Neemuch, vice Honeywood.—C. Mar. 2.
Day, Lieut., to act as Adj. and Quar.-Mas. to Detach. 6th Batt. during absence of Lieut. Hon. H. B. Dalzell.—C. Mar. 2.
Dundas, T. G., Lieut., to act as Interpreter and Quarter-Master 4th N. I., in the absence of Lieut. Boisragon.—C. Mar. 1.
Duncan, Assistant Surgeon, appointed to the Medical charge of the 17th N. I.—C. Mar. 1.
Davidson, T. R., Mr. to be Magis. of Chittagong.—C. Mar. 8.
Dashwood, F., Lieut., Artill. to be Quart.-Mast. of the 2d Brigade Horse Artill., vice Johnson, on furlough.—C. Mar. 14.
Dalby, Assist. Apothecary, is attached to the General Staff.—C. April 2.
Dent, Mr. J., to be Collect. and Magis. of Musulputam.—M. March 21.
Dampier, H., Lieut., 12th N. I. to act as Interpreter to the left wing of the 1st Light Cavalry at Rajcote.—B. March 29.
Dickson, W., Col., (C. B.) 7th Light Cav., to command the Brigade force at Dooab.—B. March 31.
Dunlop, J. A., Mr., to be Judge and Session Judge of Poona and Shoolapora, and Agent for the Adjustment of Claims against Sirdars in the Deccan.—B. March 29.
Dickson, J. M., Ens. 14th N. I., Interp. in Hindoostance, to be likewise Interp. in the Mahratta language.—B. March 26.
Dunsterville, J. H., Captain, to be Paymaster at the Presidency, vice James.—B. March 16.
Elliott, T. C., Mr., admitted Assistant-Surgeon.—C. Mar. 30.
Edwards, J., Lieut., to be Adj. and Quart.-Mast. of 1st Batt. Foot Artill., vice McGregor, on furlough.—C. Mar. 14.
Elliot, M. D., to be Secretary to the Board of Revenue.—M. March 21.
Erskine, J., Mr., to be Assistant Judge at Kaira.—B. April 5.
Foley, R., Assist.-Surg., posted to 1st N. I.—C. Mar. 2.
Foquette, H., Lieut., to be Adj., vice Thomson promoted.—C. Mar. 14.
Farquharson, J. H., Mr., to be acting Deputy Collect. of Customs and Town Duties at the Presidency.—B. April 4.
Fullerton, W., Mr., to be 3d Assistant-Collector of the Customs at Poona.—B. April 4.
Farquharson, E. A., Lieut., of the Horse Artill., on furlough to Europe for health.—B. March 20.
Fraser, J. W., Lieut. Artillery, to be Quarter-Master and Interp. to the Hindoostance and Mahratta languages to 2d Batt.—B. March 22.
Gordon, A. D., Lieut., 4th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. April 7.
Goldingham, J., Mr., to be Junior Deputy Secretary to the Board of Revenue.—M. March 21.
Grant, Mr. E., to be Judge and Criminal Judge at Kaira.—B. April 5.
Gilberne, G., Mr., to be Collector at Candesh.—B. April 4.
Graham, J. W., Major, Interpreter to the Supreme Court of Judicature, placed at the disposal of the Command-in-Chief for regimental duty.—B. March 23.
Graham, J., Major, to be attached to Malwa Field Force.—B. March 16.
Grant, J. P., Assist.-Surgeon, to proceed with troops to Prince of Wales Island.—M. Feb. 28.

Graham, W., Assist.-Surgeon, M.D., permitted at his own request to resign.—C. March 23.
 Gifford, C. T. W. P., Ens., posted to 42d N. I.—C. Mar. 3.
 Griffin, J. P., Capt. Inv. Bat. posted to 2d Bat.—C. Mar. 5.
 Garden, A., Surg., Med. Storekeeper at Saugor, appointed to the Medical charge of Artill. on that station.—C. Mar. 5.
 Graham, J., Capt., Barrack-Master to resume charge of the Engineer Department.—B. March 8.
 Graham, D., Lieut. 19th N. I., to act as Adjutant to the Left Wing at Jaitpore.—B. March 8.
 Hawking, J., Mr., to be Regist. of the 24th Pergunnahs, and Joint Magis. at Baraset.—C. March 8.
 Heyland, A., Mr., to be Regist. of the Zillah Court at Nuddeah.—April 5.
 Hamerton, A., Lieut., 15th N. I., to be Acting Adj. to a Field Detachment.—B. March 29.
 Hutchinson, G., Capt., 24th M. N. I., to be Brigade Maj.—B. March 31.
 Hewett, W. N., Capt., 5th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.
 Hare, A., Capt., 14th N. I., on furlough to Europe.—B. March 15.
 Hodge, Lieut., 1st N. I., placed under orders of Government of Fort-Cornwallis.—M. Feb. 9.
 Hill, H. H., Lieut., posted to 40th N. I.—C. March 21.
 Hogg, Lieut., 8th Lt. Cav., to act as Quart.-Mast. and Interp.—C. March 26.
 Hall, J. W., Lieut., 14th N. I., to be Capt. v. Currie, resigned.—C. March 2.
 Honeywood, Brig.-Maj., 2d Lt. Cav., appoint. to the command of the Governor's Guard.—C. March 2.
 Hall, C. B., Lieut., to be Adj. to Detachment of 25th N. I., v. Hay resigned.—C. March 1.
 Heberington, A. C., Lieut., 1st Gren. Regt. N. I., to act as Adj. to a Detachment of the Guzerat Provincial Bat., at Kaira.—B. March 8.
 Hewitt, M., Sen. Surg., to succeed Superintending Surg. Kernball.—B. Feb. 17.
 Hart, L. W., Lieut., 22d N. I., to be Quart.-Mast. and Interp. v. M'Intosh on furlough.—B. Feb. 24.
 Irwin, J. A., Mr., Regist. of Juanpore, and Joint Magistrate at Azeemghur.—C. March 1.
 Johnson, C. H., Lieut., 12th N. I., to act as Adj. to Lt. Companies of the Evrop. and Nat. Regts. at Poona.—B. March 26.
 James, C. B., Capt., to be first Assist. Com.-Gen., and attached to the Surat Div. of the Army.—B. March 16.
 Jellicoe, Lieut., 55th N. I., to act as Adj. during the indisposition of Lieut. Scott.—C. March 28.
 Jelf, C., Ens., to do duty with the 7th N. I.—C. March 28.
 James, Lieut., 68th N. I., to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast.—C. March 7.
 Jacob, Assist.-Surg., app. to the Medical Charge of the 6th Local Horse Tangor Division.—C. March 7.
 Jarvis, E., Maj. 3d Lt. Cav. service, is placed at the disposal of the Com.-in-Chief for regt. duty.—B. March 23.
 Jacob, G. L., Lieut., Quart.-Mast. and Interp. in Hindoostance, to be also Interp. of Mahrat. Lang. to 2d N. I.—B. March 26.
 Kerr, A., Capt., 7th Lt. Cav., to be Maj. of Brigade at Dooab.—B. March 31.
 Leighton, Lieut.-Col. Com. (C. B.) to assume the com. of a Div. of the Army at the Presidency.—B. March 16.
 Long, S., Capt., to be attached to the Force in Cutch.—B. March 20.
 Moore, J., Sen. Maj., 48th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col. Infantry, v. Jollie, deceased.—M. Feb. 9.
 Miller, G., Lieut., post. to 25th N. I.—C. March 21.
 Marshall, B., Lieut., post. to 25th N. I.—C. March 21.
 Miller, Lieut., 40th N. I., to be Adj., Interp., and Quart.-Mast., v. Margrave and Vaurenen.—C. March 22.
 Margrave, Lieut., rem. from 40th to 25th N. I.—C. March 23.

Maling, C. S., Lieut. 18th N. I., to take charge of the recruits and men at Barrackpore, and proceed with them to Arracan.—C. March 5.
 Millett, F., Mr., to be Judge of Jessore.—C. March 8.
 Murray, W., Lieut., 2d N. I., to be Capt. by Brev.—C. March 16.
 Morton, J., Ens., (lately admitted,) to do duty with 58th N. I.—C. March 12.
 M'Gregor, W., Lieut., 3d Ex. N. I., to be Adj. v. Beatson rem.—C. March 14.
 Mercer, H. S., Surg., rem. from the 1st Proximo Surg., to the Sanatarian and the Officers of Gen.-Staff at the Presidency.—C. March 30.
 Montgomerie, E., Mr., to be Act. Assist. to the Col. of Customs, and the town duties at the Presidency.—B. April 4.
 Mitchell, J., Lieut., 15th N. I., to act as Interp. to the 5th N. I.—B. March 29.
 Martin, S., Lieut.-Col., 4th Lt. Cav. to command Brigade.—B. March 31.
 Napier, A., Ens., posted to 2d N. I.—C. March 17.
 Neilson, Surgeon 7th Lt. Cav., to take charge of Civ. Med. duties at Shollapoor.—B. Feb. 24.
 O'Reilly, Capt., 46th N. I. retired.—M. Feb. 9.
 O'Donnaghue, M., Assist.-Surg. M. D., appointed to the Civil Station of Commerce.—C. March 23.
 O'Hara, C., Lieut. 4th Lt. Cav., to be Adj. v. Barton resigned.—C. March 14.
 Pears, T. T., Lieut. Engin., to be 2d Lieut.—M. Feb. 9.
 Pinson, A., to be Sen. Lieut. 46th N. I. v. O'Reilly, retired.—M. Feb. 9.
 Prinsep, Mr. H. T., to be Agent to the Gov.-Gen. in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories.—C. March 23.
 Pigou, Mr. H. M., to be Judge and Magistrate of Cuttack.—C. March 8.
 Pepper, H. M., Lieut. of Artill., to be Assist.-Superinten. of Roads in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories.—C. March 8.
 Phipps, W., Lieut. to act as Adj. to 22d N. I. v. Cracklow.—B. March 29.
 Pope, G., Lieut., 23d N. I. to act as Quart.-Mast., &c.—B. March 8.
 Rowlandson, C., Sen. Ens., 46th N. I. to be Lieut. v. Pinson, prom.—M. Feb. 9.
 Ramsay, D., Ens., 14th N. I. to be Lieut. v. Hull, promoted.—C. March 2.
 Rose, W. K. M., Assist.-Surg., posted to 3d Lt. Cav.—C. March 14.
 Roe, Assist.-Surg., removed from Mymensing to Tipperah.—C. April 6.
 Roberts, Mr. C., to be principal Collector and Magistrate of the North Div. of Arcot.—M. March 21.
 Roberts, Mr. A., to be Senior Dep.-Secretary to the Board of Revenue.—M. March 21.
 Reid, Mr. L. R., to be Collector in the Southern Concan.—B. March.
 Reynolds, J., Capt., to be attached to the Baroda Subsidiary Force.—B. March 20.
 Shuldham, J., Maj.-Gen., rem. from 46th to the 10th N. I.—C. April 2.
 Steven, Mr. J., to be Assist.-Judge at Ahmednuggur.—B. April 5.
 Seton, Mr. A., to be third Assist. to the Collector of Ahmednuggur.—B. April 4.
 Sparrow, J. J., to be Collector of Customs and Town Duties.—B. March.
 Swanson, Lieut., Deputy Assist. to the Executive Engineer, on the southern Concan.—B. March 27.
 Simpson, G. W. Y., Second Lieut. Artill., to be First Lieut. v. Rudyerd, deceased.—M. Feb. 9.
 Shuckburgh, H. A., Lieut., posted to 40th N. I.—C. March 21.
 Sprax, T., Assist.-Surg. M. D., to be 1st Assist. in the Garrison of Fort William v. Bredon, promoted.—C. March 28.
 Shortbreed, Lieut., 2d Eur. Reg. to act as Adjutant v. Stewart, resigned the Adjutancy from ill health.—C. March 26.
 Smith, Mr. G. H., to be Assist. to Magistrate, and to the Collector of Hooghly.—C. March 1.
 Smith, T., Surg., to be Superintending Surg. on the estab., and posted to Allahabad v. Durham, proceeded to Europe.—C. March 2.
 Savage, J., Surg., to do the Med. duties of the Civil Station, at Moorshedabad, v. Smith.—C. March 2.

Sewell, T., Lieut., 11th N. I., to officiate as agent for army clothing 2d Division, v. Mackenzie.—C. March 2.
 Scott, J. W., Lieut., Artill., on furlough to Europe for health.—C. March 9.
 Spens, A., Lieut., to act as Adj. to the left wing 6th Extra N. I.—C. March 1.
 Scotland, Lieut., 7th N. I., to be station Staff Officer at Tavoy.—C. March 7.
 Taylor, C., Ens., 48th N. I., to Lieut., v. Massita invalid.—M. Feb. 9.
 Terraneau, C., Ens., 5th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Campbell, transf. to the Pension List.—C. March 23.
 Thompson, D., Lieut., 56th N. I., to be Brig. Maj. v. Cook, rem.—C. March 2.
 Tytler, J., to be Garrison-Surg. at Chunar, v. Playfair.—C. March 16.
 Trotter, Major, of Inval. Estab. to do duty with the 1st Bat.—C. March 7.
 Taylor, J. M., to be Collector of Broach.—B. April 4.
 Thomas, R., Major, 1st Lt. Cav. to assume the command of the Brigade in Kattywar.—B. March 29.
 Troward, A., Lieut., Line Adj. at Kajapoor, to take charge of Artill. Detachment Stores, &c.—B. March 29.
 Tapp, T., Lieut., 1st Europe Regt. commanding the Subundees in the North Concan, is appointed to the Gen. Staff Office at Asseerghur, v. H. Kensington res.—B. March 8.
 Vanreneu, Lieut., removed from 40th to 25th N. I.—C. March 22.
 Vetch, Lieut., 54th N. I., posted to the Presidency.—March 1.
 Vansandw, Lieut., of Rungpore Light Inf. Bat. to act as Adj. in the absence of Lieut. Kennedy.—C. March 7.
 Vibart, J. M., to be Collector of Ahmedabad.—B. April 4.
 Vardon, W., Lieut., 1st Lt. Cav., to be acting Quart.-Mast. to the left wing at Rattywar.—B. March 29.
 Waddington, C., Capt., Engineer to the Commissary Stores Depart. at Baroda.—B. March 29.
 Wilks, H., Lieut., 1st Lt. Cav., to be acting Adj. to the left wing at Rattywar.—B. March 29.
 Wilson, P., Capt., 2d Lt. Cav., on furlough to Europe for health.—B. March 30.
 Watts, J., Capt., 1st Europe Regt., to take charge of the Commissariat attached to the troops of Bombay Estab.—B. March 31.
 Wade, A. T., Ens., 18th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Campbell deceased.—B. Feb. 26.
 Watts, R., Lieut., 40th N. I., to be Quarter Master, Interpreter, and Pay Master, v. Alexander, prom.—M. Feb. 9.
 Wynne, G. P., Assist.-Surg., appointed to the Civil Station of Patna, v. Thomson.—C. March 23.
 Wilder, F. B. S., Mr., to be Resident at Nagpore.—C. March 23.
 Wingfield, W., Lieut., 10th Lt. Cav., to be Adj. v. Dawkins, prom.—C. March 23.
 Williams, Ens., 40th N. I., to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast.—C. March 28.
 Williams, J., Mr., to be Collector of Sea Customs in the Concan.—B. April 4.
 Youngson, T., Capt., 48th N. I., to be Major, v. Moore, prom.—M. Feb. 9.

BIRTHS.

Adam, the lady of Lieut. A., Paymaster of his Majesty's the Nizam's bat., of a daughter, at Aurungabad, March 15.
 Alexander, the lady of Lieut. and Adj. W., of a son, at Neemuch, Jan. 26.
 Bushby, the lady of H. J., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a daughter.—B. March 20.
 Bulkely, the lady of Lieut. R., 20th N. I., of a daughter.—B. March 27.
 Browne, the lady of Capt., Royal Engineers, of a son, at Ceylon, Feb. 28.
 Brown, the lady of Capt. A. W., Inspector of Forts, of a daughter.—B. April 1.
 Corbyn, the lady of F., Esq., Bengal Med. Serv., of a son, at Sandaway, Arracan, Feb. 20.
 Craster, the lady of Capt., 30th Regt., of a daughter, at Masulipatam, March 9.
 Carvalho, the lady of F. A. de, Esq., of a son.—B. April 1.
 Carrington, the lady of the Hon. J. W., of a son, at Ceylon, Feb. 19.
 Deveton, the lady of Lieut.-Col., 38th Regt., of a son, at Saugor, March 9.
 Denham, the lady of Capt., 22d N. I., of a son, at Rutnagihra, March 3.

Dunsterville, the lady of Capt. J. H. D., Military Paymaster, at Presidency, of a daughter.—B. April 5.
 D., the lady of W. F., Esq., of the Civ. Ser., of a daughter, at Meerut.—M. Feb. 17.
 Douglas, the lady of J., Esq., Assist.-Surg., of a son, on the river, near Boglepore, Feb. 1.
 Eglington, the lady of R., Esq., of a son.—C. April 1.
 Ellis, the wife of Mr. J., of the Adjutant's Office, of a daughter.—C. Feb. 26.
 Fell, the lady of Capt. T. R., Brig.-Maj. E. Frontier, of a daughter, at Dacca, April 2.
 Hunter, the lady of Major J., 58th N. I., of a daughter.—C. March 30.
 Hampton, the lady of Lieut. J. H., 50th N. I., of a son and heir, at Sultaupore, Benares, March 27.
 Harris, the lady of H., Esq., Assist.-Surg., of a son, at Dacca, April 2.
 Ingram, the lady of Lieut. J. W., 19th N. I., of a son, at Almora, Feb. 14.
 Jervis, the lady of Capt. G., Engin., of a son.—B. March 5.
 Jones, the lady of Capt. J. B., 44th N. I., of a daughter, at Carrick on Shannon, 12th July, 1826.
 Mackenzie, the lady of W., Esq., M. D., Cantonment Surgeon, of a son.—M. March 17.
 Mayor, the lady of the Rev. R., of a son, at Ceylon, March 23.
 Onsley, the lady of Lieut., Professor in the College of Fort William, of a son.—C. March 31.
 Pinte, the lady of C. L., Esq., at the Presidency, April 6.
 Plowden, the lady of W. H. C., Esq., of a daughter, at Macao, Dec. last.
 Russell, the lady of C. D., Esq., of a daughter, at Bareilly.—M. Feb. 23.
 Smith, the lady of Capt. C. H., 12th N. I.—M. March 15.
 Taylor, the lady of Lieut.-Col. H. G. A., of a son.—M. March 18.
 Vanrenen, the lady of Capt., Artill., of a daughter, at Dum Dum, March 28.

MARRIAGES.

Bell, Capt. W., of the Artillery, to Miss J. Aldous, at Burdwan, March 11.
 Butler, W., Esq., to Miss E. Bartholomey.—C. March 8.
 Blair, Capt. J., 3d Local Horse, to Charlotte, fifth daughter of Brig. Vanrenen, Com. in Rohilcund, at Bareilly, March 19.
 Brydon, J., Esq., M. D., Surg. Artillery, to Eliza, daughter of J. Horne, Esq., Kelso, N. B., at Poona, Feb. 27.
 Caldecot, C. M., Esq., Civ. Serv., to Margaret, daughter of T. Smith, Esq., Civ. Surg., Moorshedabad.—C. March 1.
 Crump, P., Esq., to Miss Isabella Schorn, at Sectapore.—C. March 7.
 Douglas, A., Esq., Dep. Ass.-Com.-Gen., to Maria Norman, youngest daughter of the late G. Maidman, Esq., at Secunderabad, March 2.
 Gordon, the Hon. H. G., Lieut., 23d N. I. and A. D. C. to the Gov.-General, to Miss Payne, at Meerut, March 6.
 Harris, F., Esq., to Helen, second daughter of P. Andrew, Esq., Magistrate of Calcutta, at Calcutta, March 15.
 Hamilton, G., Esq., to Miss P. H. Thornton, at Calcutta, April 3.
 Innes, W., Lieut., 12th N. I., to Eliza Ann, third daughter of the late M. H. Porteous, at Calcutta, March 5.
 M'Carthy, Mr. C., Head Clerk of the Superintendent of Police, to Miss Rachel, eldest daughter of T. Potter, Esq., Superintendent of Indigo Factories, at Calcutta, March 21.

Marsh, E., Lieut., 10 Regt., Assist. Superintendent of Bazars, P. D. A., to Jane, daughter of W. Forlong, Esq. of Wellshot, N. B., at Madras, March 19.
 Maughan, P., Capt., Bombay Marine, to Elizabeth, youngest daughter of the late J. Arnott, Esq. Arbuckle, N. B., at Bombay, March 15.
 Moore, Lieut., J. R. 52d N. I., to Mrs. Swinton, relict of the late Lieut.-Col. Swinton, at Chittagong, April 4.
 Pearson, J. T., Esq., Assist.-Surg. to Miss F. Fitzpatrick, at Calcutta, March 7.
 Stirling, W. H., Lieut., 18th N. I., to Mary, eldest daughter of the late Captain F. Duncan, at Bombay, April 2.
 Vanderstraaten, J. L., Esq., to Miss E. L. M. J., daughter of W. A. Kreckenbeck, Esq., at Colomba, Feb. 5.
 Wilson, C. Mr., Marshall of Bombay Gao, to Ann, daughter of the late C. Bond, Esq., of the Isle of Ely, Cambridgeshire, at Bombay, Feb. 27.
 Webb, E. Mr., to Mary, eldest daughter of J. Battye, Esq., at Bagulpore, at Calcutta, March 19.
 Ward, R., the Rev. A. M., to Fanny, daughter of the late W. Ironside, Esq. of Houghton-le-Spring, Durham, at Bombay, March 26.

DEATHS.

Belcour, Mr. C. J., Clerk in the office of the Audit.-Gen. at Bombay, March 22.
 Bayly, Major T., of the Ceylon Reg., Comm. at Ruunwelle, and Agent for Government in the three Corbes, at the Grand Pass, near Columbia, on his way to procure medical advice, Feb. 10.
 Cotton, Mr. S. B., wife of G. F. Cotton, Esq., Assist.-Surg., 14th Foot, at Calcutta, March 18.
 Crommelin, C. B., Esq., son of the late C. B. Crommelin, Esq., Ben. Civ. Serv., at Gorruckpore, Feb. 27.
 Chesterman, J., Esq., at Purneah, at Calcutta, Feb. 17.
 Crawford, A., Esq., Civ. Serv. Bom. Estab., at Bombay, Feb. 28.
 Crawford, Mr., late Collector of Ahmedabad, Bombay, Feb. 20.
 Dunlop, W. M., son of Major Dunlop, 52d N. I., at Chittagong, April 1.
 Desplannes, the lady of the late Capt. F., at Calcutta, April 2.
 Liddell, Eliz., daughter of D. M'N. Liddell, Esq., at Calcutta, April 5.
 Elliott, G. H. G., son of the Hon. J. E. Elliott, at Calcutta, March 9.
 Eastman, Mrs. H., daughter of W. Simpson, Esq., at Calcutta, March 15.
 Hamilton, B., son of C. C. Hamilton, Esq., at Calcutta, March 11.
 Incell, Capt. T. W., 28th N. I., at Barrackpore, April 8.
 Mellis, the widow of the late Lieut. H. M's 20th reg. at Poona, March 12.
 Musceah, Rev. Abdool, (a converted Musulman), at Lucknow, in the house of Dr. Luxmoore, and for many years a Missionary of the Church Missionary Society, and regularly ordained, March 4.
 Scott, Miss V. C., daughter of W. Scott, Esq., Assistant-Revenue Surveyor. —C. March, 31.
 Skipton, Miss C. K., daughter of G. Skipton, Esq. Superint.-Surgeon of Agra and Mutree, C. Mar. 21.
 Sethagasee, Mrs. S. C., Lady of C. Sethagasee, Esq., at Dacca, Mar. 17.
 Stevens, J., Esq., First Judge of the Prov. Court of Appeal, Circ. West. Div. at Tellicherry, Feb. 21.
 Tucker, M. P., Lieut.-Col. 20th N. I., at Sea, April 30, 1826.
 Tate, J. Esq., at Palipart near Cochin, March 4.
 Thomson, the wife of Capt. R. T., C. March 2.
 Turner, the wife of J., Esq., late of Rangoon, at Prince of Wales Island, —Feb. 7.
 Vauspall, H. C., Capt. 41st reg. at Severndroog, Feb. 25.
 Worthy, Jane R., wife of Capt. J., 18th B. N. I. at Mhow, March 18.

SHIPPING INTELLIGENCE.

ARRIVALS FROM EASTERN PORTS.

Date.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Place of Depart.	Date.
1827.					1827.
Sept. 3	Portsmouth	Coquette	Thornton	South Seas	Mar. 28
Sept. 3	Dartmouth	Boyne	Pope	China	Mar. 31
Sept. 6	Falmouth	Mary Ann	O'Brien	Bengal	Mar. 31
Sept. 6	Falmouth	Thames	Haviseide	China	Mar. 13
Sept. 7	Falmouth	Asp	House	South Seas	
Sept. 7	Falmouth	Recovery	Brooks	South Seas	
Sept. 7	Falmouth	Coromandel	Boyes	Bengal	Feb. 20
Sept. 8	Leith	Louisa	Mackie	Bengal	Mar. 27
Sept. 12	Downs	Lonach	Driscoll	Bombay	Apr. 11
Sept. 12	Downs	Amelia Wilson	Underwood	South Seas	
Sept. 12	Portsmouth	Indus	Cock	Batavia	Apr. 23
Sept. 12	Downs	Cumberland	Steel	Cochin	Apr. 15
Sept. 12	Downs	Bride	Brown	Bengal	Mar. 7
Sept. 12	Liverpool	Fortune	Gilkeson	Bombay	May 8
Sept. 13	Clyde	Christianhaven	Larkins	China	Feb. 25
Sept. 13	Dover	Brightman	Philips	Singapore	Mar. 25
Sept. 13	Downs	Canadian	Reed	Bengal	April 8
Sept. 13	Ryde	Royal George	Grant	Mauritius	May 19
Sept. 13	Dover	Indispensable	Fenton	South Seas	
Sept. 13	Gravesend	Susanna Ann	Ferge	South Seas	
Sept. 14	Dover	Britannia	Walker	Bombay	April 5
Sept. 14	Downs	Lord Amherst	Craigie	China	Jan. 18
Sept. 14	Weymouth	Themis	Praham	Batavia	April 2
Sept. 14	Margate	Magnet	Todd	Bengal	Mar. 30
Sept. 14	Dover	Laburnam	Tate	N. S. W.	Mar. 24
					1826.
Sept. 14	Dover	Thalia	Biden	Bengal	Dec. 23

ARRIVALS IN EASTERN PORTS.

Date.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Port of Depart.
1827.				
Mar. 10	Calcutta	Candian	Reed	London
Mar. 20	Calcutta	Clansman	Snowden	Clyde
Mar. 24	Calcutta	Angerona	Baker	London
Mar. 25	Calcutta	Mellish	Vincent	London
Apr. 1	Bombay	Sarah	Tucker	London
Apr. 1	Bombay	Alerton	Hill	Liverpool
Apr. 1	Bombay	Fortune	Gilkeson	Clyde
Apr. 2	Calcutta	Othello	Swainson	Liverpool
Apr. 7	Calcutta	John	Freeman	London
Apr. 15	Bombay	Minstrell	Arkecoll	London
Apr. 27	Batavia	Danube	Sturges	London
May 1	Batavia	Huskinson	Petrie	Liverpool
	Batavia	Loretto	Thomson	Liverpool
May 26	Mauritius	Madeline	Coghlan	London
June 11	Cape	Britomart	Brown	London

DEPARTURES FROM EUROPE.

Date.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Destination.
1827.				
Aug. 25	Liverpool	Pallass	Quoniane	Mauritius
Aug. 26	Liverpool	Margaret	Ferguson	Bombay
Sept. 6	Deal	Arcturus	Wilson	Bengal
Sept. 13	Deal	Blora	Leeming	Batavia

Date.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Destination.
1827.				
Sept. 13	Deal	Wellington	Evans	Madras
Sept. 13	Deal	M. Stuart Elphin.		Bombay
Sept. 15	Deal	Lady Feversham.	Adler	Bombay
Sept. 16	Deal	Luna	Matthews	Cape & Mau.
Sept. 17	Deal	Awright	Walford	Bengal
Sept. 18	Portsmouth	Tweed	Churchill	Cape & Mau.
Sept. 20	Deal	Dryade	Kellock	Cape & Mau.
Sept. 24	Liverpool	Marmion	Jameson	Mauritius
Sept. 24	Liverpool	Ann	Fourier	Mauritius
Sept. 25	Deal	Copernicus	Stevens	Mad. & Bengal
Sept. 25	Deal	Christiana	Whyte	Mauritius
Sept. 25	Deal	Alexander	Richardson	Mau. & Ceylon

GENERAL LIST OF PASSENGERS.

PASSENGERS HOMEWARDS.

By the *Catherine*, from Bombay at Greenock :—Lieuts. Phillips, Richardson, Ore, Macintosh, and Ralph.

By the *Britannia*, from Bombay :—Mr. Greenluk.

By the *Thalia*, from Bengal :—Col. Pollock, Artill.; Capts. Whinfield, Artill., Smith and Hamilton, 16th Lane., Westmacote, and Heathcote; Lieuts. Graham, Artill. and Smith, R.N.; Messrs. Welsh, Thomas, and Shuttleworth; Masters Cooke, two Bell's, two Gown's, two Lumsden's, Slater, and Tippet; Mrs. Capt. Heathcote and three children; Mesdames Hamilton and Beale; Misses Lumsden, Tippet, and Davis; 71 invalids.

By the *Fortune*, from Bombay at Liverpool :—Henry Mochier, Esq., Surg., H. Comp.'s Serv. (died at sea, 10th of May); Capt. Patrick Wilson, Bombay Establishment.

By the *Mona Castle*, from Bombay at Liverpool :—Lieut. Fuster, left at St. Helena; Ensign Scriven.

By the *Dorothy*, from Bombay at Liverpool :—Mr. J. M. Mitchell, Officer, E. I. Royal Marines.

By the *Lonach*, from Bombay :—Col. Hare; Majors Thew, Bombay Artill., and Spinks, Mad. Serv.; Capt. Hewett and lady, Bombay Army, Irwin, and Duke, H. M.'s 6th regt.; Lieuts. Fisher, Queen's Royals, and Farquharson, Bombay Artill.; Phillip Bacon, Esq., Civ. Serv.; Master Hornby; Miss Clurt; two invalids, and six servants.

By the *Ceylon*, from Bengal :—Capt. Reed, H. M.'s 40th regt., and Mr. Garsting.

By the *Roselle*, from Bengal :—Capt. Ekley.

By the *Boyne*, from China :—Mr. Charles Haire, Company's service (died at sea, May 5.) Mrs. Phillips from St. Helena, widow of Lieutenant Phillips of the Bombay Army.

By the *Coromandel*, from India :—Major Paker, Captains Sneyth and Burt, Dr. Crichton, Messrs. Massie and Lardie, Missionaries, Mr. Colts, Mesdames Mac Lean (and three children) Milner, Colts, Massie and Lardie, and Miss Rhind.

By the *Wellington*, from Madras :—Lieut. Bishop and lady, Capt. Marjoribanks and lady, Mr. Hargrave and daughter, Mr. Richards, Mr. Gorton, Mr. Godfrey, Mr. Doratt, Mr. Leder, Lieut. Bedinfield, Mr. Lloyd, Mr. Harding, Mr. Knott, and Mr. Drouitt.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We have received a copy of the Letter addressed by Mr. Arnot to the 'Asiatic Journal'; and shall readily comply with his request, in giving it a place in the 'Oriental Herald,' should it be refused insertion in the Publication to which it is addressed,—an event, however, which we do not anticipate.

THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

No. 47.—NOVEMBER 1827.—VOL. 15.

BENEFITS THAT WOULD RESULT FROM THE COLONIZATION OF INDIA, BY BRITISH SETTLERS.

In the 35th Number of this Work we gave a review of the first portion of a pamphlet written by Mr. Wheatley, an English barrister, of Calcutta, and addressed by him to his Grace the Duke of Devonshire. This portion related to proposed measures for the relief of distress in Ireland, especially by Emigration, and led from this to the consideration of the Corn Laws, and Colonization of Canada. The second portion of Mr. Wheatley's work relates to an equally important subject, the Colonization of India : and to this, as a topic of the highest interest, and one, perhaps, of the very greatest moment that could engage the attention of English statesmen, desirous of realizing from our Indian possessions the full benefit they are capable of conferring on the mother country, we now propose to draw the reader's attention.

The relative duties and interests of Mother Countries and Colonies have before been enlarged upon in these pages ; * the specific benefits likely to arise from the extension of the principles therein developed, to India, whether it be considered, strictly speaking, a Colony, or a Dependency of any other class or description, have also, from time to time, been pointed out ; and the paramount necessity of Colonization, as ' the one thing needful ' for the preservation as well as improvement of that country, has been insisted on, in almost every Number of this Publication that has yet issued from the press. There is, nevertheless, still room for further record of facts, further illustration of reasoning, and further application of argument, bearing on this great and interesting question : and, therefore, we recur with pleasure to the work of Mr. Wheatley, from which we shall draw, for the information of the English reader, materials, not otherwise accessible to him, as the work is still unpublished here ; and add to these such observations as may occur to us in the course of our examination of its contents, with a view to lay before those likely to be

* See 'Oriental Herald,' vol. x. p. 205.

be taken of it, as those who came out would find no employment, unless the privilege of *purchasing landed property* were previously conceded to British subjects.'

Mr. Wheatley, with a view apparently to show how the Government of India might easily, and without the necessity of purchase, transfer the present system of Zemindaries to English instead of Native management, has stated his opinions on this subject in detail: and as in this he has been greatly misrepresented by the enemies of Colonization, who have made no scruple at insinuating, that he would recommend the property of the Natives to be taken from them and transferred to English successors, without purchase, and without *compensation*, we think it but justice to the writer to let him state his own views in his own language, which to our apprehension certainly bears a very different meaning from that perversely attributed to it. He says:

'But the acquisition of the land by British subjects, even without purchase, could not be considered an act of injustice. According to the Hindoo law, the fee simple of the soil of India has always been held to be vested in its government. The whole of the country has therefore been divided by its different ruling powers into so many Zemindaries, part of which are now assessed at a fixed, and part at a contingent rent to the Company. The Zemindars who collect the revenue from the ryots, or peasants, are in all instances natives. But if *due compensation* were made to these Zemindars, by granting to them a fixed salary, and British Zemindars were appointed in their stead, the Zemindaries might in a short time be reduced to the similitude and condition of English estates, the rent to government being considered, by an easy and familiar conversion, in the nature of a land-tax. By this system the government and the ryots would be benefited, as much as the British Zemindar, from the lucrative change of his seigniorage into fee simple, would be enriched; nor would the native Zemindars have any just reason to complain of the salutary reformation.

'Under the present mode of collection, the ryots are reduced to the lowest state of degradation, penury, and oppression; for as they are completely at the mercy of the Zemindars, in consequence of the engagements they enter into for the advances, which the Zemindars in almost all instances make to them to enable them to cultivate the soil, nothing is ever left to them, let the season be ever so favourable, beyond the bare necessities of subsistence, notwithstanding that the moderate rent which is affixed by the liberal policy of government may, comparatively speaking, be paid out of a small proportion of the produce that is raised. The proper salary of the Zemindars is such a per-centage out of what they collect, as is deemed an adequate remuneration for the trouble and responsibility of collection; but in consequence of the dependent state of the ryots, from the ruinous terms that are imposed upon them in their

loans, it is obvious that the whole produce of the Zemindaries, beyond what is requisite to pay the rent to government, and yield to the ryots their scanty pittance, is swept into the store-houses of the Zemindars as the unjust profits of their office. If, therefore, the native Zemindars were made to retire on the permanent settlement on themselves and families of the per-centage that is their due, and British Zemindars were appointed in their place, the improved system of agriculture, and the humane regulations which it would be the interest as well as the wish of British proprietors to introduce, would in a short time not only allow a larger surplus to the ryots, and a larger revenue to government, but would allow, in addition, the acquisition of an ample and honourable fortune to themselves.'

Nothing, we think, can be plainer than this, as to the proposed *compensation* to the Natives: though not in the nature of a purchase, in the common acceptance of that term; and although it might be still better to have the estates in India the property of British individuals of independent minds and fortunes, yet even under this proposed arrangement of transfer from Native to British management only, we concur entirely with Mr. Wheatley as to the extent of benefit it would produce.

'No country would then exhibit a brighter aspect than the plains of India. The minds of the natives would be liberalized and opened by the science, which a more intimate intercourse with Europeans would diffuse; the gloomy superstitions, that now prey on their dis-tempered fancies, spell-bind the freedom of their intellect, and destroy, by absorbing their faculties, would be dispersed; and the dark destinies that have so long hung over their devoted country, as if they had been, and were to be coeval with the world, would be changed at once, by the more than magic powers of reason, into an age of light and happiness:

'Non alios prius crescentis origine mundi
Illuxisse dies, aliumve habuisse tenorem
Crediderim: ver illud erat, ver magnus agebat
Orbis, et hybernis parcebant flatibus Euri.'

'This privilege, therefore, of the possession of landed property by British subjects, being conceded, together with colonization and free trade, ample means would be furnished to realize the wealth, which this latter holds out, as the produce of India far surpasses that of Canada, or any other part of the globe of the same extent with itself, in amount, value, and variety.

The writer next passes to the consideration of another great evil in the existing state of things in India, namely, the mode in which justice is administered in the interior of that vast country. He adverts to the fact, that when we first took possession of the country from the Mohammedan conquerors of Hindoostan, we found all the business of the public courts conducted in the language of these

conquerors, which was *not* the language of the people, but Persian. Instead of substituting for this the English tongue, which would have made all proceedings intelligible to the judges, or the Indian languages, which would have made them intelligible to the people, we most absurdly retained the Persian, which is now the language of neither conquerors nor people, and is nearly equally unintelligible to the suitors, the witnesses, the pleaders, and those who have to pass judgment on cases conducted through the medium of three different languages—the original being the Persian, and translations of this being made into English for the judge, and into Hindoostanee or Bengalee for the suitors—placing both parties entirely at the mercy of the intermediate officers of the court, through whose hands these translations of the pleadings and evidence pass! To mitigate this evil, great pains have been taken to give, through the College of the East India Company in England, as well as that in Calcutta, a competent knowledge of Persian to the young gentlemen of the Civil Service, before they proceed into the provinces to fill their judicial appointments. The inefficiency of this, however, may be seen from the language of the author, who says:

‘But how perfectly futile this precaution is, the existing state of things in the provincial courts sufficiently manifests; as, notwithstanding every effort to the contrary, the most opulent litigant still continues to be in almost all instances the victorious party. If, therefore, justice is to be administered in a less exceptionable form, it is absolutely necessary to rescue the judge and the suitors out of the hands of the Persian law officers, by directing all legal proceedings to be conducted and written in the English, instead of the Persian language, which will be attended with the additional advantage of having but one language as a medium between the judge and the parties to the suit, instead of two. But it is not only for the better administration of justice that this alteration should be made; it should be made also with the view of bringing the English language into more general use, and making it as much as possible the common language of the country. Nothing can tend to advance the natives with easier and more rapid steps to a nearer level with ourselves, than opening the sources of European knowledge through this channel:

‘Unde nova ingressus hominum experientia cepit.’

‘But instead of supporting this question by my own reasoning only, it is better that I should avail myself of the aid and relief of the great master of history, who has illustrated this subject, as applied to the Roman empire, with the peculiar eloquence that pervades his magnificent work, the glorious result of the collective learning of ages, concentrated in the capacious mind of a profound and penetrating philosopher. Gibbon says*:

* Vol. i. page 60.

‘So sensible were the Romans of the influence of language over national manners, that it was their most serious care to extend with the progress of their arms the use of the Latin tongue. The ancient dialects of Italy, the Sabine, the Etruscan, and the Venetian, sunk into oblivion: but in the provinces, the East was less docile than the West to the voice of its victorious preceptors. This obvious difference marked the two portions of the empire with a distinction of colours, which, though it was in some degree concealed during the meridian splendour of prosperity, became gradually more visible as the shades of night descended upon the Roman world. The western countries were civilized by the same hands that subdued them. As soon as the barbarians were reconciled to obedience, their minds were opened to new impressions of knowledge and politeness. The language of Virgil and Cicero, though with some inevitable mixture of corruption, was so universally adopted in Africa, Spain, Gaul, Britain, and Pannonia, that the faint traces of the Punic or Celtic idioms were preserved only in the mountains, or among the peasants. Education and study insensibly inspired the natives of those countries with the sentiments of Romans, and Italy gave fashions as well as laws to her Latin provinces. They solicited with more ardour, and obtained with more facility, the freedom and honours of the state; supported the national dignity, in letters and in arms; and at length, in the person of Trajan, produced an emperor, whom the Scipios would not have disowned for their countryman.’

After adverting to the peculiarities which made the situation of the Greeks different from that of the Romans, and referring to the progress of their colonies and conquests, from the Adriatic to the Euphrates and the Nile, the historian continues:

‘It is a just, though trite observation, that victorious Rome was herself subdued by the arts of Greece. Those immortal writers who still command the admiration of modern Europe, soon became the favourite object of study and imitation in Italy and the western provinces. But the elegant amusements of the Romans were not suffered to interfere with their sound maxims of policy. Whilst they acknowledged the charms of the Greek, they asserted the dignity of the Latin tongue; and the exclusive use of the latter was inflexibly maintained in the administration of civil as well as military government. The two languages exercised at the same time their separate jurisdiction throughout the empire: the former as the natural idiom of science, the latter as the legal dialect of public transactions. Those who united letters with business were equally conversant with both; and it was almost impossible in any province to find a Roman subject of liberal education, who was at once a stranger to the Greek and to the Latin language. It was by such institutions that the nations of the empire insensibly melted away into the Roman name and people.’

Mr. Wheatley's 'pedantry'—we use the term as a quotation from his opponents—has been made the subject of sneer and sarcasm, by those who had nothing better to oppose to his arguments. But we think the use here made of historical facts as happy, as it must be convincing to every unbiassed mind, as to the natural effect of the causes described, and as to the duty which this example ought to impose on succeeding conquerors. To this, Mr. Wheatley thus adverts :

'If this example, therefore, and this reasoning, be worthy to be followed, the Company have done the very reverse of what they ought to have done. Instead of founding Haileybury College in England, to teach the English Hindoo, to teach the conquerors the language of the conquered, they ought to have founded colleges all over India to teach the Hindoos English. And if Europe is to be realized in India by the introduction of European arts and sciences, and European improvements; if the Natives are to be brought 'insensibly to melt away into the English name and people,' not only must India be colonized in the manner that has been described, and landed property be suffered to be held by British subjects, but the English language must be established as the language of government, the language of law, and the language of business, or such a state of amelioration can never be attained.'

In all this we entirely agree: and, as to any apprehended difficulty in effecting this change, we have no hesitation in giving our decided opinion, that if a perfect knowledge of the English language were made an indispensable qualification for employment under the Government of India, whether in Civil, Military, Judicial, Revenue, or Marine service—every parent desiring to provide for his children in these services, would instantly set about giving them an English education, nor cease their exertions until it had been perfectly accomplished. At present the great towns of Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta contain hundreds of individuals in the various offices of Government (Mohammedans as well as Hindoos) who have so qualified themselves, and who could not be employed as they now are without such knowledge. The same powerful motive of interest would extend their numbers indefinitely till every individual, of the rising generation especially, might be brought to speak and write our language with perfect accuracy: and, even in a national point of view, (independently of the benefits to the Indians themselves by their adoption of a tongue in which all the most valuable information of the present age is contained,) how glorious would be the prospect of seeing the English language springing from a little island in the north, and covering large portions of the two great continents of Asia and America; and finding its way into Africa by the Cape of Good Hope, into Australasia by our settlements on that fifth continent of the globe, and over the Islands of the Pacific Ocean from Otaheite and Pitcairn!

Mr. Wheatley next directs his attention to another subject, that of the *climate* of India: and this is, indeed, a point of the utmost importance in considering the various questions arising out of its Colonization. He says:

'There is one other point relative to India, on which it is necessary to make a few remarks; I mean, the selection of stations for the residence of Europeans. It is ascertained by experience, that the healthiest situations for European constitutions in tropical climates are those elevated districts, where the thermometer, when placed under the cover of a veranda, graduates from 65° to 75°, such as the Blue Mountains of Jamaica, the high lands of Java, and the hilly ranges of Mexico: though a still lower degree of heat, if it could be reached, would be preferable, as Dr. Baillie was of opinion, that the temperature of 63° was that which was most congenial to our nature. But throughout the torrid zone, it is necessary to be at an elevation of about 1500 feet above the level of the sea, before the thermometer can be brought down to a mean temperature between 65° and 75°. In the lowlands which are on a level with the sea, and where the principal towns and forts are usually situated, it varies from 80° to 120°. Where, therefore, a choice of residence is practicable, the hilly districts are in all instances to be preferred to the plains. But as civilians are compelled to exercise their professions and carry on their business in the principal towns, and as garrison duty and field operations for the most part confine the soldier to the lowlands, the great body of Europeans who come out to the tropics are necessarily debarred of an optional residence, and must submit to the risks their particular line of life destines them to encounter. But as all our foreign dependencies, even in time of peace, should have a larger military force than is merely sufficient to garrison the forts, and aid the civil power in the maintenance of order, the stations to be fixed upon for the supernumerary body should unquestionably be on as elevated ground as the conveniences of supply will admit of. These stations would also be most desirable asylums for the reception of troops on their first landing; as much of the dreadful expenditure of human life, so unhappily and suddenly incurred in the tropics, would be saved, were the new regiments, on their arrival, instead of being immured in a fort, or cantoned on the plain, immediately marched to a depôt on the hills, and there detained till duly seasoned to withstand the sickliness of the climate.'

'These elevated situations, too, from their superior salubrity, are equally necessary for the seats of government, unless some forcible and urgent reason exist for confining them to the cities on the lowlands. Commonly speaking, the duties of a governor may be dis-

It is proved by experiment, that an elevation of 3400 toises in the tropical zone produces a coldness equal to that of the temperate zone. See 'Remond, Observations sur les Voyages de Coxé dans la Suisse,' tom. ii. p. 104.

charged in one place as well as another; and as the principal officers connected with the administration of affairs have no duties to perform, except those that relate to government, there is no reason why they should not have their residence contiguous to that of the governor, to whom they should always have a ready access, instead of in the unhealthy atmosphere of the low ground. Let the head quarters of government be fixed where they may, the interested and ambitious views of various individuals who would be benefited by living near them, would soon give birth to a new city, more splendid than the old one: and, instead of being injured, the colony would acquire additional lustre by the change of position.

Whatever may be the sickness and sufferings of those civil and military European bodies, whose destiny now confines them to the lowlands of *Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay*, there is at this instant no remedy, as no inquiry has ever been made into the comparative healthiness of other stations, and no happy spot been fixed upon, where Europeans could enjoy the temperature of their native clime, and found a city innoxious to the diseases and malaria of the plain. Of late, however, some interesting letters have appeared in the newspapers on the peculiar healthiness of the Nilgherry hills, an extensive range of high table land, situated between Madras and the coast of Malabar.

From one of these letters, written by an English gentleman from the spot, the following extract is made:

"On the morning of the fifth day, I arrived at the foot of the hills, and began the ascent in the middle of the next night. At day-break, I found myself amidst all the charms of mountain scenery—rocks, and mountains, and woods, and streams—and, after an ascent of some hours, reached a little station called Dinhutty, where a few Europeans have built cottages, to breakfast, at ten o'clock. The thermometer, which below stood at 98°, was here exactly 30° lower, and I was glad at night to get under two good blankets. I cannot describe to you the delight I felt at the change. I forgot that I had been ill; and notwithstanding my fatigues, was out all day, almost believing myself in England. The scenery at Dinhutty is exceedingly beautiful: the hills are very precipitous, and strongly resemble the painting of Swiss scenery. The climate is delicious—and there is so much in every respect resembling England, that one ceases to think himself in India: I am sure I did, when I walked out with the ladies two miles to a three o'clock dinner in the month of May. After a few delightful days, I continued my ascent on horseback about fifteen miles to this place, called Ootacamund, about 2000 feet above Dinhutty, and of course somewhat colder, the scenery all the way up grand and beautiful in the extreme. Here the country is

* There is no work written on India that does not complain of the unhealthiness of these situations. See 'Pennant's View of Hindostan,' vol. ii. p. 294.

different from that about Dinhutty, and I think I like it less. This may be described as a hilly country at the top of lofty mountains, and we are very near the summit. Dodabet, the crown of the Nilgherry hills, rises just over our head here between 8000 and 9000 feet above the level of the sea. A great part of this consists of open lawns, and gently swelling hills, rising one above another to a great height, covered with fine verdure, and occasionally broken by a rugged mass of rock. Here is no pestilential jungle or noxious marsh. Beautiful little woods, as in England, are scattered over the country, and give to the whole aspect the appearance of a grand park, excellently well laid out, in some hilly country at home. These little woods fringe every ravine between the hills, through each of which, without exception, little crystal torrents rush down on every side. With the exception of the want of cultivation, every thing here is English. The woods are carpeted with strawberries, anemone, and violets. The white dog-rose, honeysuckle, and jessamine, twine themselves over all the trees—and blackbirds, and larks innumerable, make the hills ring with their song—but the violets are shaded by groves of gigantic cinnamon and rhododendron, with its great masses of scarlet blossoms, and the song of the blackbird is interrupted by the croaking of the monkeys, and the screams of the pea fowls and jungle cock. The whole, however, is delightful.

"It seems almost incredible that such a country and climate should exist so near the equator, and surrounded by such burning climes. In truth, all the people below are quite sceptical, and will not make the trial, except the civilians of Coimbatoor. This region was not known till 1819, when the first visitors were pinched with the frost. The greatest advantage of the climate is its equality, the temperature varying little after the monsoon has once changed. At this moment, my hands and feet are so cold that I can hardly write. I am obliged to blow on my fingers, in a little close shut up room with curtains, and all the apparatus of English apartments, except a fire, of which I should be very glad. The thermometer before me now stands at 56° at eleven in the morning; but the south west monsoon is just set in, and the hills are covered with mist and drizzling rain. The mercury here never rises above 70°. During May, the hottest month, it never exceeded that in the shade: so that the climate offers no obstruction whatever to European labour and enjoyment. The English here, including some farming and gardening men and their families, are all as stout, and strong, and healthy, and work just as hard as at home. And the children, with their fat rosy faces are unparalleled in India. I am out all day wandering over hills and woods quite enchanted. In the warmest days, there is so fine an air, that no sort of inconvenience is felt. In short, it is wholly European. The soil is deep, and rich beyond measure: all European fruits, and vegetables, and flowers, vegetate luxuriantly; and nothing which England produces would fail here."

This is a long extract, but it is justified by its importance; and although we do not agree with an early notion, first broached by Mr. Wheatley soon after his arrival in India, that the Nilgherry hills would form the best site for the metropolis of British India, still we concur with him in the opinion that the fine situation and climate of that elevated region ought to be made the utmost possible use of for settlement of colonists; while, if a second London could not be founded on its lofty eminences, there is no reason why it might not have a Bath, a Cheltenham, or a Montpelier, to answer all the purposes of these celebrated cities or towns in Europe. Mr. Wheatley concludes by saying:

'If, then, English vegetables will grow on the * Nilgherry hills as well as in England; if turnips, barley, clover, and wheat, can be reared there, and field labour be endured by Europeans, there is no reason why an English colony should not be immediately established there, and if the geni of India still have influence on earth, why Kent and Surrey, with all their villas, parks, gardens, and farms, all their woods, rivulets, hedgy lanes, and roads, their best and beautiful scenery, should not rise up at their bidding to decorate these delicious haunts.

'Tunc agui pingues, et tunc mollissima vina,
'Tunc somni dulces, densaque in montibus umbræ.'

'And should it ever happen, that the three presidencies should be united into one, as they unquestionably ought to be, and a better government be instituted for India than that by which it is now ruled, it is not too much to hope, that the English may at least have the glory and delight of founding one city, where all the health that is enjoyable at home may be enjoyed there, and from whose proud towers,

'Terrarum et rerum domini,'

they may issue their orders, not only to govern the plain below, but to control the councils of every power in the eastern hemisphere, from Peking to Cairo.'

The remainder of the 'Letter to the Duke of Devonshire' is occupied by further speculations respecting Egypt, and other matters of considerable interest, connected with the main object of the writer. But the space usually devoted to a single article will not admit of our doing this justice in the present Number. We, therefore, defer it to some future opportunity. In the mean time, as intimately connected with this last portion quoted, as to the fine climate to be found in the elevated parts of India, and the use which might be

* Had India been open to British colonists, there can be no doubt that the hilly ranges would long since have been cleared of jungle, and that we should not have ceded to the beasts of the forest the best stations, and so respectfully have submitted to take up our own residence in the worst.

made of so valuable a blessing, we transcribe a portion of a communication from a correspondent in the interior of India to one of the Calcutta Papers, as given in the following extract:

'From Bareilly, in thirteen marches, you get into an English climate.'

'Such is the statement of an experienced observer, with a perusal of whose letter we have been favoured by a friend. This fact, we are aware, is already well known to most of our readers; but as among them there may be some not so well informed respecting the climate of Almorah, and the general neighbourhood of the snowy mountains, and to whom a few remarks upon the subject may prove of some service; we cannot do better, perhaps, than to devote a portion of our space to it.

'Our correspondent, quitting the heated plains of Rohilkund, entered the mountainous region on the 15th of April last. The difference of climate was so keenly perceptible on the first march to Bheem Teaul, that a fire was not disagreeable at night. Let our Calcutta friends bear in remembrance what kind of climate we enjoyed in the City of Palaces, at the time our hill-wanderer was enjoying the snug comforts of a fire. Halting two days at Almorah, he then proceeded due north, into the snowy mountains, (only six marches from that place,) to a beautiful village called Ramnee, which he reached on the 1st of May. Here the cold is spoken of as being very great. The thermometer, exposed to the open air and sun, mornings and evenings, was at 50° to 54°, and its highest point, exposed to the meridian sun, was 76°, during the whole month of May. On the 22d, after an eclipse of the moon, severe thunder storms were experienced, attended with hail and rain, and on the 23d, the rains regularly set in.

'Ramnee is computed to be situated from 20,000 to 21,000 feet above the sea. The rains there were very heavy. The thermometer for June ranged from 58° to 60° in the mornings and evenings, and 70° in the middle of the day. There were only three sun-shining days during the month. A slight shock of an earthquake was experienced; and although enveloped in clouds, every body in these elevated regions seemed quite healthy. The tents of the party were hutted over during the inclement weather. All July passed in continued rain; the thermometer at 60° in the mornings and evenings, and 62° in the middle of the day. At the end of this month the peasantry began cutting their barley, of which the crops were very fine. Wheat not ripe.

'In August the wheat was reaped, and the party prosecuted their journey to Budee-Nauth, Tapobun, Solure, and back again. At Tapobun it is not unusual to stop and bathe in the hot springs. On account of the vast quantity of rain that had fallen, the snows had melted more profusely than had been known for many years.

it is not, therefore, to be wondered at, that the Ganges flooded the country below to a greater extent than generally happens.

'The party returned to Ramnee on the 28th August; left that place again for Almorah on the 4th September, arrived there on the 11th, halted the 12th, marched again on the 13th, and on the 16th arrived at Kautke Godown, at the foot of the hills in the forest. Between the last place and Sheerghur, the country is flooded by a dam made by the Rampoor Chief. The grass on the highway came up to the howdahs of the elephants. Indeed we presume that no other animals could have made their way through such a road. The want of strong puttees, or wooden bridges over the canals, was unpleasantly obvious; but the circumstance does not appear to have occurred to the Rampoor Chief.

"To a person requiring health," says our correspondent, "I would advise, instead of the Cape, or going to England, a trip to the snowy mountains. The pure bracing air soon restores the liver to its proper functions, and the cold urges one to take exercise, which completes the cure. The nerves are braced, and it is astonishing the elasticity one feels."

'To the eastward of Ramnee, about six or eight miles direct distance from the station of our travellers, arose that immense pile of mountains called Ramnee Peak. All the English vegetable seeds thrive surprisingly at Ramnee; and in the places from whence the snow had recently melted, rhubarb, kootkee, spikenard, and many other medicinal herbs grew. Game is plentiful, consisting of varieties of the pheasant and partridge tribes, woodcocks, &c. There are no hares; but the stag, the chamois (thahur), wild sheep (burrul), and wild hogs, abound.

'Of wild beasts, our travellers only saw three bears, which they hunted, but did not succeed in killing; and a small species of leopard, which attacks dogs, sheep, and goats.

'Food, it would appear, is very cheap. "Wheat flour we get 60 seers (at 84 rupees the seer) for a rupee; 2 maunds barley, 6 seers of fine cow whey, and 7 seers honey, per rupee." That is, we presume, a rupee for the specified quantity of the different articles; not for the whole. The tatoos and gram-sheep were fed on barley and oord, and there was plenty of delicious spring water.

'Our travellers were quite delighted with Ramnee altogether; and it would appear that it is a very desirable station for invalids, who might do as the game do—quit the plains in the month of March, and go to Ramnee, where they might stay until the end of October, so as to be down in the plains again early in November. By following this plan they could have cold weather all the year round.

'The snow commences falling at Ramnee after the 15th of No-

vember, and is all thawed off (save on the higher peaks) in March. At night four pair of blankets make one just comfortable.

'It is a great pity that though we have been now twelve years masters of the country, no mineralogical survey of the mountains has yet been made. Our correspondent says, that (generally speaking, we presume) all the metals are to be found in these regions, but that only copper and iron are worked (and that in a very rude and uncouth way) by the Natives.

'Our correspondent is of opinion, that if some clever worthy person were to settle in that country, and open a school for children, the adventure would prosper. "The youngsters (he writes) would thrive and be hardy, and their constitutions would be in proper trim for making soldiers and sailors. The boarding, lodging, and feeding would be cheap; and the boys need not fear from the sun. Provided hops were cultivated, (and why should they not be?) beer could be made. Oak, cedars, deodars, holly, yew, cypress, elms, walnuts, horse-chestnuts, and service apple-trees, peaches, apricots, wild-pear, raspberries, blackberries, gooseberries, barberries, (and many other trees and fruit-trees,) all grow wild, and, by cultivation, could be rendered superior to what we have in England. The only difficulty from Almorah to Ramnee is the road, but which could be made good for 12,000 rupees. Mules and tanyans loaded, and the hill bullocks, could travel all the way. The only large river to cross is the Pindet, over which is a suspension bridge of ropes, called a joulah; there are two other places fit for European colonization."

'It is notorious to our readers that the climate of India in general is prejudicial to the health and physical development of the children of Europeans. The same remark, we believe, is not inapplicable to delicate children of East Indian parentage. The children of European parents are generally sent to Europe for their education when they attain the age of from five to nine years. There are many, however, who, owing to the narrow income of their parents, or perhaps from having been left orphans, and totally unprovided for, cannot enjoy that advantage. We have ourselves heard even commissioned officers in despair lament that they had not the means of sending their children to England for the benefit of health and education; and we have been informed, that children of fine promise have sunk under the climate, at that critical period of adolescence, when the constitution pines after a more natural locale, because their parents had not wherewithal to pay the expenses necessary for the occasion.

'This is a subject of most serious consideration; but if our correspondent's proposal for the establishment of a school or academy at Ramnee be a feasible one, the evil admits of a partial remedy. Not only could the children of soldiers and others be comfortably provided for at such an institution, but those of persons of superior

condition. If their means should be an insuperable bar to their sending home their children to Europe at the usual time, they might be placed at such an institution as the one contemplated, until promotion, or other good fortune, enabled their parents to give them further advantages."

In a future Number we shall resume this important subject of the 'Colonization of India,' and give some striking examples of its practicability as well as beneficial effects, where it has been already introduced by Sir Alexander Johnston, when Chief Justice and First Member of his Majesty's Council in Ceylon,—to whom that island and the friends of liberal Governments generally are so much indebted.

HE IS GONE!

He is gone!—but his memory for ever
Is embalm'd in his genius sublime;
His fame, like the mightiest river,
Will flow on—'midst the ruins of time!

He is gone!—whose bold energy towering
Ennobled his vast master mind,
Whose eloquence, always o'erpowering,
Supported the rights of mankind!

He is gone!—yes, the bright star has faded
O'er Britain—so lately which shone,
Whose spirit her councils pervaded,
To guard both her people and throne!

He is gone!—rival nations deplore him,
Consecrating to Freedom his name;
From the hopes of his country Heaven bore him,
In the glorious meridian of fame!

He is gone!—scarce his Monarch had bless'd him
With power to achieve noble ends,
And Liberty fondly caress'd him,
When Death swept him off from his friends.

He is gone!—but the wisdom enlighten'd
The Patriot Premier bequeath'd,
The pathway to honour has brighten'd,
And his memory for ever enwreath'd.

He is gone!—and Britannia is keeping
Her lone vigil over his grave
Whom far distant countries are weeping—
The friend of the free and the brave!

THE EDINBURGH MEDICAL JOURNAL, AND THE QUARTERLY REVIEW, ON CONTAGION.

[Communicated for the 'Oriental Herald' by a Correspondent in India.]

It is a singular fact, in the history of human nature; that the greater part of the maxims and opinions by which we are regulated through life are taken entirely upon trust. Most people not only pass the whole period of their existence without inquiring into the principles upon which the maxims thus adopted have their foundation, but look with a species of horror upon the temerity of the few who dare even to doubt their correctness, and still more to suggest any alteration in them. It is, in short, a question of faith; and the love of ease tells us it is so much more convenient to repose in confidence upon the truth of that sort of information imbibed by us, traditionally and incidentally, in the course of our education, than to seek out the sources of such knowledge by the exercise of our own reason, that we are mostly content to move on direct towards the mark pointed out to us by our peculiar avocation, and to leave every thing else to the care of those whom we suppose more interested in understanding them. Nor is this entirely to be regretted; there would be but little profit made of the discoveries of our predecessors if in every instance we were to push back the land-marks of knowledge, instead of taking them as our starting-post, in the new race of improvement. Thus, the transcendental mathematician considers the most abstruse and complicated theorem, when once demonstrated, an axiom as plain as that things which are equal to the same thing are equal to each other; and if in the course of some investigation, we ask him to explain some problem to us, he has no hesitation in saying, that he cannot do so on the instant, but that he is quite satisfied of the result, and therefore thinks it unnecessary to interrupt his operations for that purpose. It would be idle, however, to remark upon the wide difference between mathematical truths and speculative principles, yet still no one will deny that the nearer the latter can approach to the simple elements and legitimate deductions of the former, the better. Every attempt, therefore, to inquire into the foundation of generally received notions, and to place them on the basis of truth and experience, is entitled to the gratitude of mankind, since it cannot but tend to remove one of the principal obstacles opposed to our advancement in knowledge and happiness.

It is to be lamented, however, that instead of adopting the view and proceeding in all discussions of the nature required in that spirit of candour and disinterestedness which is best calculated for eliciting truth, professional men, from whom, if from any, better things might be expected, appear to contend for their infallibility alone, and heap every measure of abuse and ridicule upon one another, as if

the ignorance of one set, or the motives of another, could have any controlling power upon questions depending upon experience and past reasoning. If, indeed, it be impossible to expose what is false in fact, on the one hand; or false in reasoning on the other, virulence and abuse will certainly be but a poor compensation for our defect in experience or incorrectness in logic.

But besides the irascibility common to literary controversialists, there is another symptom of the weakness, or of the ignorance, of the learned, which is frequently to be detected on these occasions. It is in their instant and blind adoption of the authority of names, when coupled with opinions, which appear to favour their views, no matter whether such opinions proceed from persons notoriously incompetent to command our respect, whether the opinions themselves be grounded on false principles, or joined, in short, in the very same sentence with absurdities of which any man of sense would be ashamed. In literary encounters, as in those of life and death, it seems, as if by the common consent of the world, it were considered justifiable to take every possible advantage of an adversary till he was effectually beaten down; it is in this that the maxim, *nimium altercando veritas amittitur*, is so fully exemplified. Angelica is observed to escape during the struggle; but seldom have any of the combatants the magnanimity of Rinaldo to propose a cessation of their personal strife, and to join in the common pursuit. Well might the poet exclaim:

'O gran bontà de' cavalieri antiqui!
Eran rivali, eran di fè diversi
E si sentian degli aspri colpi iniqui
Per tutta la persona anco dolersi;
E pur per selve oscure, e calli obliqui
Insieme van, senza sospetto aversi.'

These reflections have suggested themselves to us on a review of the controversy respecting the supposed contagion of plague. A question of greater interest to mankind, whether it relates to a reference to the past, or to the principles which are to regulate our proceedings for the future, cannot well be imagined. Accordingly, in endeavouring to give an account of what has been written on the subject, we shall content ourselves with placing the debate as fairly as we can before our readers as it now stands, without hazarding any opinion of our own, farther than by noticing the inconclusiveness of the statements advanced, when such appears to us to be the case. Our prejudices, we confess, incline us to side with the contagionists; but, as we have thought ourselves bound to try the question according to our conscience and the evidence adduced, we cannot deny, and we say it with surprise at our passive belief, that the non-contagionists are right in stating, that, as yet, no satisfactory and convincing proof has been offered on the side of their opponents.

The first article to which we shall turn is that on the Doctrine of Contagion, in the seventh Number of the new series 'Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal' for July 1820. This paper is professedly

written with the view of disproving Dr. Maclean's assertion, that the idea of epidemic and pestilential diseases depending on contagion never occurred to Hippocrates or any of his followers; it partakes, therefore, more of a literary than scientific character, and whatever may be its merits in other respects, displays a degree of learning and research highly creditable to the authors whose works are referred to, and to the labours of the reviewer himself, excepting that the latter hints, with no great liberality, that the learning in question may be the learning of indexes, and the research nothing but a patient collation of authorities.

We may remark in the outset, that like all other controversies, the present has become difficult, chiefly from the want of such a definition of the leading terms as all parties might consent to give them. Thus, whilst the contagionists give a somewhat loose and extended acceptation to the word *contagion*, their opponents certainly appear to restrict its meaning to the narrowest bounds; and it is not difficult to foresee that a termination of the dispute will only be found by both parties sacrificing a portion of their notions of infallibility at the shrine of common sense.

Dr. Russel, observing upon the various and vague application of the term contagion, states, that 'it has sometimes been used for the plague itself; sometimes as synonymous with infection; sometimes for the virulent effluvia issuing from the sick, or from substances infected; and sometimes merely as a property common to various diseases;' and though probably only one of these definitions be strictly correct, it must occur to every body that even in this advanced stage of the controversy they are all employed without any hesitation as occasions may offer. Thus, in the commencement of the article under review, the word *contagion* is obviously taken as synonymous with the plague itself; and the public consternation artfully worked up by the contrivance of Cardinal Monte, in ordering an inquiry to be instituted respecting the pestilence, in industriously propagating reports that the neighbourhood refused all commerce with the city, and in permitting the departure of some of the prelates, is taken by the reviewer for a belief in the doctrine of specific contagion in its most restricted sense. Nothing, we apprehend, can be more undervalued than that, in the age referred to, the plague was looked upon as the most frightful of calamities. The description given of it by Boccaccio, to which, however, we intend more particularly to advert in the sequel, was calculated to spread its fame throughout the civilized world. We have not the means of ascertaining what measures of police were then adopted on such occasions, but we conceive that the circumstances detailed in the extract quoted, (p. 107) were quite sufficient to account for the sensation created by the Cardinal's intrigues, without supposing that the doctrine of contagion already existed in the minds of the public.

This ready interpretation is not the only circumstance which

tends to throw discredit upon the summary given in the paper before us. We shall have occasion to remark, as we proceed, that in most of the quotations made from ancient authors there is something to weaken the inference attempted to be drawn from them; and many of them, if the original authors be referred to, will be found to be connected with other observations, showing pretty plainly that the term *contagion* was not by them applied to the communication of disease solely by contact or contiguity. In some cases, however, a still greater degree of disingenuousness appears to be practised; and the instances adduced by Dr. Marx and others, are undervalued, ridiculed, or passed over in silence, for no other reason than because, upon a calm review, they obviously tell more against the proposition contended for, than in its favour.

We pass over the passages referred to at pp. 108, 109, relating to pestilential air, and to the pollution of itch and leprosy; and for obvious reasons, some of which are stated by the reviewer himself, we refrain from calling in question the statements to be found in holy writ. In like manner, the segregation of lepers amongst the Persians, being connected with their religious opinions, may be passed over; and, in short, the first writer from whom we might have expected information on the subject is Hippocrates. On referring to this great man's writings, however, it is admitted (p. 112), that 'search has in vain been made for any traces of the doctrine of contagion.' This silence is the more favourable to the cause of the non-contagionists, as we know from Pliny* that he predicted the occurrence of a pestilence, and sent his pupils in all directions to render their assistance. The admission which the reviewer here feels himself called upon to make, that historians and philosophers understood the contagious propagation of the plague by touching the diseased, before medical men adopted the idea, is of itself sufficient, we apprehend, to render it very doubtful whether the moderns have not rather mistaken the meaning which the historians and philosophers in question have attached to the term *contagion*. The reviewer, indeed, seems to be aware of his being open to this objection, for in the citation from Thucydides, whilst he takes no particular notice of the expressions by which that writer describes the mode in which the plague extended its ravages, he is anxious to impress upon his readers that *ηψατο* means *touched*, or infected; whereas its plain meaning in the passage referred to, seems merely *reached* or *arrived* at. Thucydides is describing the direction taken by the malady, from the place of its first appearance, to Athens; and in doing this, he says that 'it first reached,' or, as Dr. Smith translates it, 'showed itself amongst the inhabitants of the Piræna;' but to say that it *infected* those whom it first attacked, is to assume the

* Hippocrates [enituit] medicinâ: qui venientem ab Illyriis pestilentiam prædixit, discipulosque ad auxiliandum circa urbes dimisit.—PLIN. *Nat. Hist.*

the very point in dispute, since that fact being once granted, there would be an end to the discussion.

Sensible, however, that the quotation, p. 112, may not be thought to warrant the conclusion attempted to be drawn from it, the reviewer, with greater hopes of success, brings forward the case of the plague appearing amongst the troops besieging Potidæa. But we take leave to say, that there is something in Thucydides's account of this transaction which is very difficult to be understood. It is related that the Athenians, after defeating Aristæus, immediately laid siege to Potidæa, but being unable completely to invest the place on the land faces, Phormio was sent to their assistance; and he erected works against the Pallene side, whilst the generals who succeeded to Callias in the command, attacked it on the side towards the isthmus, where the battle had been fought. Some time after, Agnon advanced to reinforce the besiegers, but his operations were put a stop to by the ravages of the plague, which swept away more than one thousand of his men, and forced him to retreat. The plague, too, is said to have attacked those who had been before the place from the commencement of the siege. Before this occurred, however, we are told that Phormio, with the troops under his command, had returned from an excursion which he had made into Chalcidica, so that this part of the force, if any, was the one exposed to take the infection; and yet they, in conjunction with the detachment on the other side, were left to prosecute the attack; and in the course of the year, we are afterwards told, compelled the place to surrender. This achievement, it must be confessed, is extraordinary, when related of an army whilst suffering from the plague; and we should really be obliged to some of our military readers to give us their opinion as to the degree of credit that should be attached to it; begging permission merely to observe, that the Athenian commanders alleged, in a general way merely, the hardships suffered by the exposure of their troops to the cold of winter as their reason for the favourable capitulation granted, when they fell under the censure of their fellow-citizens for not having exacted severer terms: an implied proof that neither party considered the plague to have done much injury to the army.

Passing over Sophocles, whom the reviewer does not much rely upon as a witness, we come to Plutarch, (p. 114,) whose account of the plague, as incidentally given in his life of Pericles, is quoted as being in favour of contagion. But the word *contagion* is here the reviewer's own, and adopted to explain his opinion of the nature of the contaminated air, caused by such a number of human beings having been pent up in so confined a space. He here again refers to the account of Thucydides; and the remark made by that writer, that those who attended upon the sick took the infection, and greatly increased the mortality. In all this, however, there is nothing of the modern doctrine of contagion; and the quotation immediately following, (p. 115,) from Aristotle, goes directly to the

point, by showing that that great man did not consider contact alone sufficient to communicate a pestilential disorder; or why should he inquire how it happened that plague at one time chiefly affects those who approach the diseased, and at others is common to all? Surely, if the doctrine of contagion had been so generally recognised by historians and philosophers, as the reviewer believes it was, the Stagirite would not have attributed the phenomenon to so subtle a cause as the fuel of the disease catching fire, as it were. It is to be observed, too, that unless we greatly misapprehend the meaning of Aristotle in the passage in question, the fomes, or fuel, (*fomes ad succendendum*) should, by the rules of analogy, be in the infectee, and not in the infector; and that, therefore, the whole theory of infection being propagated by clothes or merchandise, (that is, the flame being preserved without the fuel,) falls to the ground.

Touchwood, or even gunpowder, two pretty susceptible *fomites*, might be carried from one end of the world to the other without danger, unless they happened to meet with something in the shape of *flamma* or *igniculus* to inflame them. The *fomes* transmitted by clothes, however, is, as it appears, indestructible; and, according to the theory of the contagionists, must indeed increase in power under every fresh accession of disease. It is clear, therefore, that there is an error in supposing that so acute a reasoner as Aristotle, meant by *τεκταινα*, (*fomes*, id quo aliquid succendimus,) to refer to the fuel of the disease being communicated to the bystanders, but rather that the latter supplied the fuel, which exposed them to be consumed or burnt by the disease, in the shape of the degree of *predisposition* which they had to take the complaint, the noxious effluvia arising from the sick man's body being the means of communication. It is remarkable, too, that Boccaccio, whose admiration of the Stagirite's system of philosophy is well known, and whose love of the marvellous and the dramatic did not prevent his embodying every thing into his narrative that had been before remarked on the subject of plague, interprets this idea very faithfully when he says, (see the extract given below,) that the disease communicated itself to the sound just as fire appears to fly to every thing that is dry or inflammable within its reach. This is, indeed, perfectly consistent with the notion of contaminated air entertained by the non-contagionists; nor can any thing be more reasonable than to suppose that when, under a particular condition of the atmosphere, an epidemic has been generated, those who, besides the generally diffused cause, expose themselves to the effluvia* arising from the bodies of the sick,

* Dr. Hancock's view of the intensity of what he calls contagious fever, (*Med. Journal*, vol. ii, p. 666,) approaches nearer to the notions of the non-contagionists than any we have yet seen from persons adverse to that view of the question; for though contact is taken for granted throughout, it is suggested that the disease may originate without it; and all sorts of virulent epidemics are stated to be considered by some as contagious; upon no other principle, however, than that when bad cases are crowded

or wear their unaired clothes, must render themselves still more liable to take the disorder. But to suppose that such clothes, if sent to a distance and to a pure atmosphere, or that merchandise, which can scarcely be supposed to be affected at all by such effluvia, should be capable of propagating the disease, appears to us, we confess, to be absurd.

Next follows (p. 116) Dionysius Halicarnassus in the list of witnesses; and here again the reviewer takes occasion to give us his interpretation of the Greek word, which we have before remarked upon, with the addition, in the present instance, of *caught*, to its synonymes. What he appears most to rely upon in the present instance, however, is the circumstance of the disease having been spread by its infecting the attendants upon the sick, and also by the putrid exhalations caused by the exposure of dead bodies; but the former he had already accounted for upon the authority of Aristotle, and the latter, we apprehend, was quite sufficient to aggravate the evil, whatever might have been the nature of the epidemic, without having recourse to the doctrine of contagion. The last mentioned cause, indeed, putrid vapour, which the reviewer seems to consider of weight in proving that the ancients had pretty distinct notions of the nature of contagion and infection, (p. 117,) he rejects when brought forward by Diodorus Siculus, apparently because that writer does not make use of any specific term applying unequivocally to contagion; but the other quotation, (p. 118,) because the author speaks particularly of the disease being caught by those who waited upon the sick, is considered more fortunate, with what justice we have already hinted in our remarks on Aristotle's opinion.

Of Plutarch (p. 118) the reviewer very consistently declines to take any further notice; but he as candidly gives us the reason, which is, because that writer attributes the properties of contagion indiscriminately to a great number of diseases, and thereby shows either that he did not understand the matter, or that his notion differed very much from that now entertained. For the same reason we shall take leave to pass over Appian, (p. 119,) without stopping to say more, than that a plague which permitted those labouring under it to travel twenty-three days journey, could scarcely have been a very destructive malady.

In the case of Dio Cassius, (p. 119,) the reviewer notices the story of people having been infected by needles dipped in pestilential poison, during the reign of Commodus, and the same is mentioned,

together, the atmosphere becomes malignantly deleterious. The only difference we can observe is, that whilst diseases that are commonly reputed to be contagious, are communicated by contact almost as soon as the disorder has declared itself, the plague is apparently admitted to be so communicated only under some aggravated stage of its progress, a fact which we believe is inconsistent with the common notion of contagion or infection.

we believe, of Domitian. Whether this sort of inoculation, however, be a fair test of the effects of simple contagion, must be settled by the physicians. We know not whether any experiment of the kind have been made upon dumb animals,* but we have heard that an individual received into his stomach the blood of a patient labouring under yellow fever, with perfect impunity, and on the other hand, we have known an instance of a medical man inoculating himself with a disease which is supposed to be infectious only under peculiar circumstances, and meeting with his death in consequence.

At page 120, we have a glaring instance of the disingenuousness alluded to in our prefatory observations: Gregory of Nyssa having said that he did not think that some diseases, which he specifies, communicated the sickness by contagion, is overwhelmed with ridicule, notwithstanding the account there given of his second oration might well have entitled him to better treatment. (On the other hand, Evagrius, who says, amongst other things, (p. 121,) that some perished by meeting only and conversing with the sick, whilst others who fled remained well, but yet communicated the disease to persons not previously affected, is considered a valuable authority; whilst Procopius, who asserts that it happened neither to physicians nor to ordinary persons to be affected by touching the sick or dead, &c. is discredited without hesitation, and the reviewer, by a singular *petitio principii*, observes, (p. 122,) that the very description of a plague, and by consequence it must have been contagious, notwithstanding his assertion to the contrary! Thus the assertions of the one, and the denial of the other, are found to be equally in favour of the reviewer's doctrine.

Cedrenus (p. 122) is the first unequivocal testimony in favour of the belief that the clothing of the sick was capable of conveying the infection, but the weight of this opinion is certainly not increased by its being coupled with the absurdity of the disease being communicable 'by mere looking.' Query, at what?

The next authority quoted (p. 123) is Aretæus of Cappadocia, but his testimony appears rather in favour of the corruption of the air, than of a communication by contact. In this opinion, too, Galen, whom we should have supposed, above all others, capable of understanding the subject, is said to join; and his notions are accordingly stated to be neither precise nor perspicuous. Paul of Ægina is next said to have believed that elephantiasis was as contagious as the plague; and the reviewer then confesses, on the authority of Dr. Marx, that many writers, whose names are given, (p. 124,) never insinuate that certain disorders enumerated, and amongst which is plague, are contagious. The reason assigned for

* See 'Quarterly Review,' No. 65, art. Plague, &c. for Desgenette's and Whyte's Experiments.

this remarkable omission amounts to nothing more than that they had adopted another theory. The reviewer's own reasoning, indeed, upon this point is far from satisfactory; for if it 'does not appear (p. 125) wonderful that historians admitted into their works popular opinions, which were excluded from those of professed medical authors,' the very fact of medical men having thought fit to exclude them, shows that such tales were considered by those who ought to have had the best means of appreciating them, as totally unworthy of credit. Historians may possibly have considered it their duty, in recording public transactions, to notice the effect which existing calamities produced upon the minds of the people; but such relations cannot be considered of any importance when opposed to the testimony, or even to the silence of professional men, on points directly referring to their peculiar avocations. A physician may indeed pass many years of a long life without being an eye-witness of any remarkable epidemic; but the converse of the proposition does not hold good, and we cannot imagine that any remarkable epidemic could occur without there being some physician to watch its progress, and record its history. If we were left to philosophers alone for such documents, our information would indeed be scanty. But even in this respect the remark of the reviewer was unfortunate, for instead of there being a probability that the writers, in whose pages Dr. Marx was unsuccessful in finding traces of the doctrine of contagion, 'did not come in contact with any great epidemic, and might therefore omit the mention of contagion for no other reason but because it was not presented to their personal observation,' we have shown that Hippocrates, at the very head of them, did witness the occurrence of a plague, and that under circumstances peculiarly favourable for accurate observation and calm investigation of all the phenomena of the disease.

We next (p. 126) come to the Roman writers, but these will not detain us long, notwithstanding the remark of the reviewer, that we meet in them with more precision and certainty of expression at least, than we find in the early and even the later writers of Greece. We cannot but think the reviewer has here fallen into the not uncommon error of supposing Grecian writers, as a class, to be more ancient than the writers of Rome, whereas several of his favourite authorities were of a much later date. Diodorus Siculus, for example, flourished after Lucretius had amplified the account of the plague before given by Thucydides: and Dionysius Halicarnassus, Plutarch, and Appian, had all the benefit of Livy's descriptions. A reference, indeed, to the order of time in which the several writers on pestilence composed their narrations, will greatly assist the reader in apportioning the degree of credit which can be claimed for each of the accounts alluded to; and we are greatly mistaken if, upon a diligent collation of the whole, it will not be found that the writers of them have generally been content to copy the leading

traits noticed by their predecessors, with such alterations in arrangement or language, as were thought sufficient to confer something like an air of originality upon their own lucubrations.

Under this view, we shall abstain from a detailed examination of the passages adduced from the Roman classics—they will stand or fall with the authors before adverted to; but we must take leave to remark, before we quit this part of the subject, that we are far from coinciding with the reviewer in his opinion of the greater precision and certainty of expression common to them when speaking of contagion.* *Contagio* is, we think, the designation of a general effect, and not of the mode in which that effect is propagated—the latter meaning of the term and of *contagium* seem to be subordinate and secondary. The moderns have not unfrequently restricted the term to the sense implied by actual contact; but it may be questioned whether the ancients understood it even metaphorically, except in the enlarged sense, of a widely diffused effect of any kind. In proof, it may be noticed that *pestis* and *pestilentia* are used when the specific nature of the disease is intended to be described; and *contagio* is the term by which its general extent is explained. Thus Mandonius, in excusing his brother's revolt, (Liv. 28, 34,) is made to accuse the madness of the times, which, like a pestiferous contagion, &c., '*quum velut contagione quadam pestifera*,' where *contagione* is obviously the general term, and *pestifera* its specific nature. So in the well known opening of the Bell. Cat., *Post, ubi contagio quasi pestilentia invasit*, &c., where again the meaning of *contagio* is, as it were, defined and qualified by *pestilentia*, as denoting its baneful nature. Thus in the description of the plague at Syracuse, adverted to by the reviewer, (p. 130,) the nature of that malady being unequivocally stated, we have no such word as *contagio* in the whole account—the *curatio et contactus agrorum* obviously alluding to the common belief that the exhalations and breath of the sick were considered to be noxious. The term, indeed, occurs in the account of the pestilence, (Liv. 3, 6,) but the whole context must, we think, convince the reader that it is there used in the subordinate sense of *pollution*; for after employing the expression, '*ministeria in vicem*,' to signify their attendance upon each other, the word *contagio* could hardly be supposed to mean mere contact, but rather

* 'Dr. Hancock very justly observes, that in almost all the best Latin writers on medicine, *contagium* and *contagio* are the only words used to denote the effluvia, or emanations, arising in disease, which are capable of infecting the sound, whether *mediately* by the air, or by infected goods, called *fomites*, or *immediately* by the touch: to limit contagion, therefore, to the propagation of disease by contact only, would be to disallow the more comprehensive use of the term in our best authors.'—*Medical Jurisprudence*, vol. i. p. 106.

Did Dr. Hancock cite any passages to this effect from the authors alluded to, and if so, how does it happen that Dr. Marx and Omodei, as well as the reviewer, omitted to mention them?

dirt or filth. Even in the quotations given from Lucretius and Ovid, *contagia* relates to the general effects of the disease; and at page 128, for example, the translation is 'for at no time did the effects of the voracious disorder cease to find out its victims one after the other;' and that the necessity for actual contact was not implied in the expression *avidus morbi contagia*, is plain from the poet's going on to say, (Nat. Rer. 6, 1236,) 'for those who, from too great a desire of living, and fear of death, refused even to see their sick friends, nevertheless died like so many sheep,' &c. In Lucan's account of the distress experienced in Pompey's camp, the word *contagia* occurs in the general sense of exhalations of a noxious kind:

'Corpora dum solvit tabes, et digerit artus,
Traxit iners cælum fluidæ contagia pestis
Obscuram in nubem.'

Bell. Civ. 6, 88.

And, in Silius Italicus, as disgusting pollutions; thus—

'Dira contagia fœdi morbi manant in omnes populos.'

And lastly, in Pliny's account of the inhumation of the Vestal Cornelia, fœdumque *contagium* is thought to be an improper use of the word, as mere touch is meant, and therefore some editions have it *fœdum contactum*.—Pliny, lib. 4. Ep. 11.

After this we do not think our readers will quarrel with us for passing over the whole of the Latin writers, nor are we disposed to allow ourselves to be detained by the definitions quoted (p. 132) from Isidore of Seville,—*contagium* and *contagio* being there obviously used in the sense just noted.

We now come to the description given of the plague of Florence in 1349, which the reviewer states to have been rendered immortal by the amusing pen of Boccaccio. We know not how such a term as *amusing* could have occurred on such an occasion; but if the reviewer alludes to the fanciful nature of the description, as compounded of all that Thucydides and Lucretius had written on the subject, together with something marvellous of Boccaccio's own, we think he is right. This writer, whose account, probably, gave the tone to those of the other authors named, (p. 133,) is relied upon as a material evidence in favour of the propagation of the disease by *fomites*, a favourite doctrine of the contagionists. As, however, the reviewer has not given the whole passage, we shall here supply the deficiency, and then leave the reader to judge for himself what degree of credit to attach to it.* 'And the pestilence was so much

* E fu questa pestilenza di maggior forza, perciocchè essa da gl'infermi di quella per lo comunicare insieme s'avventava a' sani non altramente, che faceva il fuoco alle cose secche, o unto, quando molto gli sono avvicinate. E più avanti ancora ebbe di male, che non solamente il parlare, e l'usare con gl'infermi dava a' sani infermità, o cagione di

the more powerful, as by intercourse with the sick it instantly spread to the healthy, not otherwise than as fire catches any thing dry or oily that is in its immediate vicinity. And still further, it was so violent, that not only was disease, and generally death, the consequence of speaking to, or frequenting the sick, but even touching the clothes, or any other articles, which had been touched or used by the diseased, appeared to carry the malady with it to the persons touching them. This is wonderful to hear, and I am bound to confess, that if it had not been seen by many, and by myself, I should hardly dare, not merely to believe it, but to record it, although I had heard that it was worthy of credit. I say, that so effectually did the quality of the pestilence spoken of communicate itself from one to another, that not only did man take it from man, but it visibly did what is a great deal more; that is, if any of the effects of one who had been sick, or had died of the disease, were touched by other animals than the human species, not only were they contaminated by the disease, but in a very short time killed by it, of which my own eyes (as I have before stated) had, besides other instances, on one occasion the following proof, for the rags which belonged to a poor man who had died of the disease in question having been thrown into the street, and two pigs coming up to them, and rummaging them in their manner, first with their snouts and then taking them with their teeth, and throwing them about their mouths, in a few moments, after twirling round several times, as if they had taken poison, both of them, upon these infected rags, fell to the ground, and expired.' Such is the context to which the passage quoted by the reviewer is joined, and having placed it before our readers, we shall now only observe, that if the doctrine of clothes or merchandise retaining the fomes or matter of infection

comune morte, ma ancora il toccare i panni, o qualunque altra cosa da quegli infermi stata tocca, o adoperata, pareva seco quella cotale infermità nel toccatore trasportare. Maravigliosa cosa è ad udire quello, che io debbo dire, il che se da gli occhi di molti, e da' miei non fosse stato veduto, appena che io ardissi di crederlo, non che di scriverlo, quantunque da fede degno udito l'avessi. Dico che di tanta efficacia fu la qualità della pestilenza narrata, nello appiccarsi da uno ad altro, che non solamente l'uomo all'uomo, ma questo, che è molto più, assai volte visibilmente fece, cioè che la cosa dell'uomo infermo stato, o morto di tale infermità tocca da un' altro animale fuori della specie dell'uomo, non solamente della infermità il contaminasse, ma quello infra brevissimo spazio occidesse, di che gli occhi miei (siccome poco d'avanti è detto) presero tra l'altre volte un dì così fatta esperienza, che essendo gli stracci d'un povero uomo da tale infermità morto gittati nella via pubblica, e avvicendosi ad essi due porci, e quegli secondo il lor costume prima molto col grifo, e poi co' denti presigli e scossigli alle guance in piccola ora appresso dopo alcuno avvolgimento, come se veleno avessero preso, amenduni sopra gli mal tirate stracci morti caddero in terra.—
Decameron P. G.

must be supported, it should certainly be on better testimony than this,—*non tali auxilio nec defensoribus istis.*

Here, however, we pause in our inquiry, and candour obliges us to confess that, from and after the great Florentine plague, a new light seems to have broken upon the western world, and means of precaution, the principal of which was the cutting off all communication with places affected, appear from that period to have been adopted. Whether this fact, which we are disposed to believe susceptible of complete proof, may be considered as unequivocally contradicting Dr. Maclean's assertion, will, of course, depend upon the definition of the term *contagion* which is adopted by that gentleman; but we have no hesitation in saying, that, in our opinion, any definition that would tend to weaken so reasonable an inference could only be formed by restricting the acceptation of the word to narrower limits than are consistent with fair discussion in the present stage of the question. In favour of Dr. Maclean's assertion, however, it should be borne in mind, that subsequently to the period adverted to, many writers (pp. 138, 139) are stated as having either omitted all mention of the doctrine of contagion, or expressly controverted it; and page 140, Alexander Benedict is named as the first writer among physicians who traced the rules of pestilential contagion, and devised the most fitting precautions against it. This avowal, by the way, is very inconsistent with Dr. Hancock's observation, quoted from his 'Researches' by Dr. Paris in his 'Medical Jurisprudence,' and before alluded to by us; and whether by 'Latin writers' Dr. Hancock meant ancients or moderns, he must be considered as directly at issue either with Dr. Marx or Annibal Omodei, if not with both.

Here, then, we shall close this part of the subject, with stating our opinion that, viewing the question of the correctness of Dr. Maclean's assertion, 'that it was not until about the middle of the sixteenth century that the doctrine of contagion was first promulgated by the highest spiritual authority in Christendom,' as partaking as much of a literary as of a professional character, it cannot be said that the Doctor was perfectly correct; though, on the other hand, it must be conceded to him that, as a disputed point, the opinion, from whatever motive declared, of the court of Rome, gave a weight and currency to the doctrine of contagion, which it had not possessed before the removal of the Council of Trent.

The examination of the article contained in the 56th Number of the Quarterly Review must be reserved till next month.

MY FIRESIDE.

My solitary fireside,
 Oh, how most dear thou art to me!
 Dearer than any hearth beside,
 Though it in monarch's palace be.
 I deem my lonely, friendless hearth,
 The holiest spot in all the earth.

Here do I sit alone,—the proud,
 The high, the vain, all distant far;
 None to disturb me of the crowd
 That make the world perpetual jar;—
 Oh, no! if there be none to *bless*,
 At least there's *no one* to *distress*.

I've known enough of intercourse,
 To shun, to hate, to dread its power;
 No more I ask that poison'd source
 Of joy to glitter in my bower,
 Nor seek a drop of that whose flow
 Is mix'd with deadliest draughts of woe.

And thus, my fireside, thou art
 A temple, and a home to me;
 The long-wish'd home of my worn heart,
 My spirit's stainless sanctuary,
 Where I may bend, till from my soul
 The strains of inspiration roll.

And I do plan full many a lay
 To grace thy quiet loneliness,
 Of freedom proud, or love's sweet sway,
 Lays that exalt as well as bless;
 And who knows but thou mayest be
 A monument of fame to me.

And if this proudly-cherish'd dream
 Be never realized, thou still
 Wilt witness many a tear-drop stream,
 And hear full many a pure sigh thrill;
 Secret and sweet of cherish'd hope,—
 Still hope, though it be doom'd to droop.

S. E. H.

LETTER OF SIR EDWARD EAST, LATE CHIEF JUSTICE OF BENGAL,
TO LORD ELDON, LATE CHANCELLOR OF ENGLAND.

[In our Number for July last (Vol. xiv. p. 48) we gave an account of the singular discovery of the following Letter, and the Papers to which it refers: to which the curious reader may turn. We have now the satisfaction to announce that they have all reached our hands, and will soon be laid before the readers of this Work. We give the Letter only in our present Number, and shall follow it up with the publication of the Papers in regular order.]

Calcutta, 1st January, 1816.

MY LORD,

I HAVE been for some time collecting materials for giving your Lordship such information respecting local circumstances, connected with my situation here, as I thought might be useful to you in forming your measures of administration for this country, and, as I hope, in promoting the public service. In perusing the papers you will meet, no doubt, with several well-known grievances and stumbling-blocks; but I have endeavoured to place them before your eyes in a new and connected point of view, which will, at least, help you to the right remedies from the suggestions of your own mind, if those which I have ventured to submit to you shall not be thought ~~advisable in the whole~~, or even in part. As much of that which I have proposed to be done must either be altogether executed by the local government, or affect it in its local relations, I thought you would approve of my having given copies of the papers (saving this letter) to Lord Moira, in order that an opportunity might be afforded to his Lordship and his advisers in the Government, of starting any objections, or making any observations which might occur to them. I cannot, however, refrain from acknowledging the strong sense of obligation I feel to his Lordship, for his uniform friendly attentions to me since my arrival, on all occasions; which have entitled him to command every service of mine to his Government.

The papers are marked No. 1, 2, 3.—Nos. 1 and 2 are intended to exhibit to your Lordship the whole state of the population of Calcutta and of the provinces, in its legal relations, according to its descriptive classes. No. 1 relates particularly to the *British*, as No. 2 does to the *Native* population in its subdivisions; though each part has general references to the other. If this classification shall present the subject to your consideration in a more distinct and practical manner than former notices have done, my principal object will be answered; the power of application will be general.

No. 3 consists of three several parts, having, however, a common link of connection, and continued relation to each other. It comprises the reform of the *Mofussil* laws, courts, and practice. The enormous and still growing accumulation of arrears in those courts,

was a subject which I know pressed much upon your Lordship's mind when I had the honour of conferring with you in England; I, therefore, very early after my arrival here, turned my thoughts to the subject, in hopes of contributing my mite of aid. There is not much difficulty in discovering the causes of the evil, whatever there may be in applying an adequate remedy, but the knowledge of the one helps to the other. The Native population of British India may amount to about 50 millions, of whom by far the greater proportion is under this Presidency. The number of British Judges and Magistrates here to dispense justice to this multitude is about 150, dispersed throughout an immense area. The execution of so arduous a duty, by so small a number, being physically impossible, is appalling enough of itself. Think, then, how the duty must necessarily be performed, when the greater number of the administrators are scarcely more than boys, having no particular turn or talent for judicial pursuits, and without any judicial education or training whatever. I am afraid to say more upon the subject, even under the protection of your Lordship's confidence. To meet imperious necessity, with the show at least of physical means, Native agency has been called in, under the names of sudder ameen and moonsiffs, to deal with all subordinate claims as they could; and as the load has still increased, these means have been considered the only practical resource to resort to and extend more and more. Thus, instead of adding numbers, with more knowledge and talent, to the system, in order to meet the increasing exigency, resort has been had to more profound and almost invincible ignorance, to an entire absence of all useful and enlightened education, and its sister, talent; and in place of the honest integrity of the British youth, though un-instructed and unpractised in judicial knowledge and pursuits, the only acquisition which has been made is a vast increase of cunning, intrigue, and corruption, in the lower departments of justice; hence the old are more than ever necessary.

The remedy I have ventured to suggest, has been conceived and framed with a view to meet this combination of difficulties. I do not pretend to say, I cannot even presume to think, that it is the best which can be devised, but I verily believe that the true remedy lies in that direction; perhaps it may more properly be called a palliation, for I fear that the circumstances of the country do not admit of any other more effectual measure. If there had been any prominent judicial officer in the original system of government here, himself a practical lawyer, with authority to propose, at least, measures to the Government for the judicial administration of its people, the evil could never have arisen to its present head. He must have felt it himself too strongly in every direction not to have turned his mind incessantly to the correction of it, as it pressed upon his own judgment and responsibility. But here it has been a shifting and secondary duty, without legal responsibility or legal knowledge to guide it.

It was impossible to avoid touching upon the question of Colonization, in offering some of the remarks which I felt it my duty to make for other purposes in these papers: yet I could not dwell upon it, as well because it did not immediately but incidentally only bear upon those legal topics which I had in view, as because the subject itself must be for ever present to your view for its own importance sake.

The papers themselves, however, unavoidably exhibit some bearings of it, which might not be familiar to eyes at a distance. By giving property in the land to a certain description of persons, you have made not only those, but others of the Natives, eat of the tree of knowledge of good and evil. You will not be able to stop here, many of the great landowners are rising rapidly to princely fortunes. The Rajah of Burdwan admits that he receives ten lacs (100,000*l.* sterling) annually from his zemindaries, above the stipulated revenue to Government; and it is shrewdly supposed that he does not admit above half the truth. The whole body of ryots, who formerly looked to the Government as their landlord and master, will naturally transfer their allegiance to him who has now the command of their fortunes. The justice of the gift, as it respects the ryots, is far from clear. But the deed is done, and the Government must now only look to, and provide for, the political consequences. One of these is inevitable, though it may not be for some time, nor all at once perceived. It has materially lessened the weight and influence, and even the external consequence of office, and has so far diminished the British superiority in civil concerns. A great landowner, with a noble income, begins to look down upon a great proportion of small English gentlemen, toiling through the duties of subordinate and middling offices upon moderate salaries, and becomes more and more indifferent to their approbation and notice. He will soon begin to look for objects of ambition connected with Government. For a time he will be satisfied with honorary distinctions.

Another thing to be looked to, is the amelioration of the ryots' condition, now left entirely at the mercy of the new landholder. Is he past the cure which, in former times, our Judges at home discovered for the same condition of persons,—that of being converted into a kind of copyholder? This would give him a protection which he seems to want. But if there are materials to sustain it, the courts of justice might administer much relief in this way.

A third consideration arises, how far the grants which have already been made preclude the Government from calling upon the landowner to contribute, as formerly, to all necessary objects of internal and local improvements, such as repair of roads, construction of bridges, cleaning and improving sewers, and maintaining watch in their districts.

It has become more than ever necessary to uphold the importance of the
Oriental Herald, Vol. 15. Q

ance of office, and to distribute satisfactory and speedy justice through British hands, or under immediate British control. The high offices of Government are necessarily few, and those few collected in the capital. The only counterpoise, then, to the growing wealth and consequence of the landowner, (*since you have prohibited your own subjects from becoming such,*) consists of your army, and your courts of justice. You must make them both respectable in the eyes of the Natives, for on these your whole authority rests. No price is too great to secure these objects: for the empire can no longer be regarded as a great counting-house, in which the ledger is the rule, and the casting of figures is the casting of destiny.

Some of the most sensible zemindars, men who used to be hoarders and lenders of money, and had the good sense to convert their papers and parchments into solid land, as soon as they found the opportunity, are sensible, and have so expressed themselves to me, that it would be for their interest to be obliged to attend to *internal improvements* of the kind I have mentioned, provided all others were under the like obligation; and surely the Government would derive great advantage, in point of collateral revenue, from an improved condition of the country. The assessments should be upon the zemindars and proprietors of the soil, and not upon the ryots and tenants. The zemindars themselves might be *consulted* upon it.

I am afraid I have already extended these observations too far, and trespassed more than I ought upon your Lordship's time; many of them, however, were necessary to the explanation of the papers; and I ought also to inform you, in respect of three parts of No. 3, touching the Mofussil laws, courts, and practice, that they passed in review before Mr. Harrington, the Chief Justice of the Sudder Dewannee Awdalut; Mr. James Stuart, one of the Puisne Judges of that Court; Mr. Edmonstone and Mr. Dowdeswell of the Supreme Council; and Mr. Bayley, the Principal Secretary of Government, before I presented them to Lord Moira. But though they all admit the evil to the full extent I have here stated, I cannot take upon me to say that each was prepared to adopt every part of the proposed remedies. Yet, upon the whole, these were favourably received.

Much as I stand in need of apology for what I have already written, yet cannot conclude my letter, so recently after the intelligence of the battle of Waterloo and its glorious results, without offering your Lordship my zealous congratulations on this exulting consummation of measures, in which you have had your share, by which England has been a second time placed at the head of the nations.

I have the honour to be, your Lordship's very faithful and obliged humble servant,

(Signed)

E. H. EAST.

CLASSICAL EXCURSION FROM ROME TO ARPINO, THE BIRTH-
PLACE OF CÆCERO.

No. II.

WE had now got complete footing in that part of Italy, known throughout the country by the name of Il Regno. What a multitude of reflections rush into the mind of the traveller as he enters this interesting tract! Go to Amiterno, you will trace there a Sallust, unrivalled for the clearness and brevity of his historical narration; at Sulmona, the poet, who knew how to embellish subjects, which in the hands of an inferior genius would only excite sentiments of disgust; at Venosa, we find the inimitable Horace, whose villas we have lately described; at Ruvo, an Ennius, enough of whose fragments remain to make us regret the loss of his entire works. At Taranto, we shall find an Archytus instituting a school of philosophy, which in physical science eclipsed any of the Athenian. Traverse in mind the territory between Taranto and Reggio, you will find it formerly inhabited by a people, not less remarkable for their knowledge of the fine arts and elegancies of life, than for their institutions in philosophy and legislation. Ascend northward by the classic grove of Agathocles, and you will reach Elea, another celebrated seat of the Italo-Grecian school of philosophy; while at Paestum, we shall find still existing monuments of a people, which, after a lapse of three thousand years, proclaim their skill in architecture.

Even in the middle ages this country was distinguished, at a period, too, when darkness brooded over the rest of Europe. At Salerno, we discover a school which sent forth the first medical professor in Europe, before the sun of science had lighted up Padua; at Amalfi, a people who had intelligence enough to appreciate the Pandects of Justinian. The commercial world, too, will not forget that it was to a citizen of Amalfi that navigation is indebted for the mariner's compass. At Sessa, we discover a Nifo, whose works, though now consigned to dusty shelves, proclaim him one of the most diligent commentators of the philosophy of Aristotle. At Sorrento, we find the cradle of the immortal poet of the 'Jerusalem Delivered,' which holds, probably, the third rank among the great epic productions of the world. Go to the Queen of the Syrens, who, though the panther* prowls in her streets, has always maintained a respectable rank in literature, and more especially in the fine arts. Yes; pierce this interesting region wheresoever you choose, you will find it always volcanic with the finest genius; from the days when Pythagoras propagated his doctrines in the south, down to

* La Lonza di Dante.

those of a Cimarosa, in whom the powers of harmony were centered.

The increasing roar of the falls of the Garigliano interrupted the above reflections; and after passing through the village of Isola, situated as its name implies, and so surrounded by falling waters, that the inhabitants are condemned to a perpetual stunning, we began to ascend the bold ridge on which Arpino stands. To our right, embossed in a wood of oaks, was the villa of a Neapolitan nobleman. The scenery commanded by this ridge, which improved every step we took for a whole league, baffles all description. To our left was the vale of Sora, fertilized by the Liris and Fibrenus; while to the right, appeared valley beyond valley, Appennine beyond Appennine, spreading their shaggy and purple summits even to the confines of Daunia. We entered the southern gate of Arpino just as the sunk sun was crimsoning the west with flakes of fire.

The information that we derive from the ancient historians respecting Arpinum is very scanty. Its antiquity, however, is so remote, that Saturnus, as I have before remarked, is its reputed founder. Those, however, who affirm that it was built by that god, or hero, may as well say that they know nothing about its origin. Clavelli, an historiographer of Arpino, boldly asserts that it is upwards of a thousand years older than Rome; but the vanity of the Italians is no where more remarkable than in treating of the origin of their cities.* Middleton errs in stating that it was a city of the Samnites; we find from Livius, that though occupied by that warlike people, it was included in the territory of the Volsci. In remuneration of the spirit which the inhabitants displayed in repelling the martial Samnites, it obtained the privileges of a 'municipium' without suffrage; and subsequently annexed to the Tribus Cornelia, obtained from the senate the right of suffrage in the nomination of its magistrates, and the full prerogatives of a 'municipium.'† Clavelli relates, that by the Porta dell' Arco, a gateway of the old city, the monument of Saturnus existed in his time, consisting of a pyramid of Cyclopian stones, with a falx in relief, and the following verses inscribed:

'CONDITUR' HIC 'PRIMI'S.
'SATURNUS' MORTE 'DEORUM'.
'ILLIUS' IMPERIO.
ARPINUM 'FUNDAMINA' 'SUMPSIT'.

* Clav. Storia d'Arpino, p. 7, Napoli, 1618.

† A. U. C. CCCCLXVIII. 'Eodem anno Sora, Arpinum, Consentia raptæ à Samnitibus . . . biennio post Arpinatibus civitas data. . . . De Formianis, Fundanisque municipibus, et Arpinatibus, C. Val. Tappo, tribunus plebis, promulgavit, ut his suffragii latio, (nam antè sine suffragio habuerant civitatem,) esset.—Liv. IX. c. 32. X. c. 1. XXXVIII. c. 36.

I saw, indeed, near this gateway some vast Cyclopian stones, which still go by the name of 'il Monumento,' laid on each other like the 'opus incertum' of Vitruvius, but nothing resembling a pyramidal monument or inscription. According to the same author, the church of Santa Maria was a temple of Mercurius Lanarius, or, 'Mercury propitious to the Clothiers;' and that of San Michele, in which nine niches are still discernible, a temple of the Muses.

The inhabitants testify in various ways veneration for their illustrious townsman; in doing which they only pay a debt of gratitude; for the orator, in one of his letters, says, 'Non dubito quin scias quàm diligenter soleam municipales meos Arpinates queri.* There is also a letter to Brutus, in which he recommends the delegates of Arpinum, and especially one Quintus Fufidius, to his protection.†

I was not then surprised at finding in Arpino a Teatro and Collegio Tulliano. Several of the modern inhabitants have borne the 'prænomena' of Marco Tullio; how far they may have suited, we will not inquire too scrupulously. We read too of one Marco Tullio Cicerone, a distinguished officer of Arpino, who, with the words, 'cedat toga armis' on his lips, cut off the hand of the governor of the castle of St. Angelo, at the sacking of Rome by Charles V., with one stroke of his sabre.‡ The insignia of the city consist only of the imposing initials, M. T. C., the inhabitants wisely preferring letters to arms.

* Ep. Famil. XIII. ep. 2.

† M. T. CICERO TO HIS BRUTUS.

'In a former letter, I recommended to your notice the delegates of Arpinum collectively, and with great earnestness. In this, I more particularly request your good offices in favour of Quintus Fufidius, with whom I live in terms of strict friendship. I beg you to consider this as adding weight to, not as detracting from, my former recommendatory letter. He is the son-in-law of Marcus Cæsius, one of my best friends; and he served under me in Cilicia as military tribune; in which office he so conducted himself, that I may rather be said to owe him obligations than he me. He is, moreover, not unacquainted with the literary pursuits common to us both; and this, I am persuaded, will ensure him an additional claim to your esteem. Receive him, then, I beseech you, with all possible kindness; and use what influence you may have in calling forth his exertions as favourably as possible in that mission, which he has undertaken contrary to his own inclinations, and solely in compliance with my wishes. For he is ambitious, as all good citizens naturally are, to obtain the good opinion of our municipality; neither is he indifferent to mine; especially as I persuaded him to accept the charge which he has taken in hand. He cannot fail of success, if this letter shall procure your good services in his behalf.—Fare thee well.—Ep. Famil. XIII. ep. 12.

‡ Clav. Storia d'Arpino, p. 235.

In the same manner that the memory of Pindar saved Thebes, and the name of Aristotle, Stagira; so did the citizens of Arpino escape the ravages of war from the celebrity of their town. For in the wars between Ferdinand of Arragon and the House of Anjou for the Neapolitan throne, Pius the Second, the ally of the first, gave orders to his general, Napoleone Orsini, who had been successful in his cause, to spare the Arpinates, who had sided with the French: 'Parce Arpinatibus,' cried the generous Pontiff, 'ob Caii Marii, et Marcii Tullii memoriam.' *

The people of Arpino are in better condition than their neighbours in the pontifical state. The reasons are simple: one is, that the executive power is not vested in the hands of the priesthood in the kingdom of Naples; the other, that there exists an active manufactory of cloths; which, though inferior to the English, are reckoned equal to the best elsewhere manufactured in the Neapolitan territories.

The art of dyeing flourished anciently in Arpino, as is proved by inscriptions found near ruins called 'le torri fulloniche.'

One of these tends to confirm the statement of Dio Cassius, who tells us that Cicero's father was a fuller; another, that the Roman municipal manufacturers took out licenses, like the English ale-house keepers. Remains of the ancient Cloaca are still seen near the Porta dell' Arco; and it is of stupendous masonry. An inscription recording it is preserved in the house of Signor Vito.

The following inscription found under the church of S. Maria di Civita, leads us to conclude that it occupies the site of the temple of 'Mercurius Lanarius,' or, 'Mercury of the Clothiers.'

.... PLUM SACRUM.
TRI . . . MERCURIO. LAN.
CILIX. TULLI. L. S.

Here the name of a Cilician freedman of one of the Tullii occurs.

Immured in the walls of the church of Sant' Antonio is a bas-relief, representing three females of the Fufidian family, with the following inscriptions:

P. FUFIDIUS.	NOTUS.	FEKIT. V.
FUFIDIAE. P. F.	FUFIDIAE. P. F.	FUFIDIAE. P. F.
NOTAE. SORORI.	AUGE. MATRI.	SATURNINAE.

Fufidius was an illustrious lawyer of Arpinum; and he is recommended by the orator, as we find in the previously quoted letter to Brutus. The 'fundus Fufidianus,' which was in the environs of Arpino, occurs in the correspondence with Atticus.

The last is in the house of Signor Vito, and records another temple at Arpinum.

* Campana Vit. Pii II.

A. EIGIUS. C. F. . . .
T. AGUSIUS. T. F. SIBILLUS.
M. FUFIDIUS. M. F.
AEDEM. DE. S. P.

Here too we find the name of Fufidius. But this monument is interesting, for it mentions an Agusius, the individual, perhaps, who accompanied the orator in exile. He is noticed by him in an epistle to Publius Servilius.*

On referring to the correspondence with Servius, I find also one Cossinius bearing a letter of recommendation. M. Cossinius appears in one of the inscriptions. In a letter to Atticus, the orator speaking of his death, says, 'De Cossinio doleo; dilexi hominem.'

I remarked, I thought, a promptitude of intellect and fluency of discourse in the inhabitants, which are not observable in those of the environs of Rome; attributable, perhaps, to the fine elasticity of the air, and confirming what Cicero remarks somewhere in the 'De Natura Deorum,' that mountaineers are of finer organs and quicker susceptibility than the natives of plains and valleys. The pure air of Arpino is also favourable to female beauty; and when seen in perfection in Italy, where is it more fascinating?

The main street, which is very narrow, leads to a piazza, where workmen were actively employed in building a new town-hall, with niches destined to receive statues of Marius and Cicero. Here there is a fountain, flanked by two towers, with an eagle springing from the centre. The towers are symbols of Marius and Cicero; and the eagle is emblematic of the power of Rome.

The wretchedness of the inn (if inn it could be called) was in some measure compensated by the ludicrous appearance of some strolling players who were preparing to give their exhibition in the Teatro Tulliano. The apartment was the counterpart of Hogarth's well-known print. The host, who appeared fit to be major-domo to Dicesaris, strangling a half-starved fowl in the door-way; his sister, a Tullia in her features, a Maritornes in her mind, stirring with her black and greasy hands an immense salad; who though

* 'M. T. CICERO TO PUBLIUS SERVILIUS, HIS COLLEAGUE.
'Since our friendship is so manifest, I am under the obligation of recommending to your good offices many individuals; not that I expect that you should show the same attention to all. Titus Agusius, who never abandoned me in the darkest hour of adversity, who was my constant companion in dangers and journeys, both by land and sea, is the bearer of this. His affection for me is so great, that he would not even now quail without my permission. I entreat you then to look upon him as one of my most valuable friends. You cannot confer a clearer testimony of your good will, than by proving that this letter will be of infinite use to him.—Ep. Famil. XIII. ep. 71

barbarous, appeared good, and except when engaged with the kitchen utensils, Tanaquil herself could not have been busier with the distaff; a quack-doctor, a meagre and grotesque figure, rehearsing his part; a hero, and a pretty girl who was to be rescued by his prowess, at least furnished us with a subject for merriment, which we had no right to expect in so remote a town in the Appennines. We followed this Thespian band to the theatre, where they sustained their parts with spirit, and their action and rehearsal was not spoiled by those artificial gestures and screams usually seen and heard in the greater theatres of Italy. The orchestra, composed only of five violins, serenaded the spectators when the drop-scene was let down, which displayed ill-painted busts of Marius and Cicero. The applause was loud and frequent; the audience apparently determining to abide by their ancient character of belonging to the 'fidelis, et simplex, et faulx suorum regio.'* It is not in the greater theatres of Italy that the stranger can hope to form a good idea of Italian acting. I was more pleased with the poor unsophisticated style of representation exhibited by this company at Arpino, than at the greater theatres of Milan, Turin, Florence, and Naples. A comedy of Goldoni, seen in the afternoon in the venerable amphitheatre at Verona, will afford a higher satisfaction than representations at Venice, or the greater capitals. This must be attributed to the too great prevalence of music in Italy, which infects actors of respectable, but not of high powers, with sing-song and operatic gesticulation.

On returning to the inn, we found, to our dismay, that the only single apartment in the house was reserved to the Thespian band. We required the major-domo 'to take a rule to show cause' why fatigued strangers, who had come from Rome to Arpino, should not be accommodated as well as a company of strolling players. This was followed by a vehement philippic on the part of our host, delivered in the uncouth Neapolitan dialect, 'pro Rosciis comœdis,' by which we soon discovered that we were 'non-suited.' We even put up with a truss of hay in a contiguous out-house, separated only from the sneezing cattle by a thin partition.

The actual population of Arpino is between ten and eleven thousand souls. It gave birth to Giuseppe di Cesare, better known by the title of 'il Cavalier d'Arpino,' whose frescos at Rome and Naples, betraying a genius rather florid than powerful, rank him, perhaps, among artists of the second class in Italy. He has been commemorated in the following madrigal by Marini, esteemed one of the best in the Italian language:

'Nasce in Arpin Giuseppe, ed in Arpino.
Nacque il più chiaro dicitor Latino.

* Pro Plancio, loc. citat.

Pari in ambi è lo stile, e son uguali
Gli artifizi, e i colori;
E le glorie, e gli onori;
Quei parlando però difender Veppe
La vita de' mortali;
Ma tu tacendo sai
Donar la vita a chi non visse mai.'

There has existed for many years a philharmonic society at Arpino, which has sent to various parts of Europe several distinguished performers, both vocal and instrumental; among them one Signora Sperduti, 'prima cantatrice assoluta' at the Opera in London, and who died there about the middle of the last century.

Before dawn, swarming with fleas, we quitted with no small satisfaction our pestiferous inn; and ascending almost immediately a very steep rock, reached, in about half an hour, Arpino Vecchio, which occupies the site of the ancient town. On entering the gateway, we were greeted with the following inscription, of no remote date:

ARPINUM . A . SATURNO . CONDITUM .
VOLSCORUM . CIVITATEM .
ROMANORUM . MUNICIPIUM .
MARCI . TULLII . CICERONIS .
ELOQUENTIAE . PRINCIPIS .
ET . CAII . MARII . SEPTIES . CONSULIS . PATRIAM .
INGREDERE . VIATOR .
HINC . AD . IMPERIUM . TRIUMPHALIS .
AQUILA . EGRESSA .
URBI . TOTUM . ORBEM . SUBEGIT .
EJUS . DIGNITATEM . AGNOSCAS .
ET . SOSPES . ESTO .

'Ejus dignitatem agnovimus:' and the 'Cicerone,' a title which has singular force here, showed us hard by, an ancient cistern, foundations of old walls, and three subterraneous arches, called by the inhabitants, 'i muri di Cece, (quasi muri Ciceronis,)' thought by Clavelli to be the ruins of the paternal mansion of the Ciceros; which Quintus, brother of the orator, inherited; while the villa below, near the confluence of the Fibrenus and Liris, devolved on Marcus after the death of their father.*

Contiguous is a Cyclopian arch, older, I have little doubt, than the oldest stones of 'Latium antiquissimum.' This arch is interesting, as presenting a perfect point, and proving that that characteristic of what is called the Gothic style, is even antecedent to the Roman, or other without cement. The accomplished Signora Dionigi, in her 'Viaggi nel Lazio,' has given an elegant engraving of this arch,

* Cic. Ep. ad Att. XIII. ep. 46. Plutarch. in Ciceron. and Clav. Storia d'Arpino, p. 17.

which she calls 'la porta acuminata d'Arpino,' as well as of the Cyclopiæ ruins still seen in Alatri, Atina, and the other Saturnian cities. Several towers of the ancient walls are still standing, originally of Roman work, but probably added to in the middle ages. They are evidently of a much later date than the above-mentioned arch. We were shown here too the vestiges of a street, perhaps the Via Græca, noticed by the orator in one of his letters to Quintus: 'ibam fortè viâ Græcâ, cum tuæ literæ mihi redditæ sunt.' This street, which is covered with irregular flags, like the Via Appia, is now called, La via Cicero. Tracks of the old wheels are here visible, as at Pompeii.

There exists near Arpino a monastery inhabited by monks of the order of La Trappe, which goes by the name of 'Casamari, (quasi domus Marii,)' perhaps occupying the site of his villa, called Cirrhaeton, whither he retired after his long military services.* On the other hand, it is to be observed that there is a village near the Liris, called Cevernate, a corruption probably of Cirrhaeton, the name of the Marian villa. We hoped in vain for some

'Nuntia fulva Jovis, mirandâ visa figurâ,'

steering her mazy flight from the Appennines, to declare by her perching, the actual site.

But the memory of this military man of Arpinum, in spite of his imposing attitudes in the Minturnensian marshes, and under the walls of Carthage, was quickly banished by the magic spell of

'Cedant arma togæ, concedat laurea linguæ,'

and having gratified our curiosity with the venerable ruins of Arpino Vecchio, we seated ourselves by the 'porta acuminata,' and enjoyed the view of the rising sun gradually throwing his crimson tints over the majestic Appennines; type, I thought, of the widely-extended influence of the mind of the Man of Arpinum. For where is the school which does not echo with his sentences? Where the statesman, whose speech does not acquire dignity by their adoption? Where the advocate, whose arguments are not strengthened by an occasional resource to his terse and sonorous periods? Where the philosophical or moral essay, which does not acquire force by his illustrations? Where, in fine, the typographer, who does not boast of publishing a correct and splendid edition of his immortal works? The very stones 'prating of his whereabouts,' almost seemed to utter to our ears the lines of Silius Italicus:

'Tullius æratas raptabat in agmina turmas,
Regia progenies, et Tullo sanguis ab alto.

* Τὸν ὁμόλογον χρόνον, ἐν κομῇ Κυρραίωνων τῆς Ἀρπινῆς διατῆν εἶχε. — Plutarch. in Mario.

Clavelli absurdly pretends that the Marian oak existed in his time, (A. D. 1600,) determined to make it canescere sæclis innumerabilibus.

Indole pro! quantâ juvenis, quantumque daturus
Ausoniae populis ventura in sæcula civem.
Ille super Gangem, super exaditus et Indos,
Implebit terras voce, et furialia bella
Fulminæ compescet linguæ, nec cuique relinquet
Par decus cloqui cuiquam sperare nepotum.

If we wanted testimonies respecting the birth-place of the consummate orator, his own words would clear all doubt: 'Hæc est mea, et hujus fratris mei germana patria; hinc enim orti stirpe antiquissimâ sumus: hic sacra, hic genus, hic majorum multa vèstigia . . . hoc ipso in loco me scito esse natum . . . itaque hanc esse meam patriam prorsus nunquam negabo.'*

Pompeius said that Rome was bound by eternal gratitude to the municipality of Arpinum, for having furnished her with two saviours. Hortensius, too, in an emphatical sentence, thus addressed his friend and rival in full senate: 'Fateor te esse ex eo municipio, et addo etiam ex eo municipio, unde salus huic urbi et imperio iterum exorta est.†

We followed the rough and rapid descent to the Fibrenus, and presently entered a wood of very fine oaks, which, as the soil is a stiff loam, flourish luxuriantly about Arpino. These, no doubt, are the descendants in a right line of the 'Arpinatium quercus,' mentioned by the orator in the 'De Legibus.' 'Ego locum præstatè umbrosiorem vidi nunquam, permultis locis aquam fluentem, et eam uberem.' Such are the words of Cicero in a letter to Quintus, descriptive of the villa of his brother at Arce, in the neighbouring country; such too is the picture of this wood, which the heat of the sun made every moment more grateful. The increasing warmth invited several vipers from their holes; and the common lizards, larger than in the Campagna di Roma, were very numerous. Our guide informed us that a species is occasionally seen in the environs of Arpino, two feet in length, and called 'il Raccolo,' of a bright yellow colour, the bite of which is dangerous. No part of Italy, north of the Calabrias, is so much infested with the reptile and insect tribe as the Abruzzos. Scorpions and tarantulas are found; and fleas are so numerous and voracious, that we noticed the brawny chests of the peasantry scratched raw from their attacks. It may then be imagined how strangers suffer, who import fresh blood distilled from the wholesome beef and generous port-wine of England. The Abate Pacichelli, in his 'Regno di Napoli in Prospettiva,' states that a town near the Fucine lake, was so infested with venomous reptiles and insects, as to cause the inhabitants to abandon it to ruin.‡ Virgil seems to allude to the frequency of poisonous animals in the neighbourhood, when he introduces one of his heroes

* De Legg. II. sub. init.

† Appian. Bel. Civ.

‡ 'Penna posta in ruina, deshabitata, già per la moltitudine degli

from the banks of the Fucine lake, and whom he describes as celebrated for his skill in curing the bites of the Marsic serpents:

Quin et Marrubiâ venit de gente sacerdos,
Fronde super galeam, et felici comptus olivâ,
Archippi regis missu, fortissimus Umbro.
Vipereo generi, et graviter spirantibus hydris,
Spargere qui somnos, cantuque manuque solebat,
Mulcebatque iras, et morsus arte levabat.
Sed non Dardaniæ medicari cuspidis ictum
Evaluit; neque eum juvère in vulnera cantus
Somniferi, et Marsis quæsitæ in montibus herbæ.
Te nemus Angitiæ, vitrea te Fucinus undâ,
Te liquidi flevere lacus!

Mineral waters are common, especially near the Liris; but they have not been analysed; and there is a mountain between Arpino and Atina abounding with iron, but no shafts have been sunk. The neighbouring Appennines are rich in marbles, which are 'breccia, fior di persico,' white, and 'schiziato rosso.'

A grand and irregular chain of mountains skreened from our view the Fucine lake, a sheet of water forty-seven miles in circumference, and the largest of the Italian lakes south of the Milanese. It nowhere exceeds twenty fathoms in depth. Strabo, however, compares it to an inland sea, lashing the shores with its waves. It is also noticed by Lycophron; and by Virgil in the passage before quoted. The Fucine lake is memorable from the stupendous canal undertaken by the emperor Claudius: the object of which was to discharge the waters into the Liris, only three miles from the lake, and to bring the bed into cultivation. Such difficulties, however, did the intervening mountains present, that the cutting of the subterranean canal, occupied incessantly for eleven years, thirty thousand men. It appears from Suetonius, that Julius meditated this undertaking. Augustus, of not such brilliant talents, but of sounder sense, would have nothing to say to the Marsi, who repeatedly solicited of him permission to drain the lake. At last it was undertaken by Claudius, 'non minus compendii spe quàm gloriæ,' says Suetonius. Plinius gives us a striking picture of the difficulty of the enterprise: 'Ejusdem Claudii inter maximè memoranda duxerim, quamvis destitutum successoris odio, montem perfossum ad lacum Fucinum emittendum, inenarrabili profectò impendio, et operarum multitudine per tot an-

animali velonosi.'—The inhabitants of Penna were not so fortunate as their ancestors; who, if we may believe Solinus and Servius, had the powerful living antiseptics of Circe and Medea to deliver them from these pests; 'Gentem Marsorum serpentibus illæsam esse; Circen, Angitiam, vicinam Fucino occupasse ferunt; ibique salubri scientiâ deam haberi.'—Solin. VIII.

'Medea dicitur ad Italiam pervenisse, et circa Fucinum lacum habitantes docuit remedia contrà serpentes.'—Servius ad Æneid. VII.

nos, cùm aut corrivatio aquarum quâ terrenus mons erat, egereretur in vertice machinis, aut silex caderetur, omniaque intus in tenebris fierent, quæ neque concipi animo, nisi ab iis qui vidère, neque humano sermone enarrari possunt!' To communicate light and air to the workmen, shafts were sunk with incredible labour; some perpendicular, others horizontally inclining. Of these twenty-two have been discovered; and one, which was not long since cleared of rubbish, is five hundred palmi deep, and twenty in width. One of the inclined cuniculi nearest the lake, is about one hundred palmi in depth, and thirty in width; another perpendicular, and contiguous, is three hundred deep, and fifteen in width; and a fourth, near the exit of the canal towards the Liris, is four hundred palmi in depth, and fifteen in width. The preparations completed, Claudius determined to outdo Augustus in the splendour of the spectacle. In a 'naumachia' given by the latter, eighteen thousand combatants were embarked in small barks. Claudius employed nineteen thousand combatants, who manned large gallees. The emperor was seen to stagger round the lake, urging them to fight, partly by entreaties, partly by threats: 'lacus non sine foedâ vacillatione discurrens, partim minando, partim adhortando, ad pugnam compulit.' A splendid banquet was prepared for the emperor and his suite, close to the canal; but it appears that the imperial guests fled precipitately as soon as the sluices were opened, panic-struck by the 'rombo dell' acqua,' and convulsion of the earth, occasioned by the sudden introduction of such a weight of water into so confined a space: 'vis aquarum prorumpens, proxima trahebat, convulsis ulterioribus, et sonitu exterritis.' The operations were imperfectly conducted by a clumsy engineer to a clumsy emperor: 'non satis depressum opus ad lacus ima vel media.' The circumjacent shores must have presented an extraordinary appearance. The ridiculous and untoward gestures of the emperor,* the intrigues of the empress to ruin Narcissus, the anxiety of the engineer, destined probably to explore his own canal in case of failure; the silver Triton rising from the water, and blowing the signal for the combat, the Appennines lined with myriads of spectators, the shouts of the prætorian guards, the groans of the criminals destroyed by the 'catapultæ' and 'balistæ,' must have presented a union of the 'bizarre' and 'sublime,' never probably before, and certainly never since, realized.

* Claudius, however, was only heavy as an emperor. He had a cultivated mind, and was fond of literature. Suetonius tells us that he wrote a defence of Cicero against the aspersions of Asinius Gallus.

WE attempted in our last paper to illustrate a principle which, however undeniable, is too frequently forgotten or overlooked, and therefore requires to be distinctly and prominently exhibited. The principle is this, that it is only by the faithful administration of just laws that the government of a country can gain the affections of its subjects, or secure itself against insurrection and revolution. Even without such laws or such an administration of them, the power of the government may be so great as, by the forcible suppression of every popular movement indicative of discontent or resistance, to protract its own existence beyond the usual and natural period for the euthanasia of tyranny; but in this case one of two things must happen: either the country will become so impoverished by continued exactions that it will be a burthen on those who sought to enrich themselves from its plunder; or some unlooked for event—a revolution in the mother country, the commission of some peculiarly atrocious act of misgovernment, or the invasion of a foreign power—will furnish both the will, the means, and the opportunity to throw off the yoke of the oppressor. We do not now inquire how far these considerations are capable of application to this country under British rule, but we have the admission of Sir John Malcolm, the writer in the *John Bull*, and others who adopt the same views, that the circumstances in which we are placed in India are very peculiar, that our empire in the East is held by a thread, and that a single reverse or mischance may raise the whole continent in arms against us. We ask no more to prove that India is not governed as it should be. This admission shows that although it has been so long under our power, we have hitherto held and still hold it only by military occupation, and that we do not yet reign over the hearts and affections of the people. Is it right that this state of things should continue? Has the time not yet arrived when a course of policy may be adopted that will teach the people to regard the English not as their conquerors but as their protectors, and to regard themselves not as our slaves or vassals but as the subjects of the law? It is possible to effect such a revolution in their feelings and character, and it cannot be doubted that when effected it would add an incalculable amount of moral force to the Government of the country. It is also possible, as is implied in the admissions of our opponents themselves, that we are by no means secure from a revolution of a far more portentous character. The change in the character of the British Government which we advocate, is the only effectual means, as we consider, of preventing the more tremendous revolution which others dread; and yet when the adoption of the one is urged that the danger of the other may not be incurred, the accusation,

forsooth, is advanced, of 'putting forth doctrines obviously calculated to excite disaffection,' and of aiming to 'bring down every thing English in the East.' A reference to the fact that England has already lost a large empire by misgovernment, proves what? That those who make the reference are desirous she should avoid a second loss of the same kind? No, that may do for common minds. But the inference drawn by the writer in the *Bull* is, that they 'would hail with something like satisfaction a similar consummation amongst ourselves, and that they have *nothing to lose* in the conflict.' Such are the treasonable charges—the poisoned arrows, which he directs against an unknown opponent, of whose name, person, character, and station he knows absolutely nothing. To gratify the spirit of party, and to bring odium on principles which are honestly entertained, openly avowed, and believed to be practically beneficial both to the people and the Government, he rashly brings an accusation of *treason against the state* not only without the shadow of proof, but in direct opposition to the whole spirit and tenour of the communication against which his fulminations are directed. It is *because* we wish India to remain the 'brightest jewel in the crown of England' that we adopt that line of argument, and urge those measures which he so vehemently condemns.

It would be difficult to enumerate and altogether impossible to appreciate all those interests which are involved in the continuance of the British power in India, but it may be safely affirmed that no interest would be so intimately and extensively affected by its overthrow as that of the great body of the people. On this subject we quote, with some qualification, the language of the Fifth Report, 77:

'The strength of the Government of British India, directed as it has been, has had the effect of securing its subjects as well from foreign depredation, as from internal commotion. This is an advantage rarely experienced by the subjects of Asiatic states; and combined with a domestic administration more just in its principles, and exercised with far greater integrity and ability than the Native one that preceded it, may sufficiently account for the improvements that have taken place; and which in the Bengal provinces, where peace has been engaged for a period of time, perhaps hardly paralleled in Oriental history, have manifested themselves in the ameliorated condition of the great mass of the population.'

Even to those who are willing to admit the truth of the position without any deduction, it may appear no very high praise, that the domestic administration of British India has been more just in its principles, and has been exercised with far greater integrity and ability, than the Native one that preceded it. We should have liked some higher standard of comparison to be fixed in order to deter-

mine both what the Natives had a right to expect from us, and what we were bound in justice to ourselves as well as to them to grant. If we look at the facts of the case without reference to such an imperfect and fallacious criterion, it will probably be found that the benefits the Natives have derived from the British Government have consisted more in protection from 'foreign depredation' than in the direct and positive advantages of good government. The broad shield of British protection is thrown over the country against all external foes, and this is a great and incalculable benefit. But to prove how inefficient are the institutions of the British Government to preserve the internal peace of the country, to administer justice between man and man, to protect the weak from oppression, and to secure to every individual the fruits of his industry, we need only appeal to the history of every indigo factory in Bengal. Yet how defective soever may be the practical operation of the British Indian system, it contains within itself the seeds of improvement. The Government recognizes the welfare of the people as one at least of the ends of its existence, and from its connection with Great Britain, so long as Great Britain herself remains a free and enlightened nation, this end will acquire increasing importance and attention. India, therefore, has every thing to hope from the continuance of her connection with Great Britain—and she has every thing to fear from a dissolution of that connection. For into whose hands could she fall that would protect her with so powerful an arm from foreign invasion, or that would hold out to her such bright prospects of increasing prosperity and improvement? Having thrown off the yoke of England, she must either be ruled with a rod of iron by some foreign power less civilized, enlightened, and liberal, or she must again become a prey to internal dissensions and civil wars, and the object of plunder to the most powerful.

It has been denied that England derives any advantage from her possessions in the East; but this is an assertion which must have proceeded from a very superficial knowledge of the subject, although if the advantages which England actually derives are compared with those which under a more liberal policy she might be made to derive, they would dwindle almost into nothing. It is not our intention, however, to dwell on this view of the subject, but before we conclude we cannot forbear adverting to the absurd assertion in the *Bull*, that those who oppose the dogmas of that paper have *nothing to lose* by the separation of India from England, and that they are therefore reckless of the consequences likely to result from the measures they recommend. This writer has not condescended to inform his readers who those are of whom he speaks that have *every thing to lose* by such a separation; but for our parts we cannot see how the majority of Englishmen who come to this country, whether Liberal or Tory, can be classed in that number. That they have all much to lose while they remain in the country, and that they have

something to lose so long as any part of their property continues in it, will be admitted. But it is notorious that almost all of them come to this country with a view to accumulate a fortune, and leave it as soon as that object is accomplished, and that consequently the interest they have in the permanence of the British Government is both limited in extent and temporary in duration. This is a remark which applies to no one political party more than to another, and although the *Bull* may affix some recondite sense to the words he has employed, or give them an application which is not at first sight apparent, we must confess that we can see nothing in them but a blind thrust by the zealot of a party to injure those whom he cannot confute. We can tell the *Bull*, however, that there is one class of the community that has *every thing to lose* if the British power in India were annihilated. There is a class, small but increasing, consisting both of Europeans and Indo-Britons, to whom India is either their native or their adopted country, who reside here with their families, and never think of removing except temporarily and with a view to return. These have *every thing to lose* in the loss of India to Great Britain, and of this class we have never known a single individual who did not as heartily dislike the *Bull* and its doctrines, as the *Bull* is generally known to dislike those who belong to it.—*Calcutta Chronicle*.

SPIRITUALITIES.

IN solemn commune of the lonely night,
When, shrouded in Heaven, the stars shine bright and clear,
Shedding on earth dim shadowings of that light
Whose dazzling radiance gleams o'er glory's sphere,
I've often mused on that recoiling fear,
That shuddering awe which bows the human mind,
When beckoning shadows in the gloom appear,
Or sheeted phantoms wail in midnight wind,
Dread visitants, uncalled, unto their mortal kind.

And it hath seem'd an awful thing, and strange,
That shrieking spirits and unblest should roam
Unbaptiz'd o'er earth—for ever bringing change,
Sorrow, and death—prophetic shades of doom;
Mystery of mysteries! not e'en the tomb
Can yield repose to wanderer's souls unblest;
But from sepulchral darkness they must come,
From their lone slumbers and their chill unrest,
And with mute horror freeze the fountains of the breast!

R

The Oriental Herald, Vol. 16.

Wise men and prophets, skill'd in subtle lore,
 With scornful unbelief have vainly striven;
 Shadows uncouth have gloom'd from dusky shore,
 And dark bleak hearts in the dim summer even,
 And forms have glimmer'd o'er the twilight heaven,
 E'en to the eyes of wisdom, unlike earth's,
 And shrieks, upon the black-wing'd tempest driven,
 Blanch'd rosy cheeks round bright-eyed moory hearths,
 And frantic mothers mourn'd o'er diabolic births.

The lamp's red light hath suddenly turn'd dim,
 And loud blasts moan'd along the fair blue sky;
 From banquet-hall hath wail'd the funeral hymn,
 And fear hath clouded the inquiring eye,
 And shaken the proud heart in mastery,
 When flattering voices awful knowledge sought,
 And pale lips quiver'd, breathless for reply
 To daring question of mysterious Nought,
 Whose hollow accents fell, annihilating Thought.

Mailed knights, their helms and gorgets streaming blood,
 And their rent banners spotted with red gore,
 Have blown their war-horns in the midnight wood
 Louder than rocking thunder's awful roar;
 And coal-black steeds, 'mid arrowy lightnings, o'er
 The precipice have leapt, and clatter'd on
 Through craggy dells, by ocean's pebbled shore,
 While their dead riders, from their eyes of stone
 Flash'd forth a demon light, and raised a hollow moan.

The murderer hath started from his feast
 When the loud summons shook his castle gate,
 And on his tongue died many tale and jest
 At the dread warning of triumphant fate;
 Through moss-grown towers and vast halls desolate,
 Till morn hath echoed the slow armed tread,
 And where the ancient chieftain whilome sate,
 Unearthly cries arisen, as if the dead
 Assembled there to ban dark deeds of years long fled.

Such things have been, if there be truth in oath:
 And mighty men have been o'ercome with dread;
 And holy priests of sacrament, though loth
 To quail before the incessant dead;
 The wisest, bravest, purest, best, have fled
 From midnight wailings and mysterious forms,
 Nor dared to watch the unsounding feathery tread
 Of them who yell'd 'mid wildly bickering storms—
 Spirits that howled away to their cold bed of worms.

Barons have trembled like their vassals, when
 Death shook his cearments off, and came among
 The living like a victor; priests have then
 Clung to their shrines, even as the voiceless tongue
 Grew to the quivering palate; vaults have rung
 With vigil prayers and groans of agony,
 And stripes of penance and death-dirges sung,
 Till the scared worshippers arose to flee,
 And hurried, baffled in their power, in dark crowds frantically.

Amid the sacred silence of her cell,
 The vestal hath forgot to tell her beads,
 And listened to the agonizing yell,
 That fearfully revealed most fearful deeds;
 Vain then new crucifix, and prayers, and creeds;
 Vain the dim vigil and the patient fast;
 Like the low moaning of sepulchral weeds—
 Sighs of a suffering spirit by her past,
 And awful shrieks went by, borne on the hurrying blast.

These things, so awful in their mystery, fill
 The o'ercharged heart with horror past all speech,
 And shoot through every vein a quivering thrill,
 An awe immeasurable—beyond the reach
 Of human healing: wisdom cannot teach
 Knowledge, nor lessen the wild fears that bear
 The spirit into madness; preach, oh, preach
 On learned ignorance, to empty air,
 Ye ministers of Heaven! then tremble in despair!

The haughty monarch on his guarded throne
 Hath felt the breath of spirits near, and seen
 Their shadowy motions and their eyes of stone,
 Glassy but piercing in their fiendish sheen;
 And all have felt their power, when through the screen
 Of darkness fitful lights have glimmered round,
 Resenting things as things have never been;
 And spreading o'er the churchyard's holy ground
 A blue and wavy flame that spake, but made no sound.

But how or wherefor, earth cannot reveal;
 The air we breathe may be but spirits' breath;
 Spirits that wander for our woe or weal,
 Through the dark vale of sorrow and of death;
 Or o'er the piney hill and blasted heath,
 For ever near, for ever whispering hope
 Or fear within us, to our bliss or scathe;
 Some mortal may with them in battle cope—
 Their subtle nature doth elude our utmost scope.

Strange is the tissue of our thoughts! the mind
As a dim Heaven of visions and of dreams,
Where glories, passing, leave their hues behind,
Duskily bright;—the blending of the beams
Of changeeful thoughts, when each far onward gleams,
Tinting the other with elysian light,
Like twilight shed from hill-tops on blue streams,
Throws o'er our life a vesture darkly bright,
An interwoven robe of mingled day and night.

Perchance, we live and move but in a dream,
For waking thoughts are oft like visions shown;
It nought avails that we should be or seem,
For sleep and waking have the self-same tone.
We dream of things oft dreamt, of times long gone,
E'en as remembrance brings back real things,
And the soft rays of former thoughts are thrown
Through slumber on the spirit's shadowy wings,
E'en as the eye beheld those wild imaginings.

So fine and subtle is the frame of spirits,
That they pervade the universe, and fling
Glory o'er all that human life inherits,
Like a soft-eyed and ever-blooming spring;
Thoughts slumber on each mighty folded wing,
Prepared to shed their glories when the soul
Unfurls its pinions with deep murmuring,
And Heaven's own rays from eyes of beauty roll,
Like diamond stars that flash around the snowy pole.

The lone heart looks and lingers, and still yearns
To drink the bann'd cup of that awful lore,
Which dwells amid the ashes of death's urns,
And is pour'd forth on that untravelled shore,
Whence parted spirits can return no more;
But, oh, the quest is vain—the burning thirst
Of knowledge never can be quenched before
The bonds that chain the struggling spirit burst,
And the free soul departs to realize the worst.

Like clouds o'er Heaven, bright thoughts flit o'er the brain;
And feelings o'er the heart, like sunlight haze
O'er the blue mountain and the grassy plain;
Mingled, they shed a momentary blaze—
Then part and gleam in thousand different ways;
But all grow dimmer in their distant flight,
And fade away, nor can their fairest days
Pierce the dense gloom of that long future night,
On whose close-woven shades comes no terrestrial light.

But well the searching mind these shapes may deem,
Those sheeted apparitions, whose deep wail
Affrights the living—no unreal dream,
But wandering pilgrims of death's own waste vale;
Unblest avengers, at whose awful tale
Of midnight massacre the heart grows cold;
Before whose eyes long hidden guilt grows pale,
And trembles at the bloody deed untold,
Till penal Fate returns the act a thousand fold.

Or messages of mercy may invite
Blest ones to wander 'mid their own loved kin,
That they may minister to their delight,
And shield their erring hearts from mortal sin;
So, by this gentle commune, they may win
Transgressors from the path that leads to woe,
And guide them where the holy enter in
The Heaven of Heavens, the home that cannot know
Aught of that harrowing grief which visits all below.

Yea, gentler thoughts and kindlier feelings wake—
And man may learn to gaze upon the grave
With strong love void of terror, and to take
Delight in converse there,—no more a slave
To his own fears, and the shrill winds that rave
But at His bidding, who fills all the air
With storms or sunshine—who rules wind and wave.
If hidden guilt moves not thy heart's despair,
Go to the midnight tomb, and sit in silence there!

And hold communion with loved ones who sleep,
Yet not unconscious of thy love and woe,
In death's own arms, yet in their bosoms keep
That high affection thou for them dost show!
For thee their spirits still with first love glow—
For thee they whisper in the evening wind
Soft soothing words that like still waters flow,
'Though dead, our love yet lingers all behind;
We live in Heaven for thee—be thou to heaven resigned!

There is a blessedness in thoughts like these,
That wins the heart from all its cherished woes,
And fills it with rejoicing, as the breeze
Of morn sheds beauty o'er the mildewed rose;
Such lofty musing doth to us disclose
All the grand beauty—all the hopes sublime
Which cheer man's bosom at life's hurrying close.
Let not wrong'd spirits visit thee for crime!
Fear not the shadowy herald of a happier clime!

L. F.

BRITISH SETTLEMENT OF ALBANY, SOUTH AFRICA, UNDER LORD
CHARLES SOMERSET'S ADMINISTRATION.

No. II.

THE destruction of Bathurst and Fredericksburg spread consternation throughout the whole British settlement; and not without reason, for the people saw by these transactions that they were completely in the power of a Governor, who appeared to be equally regardless of the public interests and of those of individuals, when they thwarted the bent of his own arrogant caprice or private aims. They not merely saw numerous individuals overwhelmed with ruin, without any blame on their part, and while they were zealously prosecuting the objects which the Colonial Government itself had prompted them to undertake; but they observed with dismay, that the declared intentions of the Home Government, in encouraging their emigration to Africa, and even the direct instructions of Lord Bathurst himself, were treated with the most contemptuous neglect. 'If Lord Charles Somerset,' said they, 'is so confident of his family influence at home, that he dare venture, upon his own responsibility, to do such things as these, merely out of pique to Sir Rufane Donkin, what will become of any of us who may be so unfortunate as personally to offend him? Our prosperity—our property—even our personal safety, are completely at his mercy!'

These apprehensions were speedily verified to their fullest extent. The military detachments which had been posted by Sir Rufane Donkin in advance of the new settlement, and on a few of the more exposed locations, were called into Graham's Town; and the whole line of the Great Fish River, from Roodewal to Caffer-drift, was laid open to the inroads of the savages, who did not fail to avail themselves of the facilities thus afforded them, to plunder and harass the unfortunate settlers; while the new commandant, Colonel Scott, on being called upon for protection, merely shrugged his shoulders, and exclaimed, that 'his hands were tied up!'

But the inefficient mode of frontier defence,* though most calamitous to the settlers, was, after all, but a light grievance, compared with the systematic course of insult and oppression to which, from the moment of Lord Charles Somerset's return, they were subjected by the civil authorities—from the Governor down to the meanest local functionary. The adoption and unrelenting prosecution of such a system, must, I am aware, appear to my readers in England so incredible, that, even after having for years witnessed its operation, I would almost hesitate to describe it, were the proofs less unanswerable, or the results less notorious and deplorable.

* See 'Oriental Herald' for January, February, and April, 1827.

To give a detailed view of the administration of Albany, from 1821 to 1825, would be incompatible with the limits and objects of a periodical Journal; but a few of the more striking illustrations will enable the reader to form a pretty correct judgment of the character of the system then in operation.

Mr. Rivers, a man of respectable connections, but embarrassed circumstances, who had come out to the colony some years before, in expectation of an appointment, and for whom a very unnecessary one (that of wharf-master) had been created—was the individual selected by Lord Charles to supersede the humane and high-spirited Major Jones, as chief magistrate of Albany. People who were not thoroughly acquainted with the Governor's temper and disposition were a good deal surprised, at first, by this appointment, for Harry Rivers was well known to be one of the most unfit persons that could have been found in the whole colony for the office to which he was now promoted. He was extravagant in his habits—needy in his circumstances—unscrupulously obsequious to those above him—rude and overbearing to his equals and inferiors—and beyond conception indolent and neglectful of the interests dependent on the prompt execution of his official charge, and of the public duties he was appointed to perform. Such an individual, invested with the despotic functions of a Cape Landdrost, could scarcely have failed, if merely left to the natural development of his own disposition and habitudes, to disgust the new colonists with the Government,—to check their spirit of enterprise,—and to increase exceedingly the unavoidable difficulties that they had to encounter. But however great was Mr. Rivers's natural unfitness to act the part of an impartial and beneficent magistrate, he was rendered infinitely more mischievous and tyrannical than he would have spontaneously been by the imperative necessity under which he found himself of consulting, on all occasions, the private feelings and prejudices of the Governor and his favourites, and of regulating his administration, both as it affected measures and individuals, by confidential suggestions, secretly conveyed to him,—not by public instructions transmitted through the usual channels of office.

Lord Charles Somerset's system of administration has been termed arbitrary, tyrannical, ignorant, capricious. All these, and other bad qualities, no doubt, belonged to it, and some of them in a very prominent degree, but its most peculiar and characteristic distinction was its vindictive spirit. This spirit, at once insolent and mean, cowardly and malignant, pervaded every department—almost every operation of the Government. The deplorable extent to which the Courts of Justice were influenced by it, in every case where the Governor had, or was supposed to have, an interest, has been shown in a former number of the 'Oriental Herald';* nor did it operate

* See the number for October 1826.—Cases of Buissine, Edwards, &c.

with less effect in the military department, or in the administration of the Civil Government through the Colonial Office and the provincial functionaries,—but more especially in Albany.

The spirit of energy and independence natural to Englishmen, which the settlers, amidst all their calamities, had not failed to evince, seems to have been regarded by our ultra-aristocratic Governor with a deep feeling of apprehension and aversion. He seems to have instinctively felt that their establishment in the colony was likely to prove exceedingly perilous to the old system of despotism, or what Lord Charles and his flatterers emphatically termed 'the decent order of things.' He perceived, and not without good reason, that, like the silversmith of Ephesus, his 'craft was in danger.' He feared the spirit of the settlers even before he had felt it; but as he could not drive them out of the colony, he seems to have determined to press them down to 'the decent order,' if not below it, of the obsequious African colonists, who had been long taught, by severe experience, that it was ruinous even to complain of any abuse in the administration, and that their only safety lay in abject and unquestioning submission to every exercise of authority, however arbitrary or illegal.

The unfriendly spirit evinced by Lord Charles towards the British settlers generally, from the moment of his landing in the colony in December 1821, was instantly perceived and duly appreciated by the interested sycophants who flocked around him, and who formed, with few exceptions, his only advisers. By such persons his fears and his prejudices were continually fostered, and means were speedily adopted to convey through a variety of channels a most unfavourable impression of the character and conduct of the emigrants to the Government, and the public at home, in order, apparently, to prevent any farther accession of British blood to the colony, and, at the same time, to predispose Lord Bathurst from listening to any complaints which the desolate and oppressed exiles might be induced to make. They were accused of being insolent, indolent, presumptuous, litigious, and, above all, as being, for the most part, inveterate 'radicals'; and these calumnious imputations, most unjust and unmerited as they were, had, for a time, no slight effect: Lord Bathurst's mind was evidently prejudiced by them, and the Cape Government, after having first devised and encouraged their circulation, afterwards acted as if it gave full credence to their truth.

A favourable opportunity of intimidating the settlers, of smothering their complaints, and of conveying a most injurious impression of their conduct to the Home Government, occurred in May 1822. Finding that their individual complaints of local grievances met with no attention at Cape Town, and that there was no prospect of the Governor being induced to visit Albany, to ascertain, by personal inspection, their real situation, and learn for himself their wants

and wishes, it was suggested by Mr. Phillips, a gentleman of great respectability, and who was in terms of friendly intercourse both with Captain Somerset and the Landdrost, that a meeting should be held of the most respectable heads of parties, for the purpose of appointing a deputation to go up to Cape Town, to lay before the Governor a clear and candid statement of their situation, and of the peculiar difficulties under which they laboured. This idea was acted upon, and letters were written to a few of the most intelligent and influential individuals, requesting them to meet at Graham's Town, for the purpose referred to, on the 24th of the month. The Landdrost and other functionaries were also made acquainted with their intention, though not formally or officially; for not the slightest idea of any jealousy or alarm existing on the part of Government, had occurred to any of the gentlemen concerned.

On the day appointed, seven gentlemen accordingly met at the house of Mr. Carlisle, one of their number. 'You may judge of our astonishment,' says Mr. Phillips in a letter to Mr. Wilberforce Bird * on this subject, 'when we were told that there was a notice posted up, signed by the Landdrost, declaring all such meetings illegal, warning all to disperse, and to depart to their own homes! Nay, I have since been told that the military were ordered to be kept in readiness!'

Nor did matters rest here on the part of Government. The next post from Cape Town brought a most extraordinary Gazette, containing a proclamation, dated 24th May, the very day the meeting of the seven settlers was held, and expressly aimed against those seditious men, who had contemplated sending a deputation to make their condition better known to the Governor. This document is

* Mr. Bird, in his work entitled 'State of the Cape in 1822,' has, in his customary mode, misrepresented the purpose of this meeting, and it was in remonstrance against his misstatements that the letter above quoted was addressed to him by Mr. Phillips. 'Attempts have been made,' says the Civil Servant, 'to procure public meetings of the people at Graham's Town for the purpose of petitioning the King and Parliament for a redress of grievances. In order to check such an anomaly in South Africa, the Colonial Government has thought it necessary to issue a proclamation, &c. Such an anomaly, if it had occurred, will probably not be considered so very treasonable and disloyal a proceeding in England as it was in South Africa in Lord Charles's time. This, however, is only one, and by no means the worst, of the 'Civil Servant's' inaccurate and injurious statements in regard to the settlers. At page 186 of his book, he says, that 'the extremely litigious disposition of a great part of the settlers induced them frequently to appeal from the decisions of the local magistracy to the superior District Court, at the distance of 100 miles from the locations.' Considering what sort of 'local magistracy' they were blessed with, (Captains Trappes and Somerset!) such frequent appeals would not have been very extraordinary; but, in point of fact, ill as they were governed, not a single appeal to the superior District Court ever took place.

so characteristic of the spirit of Lord Charles Somerset's administration, that I shall insert it entire :

*' Proclamation by his Excellency the Right Honourable General
Lord Charles Henry Somerset, &c. &c.*

' Whereas it has been represented to me, that certain individuals (probably ignorant of the laws of the colony) have proposed to convene public meetings for the discussion of public measures and political subjects, contrary to the law and usage of this place, I deem it therefore necessary thus publicly to notify, that all meetings so convened are contrary to the law; and that every person who attempts to convene any meeting or assemblies of such nature without my sanction and authority, or the authority of the chief local magistrate in distant districts, where the object of such meeting may be of so urgent a nature that my authority and sanction cannot be obtained, or any person attending such unsanctioned meetings, is guilty of a high misdemeanour, and is severely punishable for such offence. And I, moreover, hereby warn all persons who may, notwithstanding, be induced to convene or attend any such public meeting, that the local authorities have been authorised and required to disperse the same, and after the promulgation of these presents, to arrest and bring to justice all and every individual who shall infringe the ancient laws and usages of the Colony intrusted to my care.

' And whereas certain *ignorant, malevolent, or designing persons*, have thought proper to assert and insinuate, that the Governor of this Colony is not duly made acquainted with the petitions or complaints preferred by those who feel themselves aggrieved, or who have occasion to address him, as his Majesty's Representative, on their respective cases and interests, I do therefore deem it advisable to acquaint all persons, that in no instance is any petition, memorial, or letter, addressed to this Government which does not come under my immediate cognizance, or in which the order is not given under my own hand; and that in most instances the contrary supposition is alone adduced, to cover language and expressions which could not be tolerated if addressed immediately to his Majesty's Representative, without offence to the ways in this case provided.

' And I do hereby further make known, that participating most anxiously and sincerely in the distress which has been unavoidably felt from the total failure of two successive harvests, and various other causes, by such of my countrymen as sought an asylum in this settlement in the year 1820, I shall unceasingly court every opportunity of redressing their real grievances, and of promoting their general and individual welfare; but that it is, at the same time, my firm determination to put down, by all the means with which the law has intrusted me, such attempts as have been recently made to disturb the public peace, whether by inflammatory or libellous

writings, or by any other measures, of which I give those concerned this public warning, that no one may have cause to plead ignorance of the laws of the Colony, when called to account for transgressions so materially and injuriously affecting the public peace.

' God save the King !

' Given under my hand and seal at the Cape of Good Hope, this
24th day of May 1822.

(Signed) ' C. H. SOMERSET.'

How unprovoked was this insulting proclamation by the conduct of the settlers, is obvious from the preceding details; but it seems as if the intended meeting had been eagerly seized on by those in authority as affording a favourable occasion for branding them with the stigma of turbulence and sedition, and this with the iniquitous view of averting from them the succour and the sympathy of the Home Government.

The second paragraph, which so haughtily rebukes 'certain ignorant, malevolent, or designing persons,' for venturing to suppose that the Governor was 'not made duly acquainted with the petitions or complaints preferred by those who feel aggrieved,' &c. is a specimen of the audacious falsehoods which the Cape Government could then venture to print without dread of exposure; for at the very moment that this proclamation was issued, there were scores of petitions from the most respectable individuals in Albany lying unanswered on the Governor's table, and of complaints in regard to which all investigation or redress was contemptuously refused. Proofs of this will appear in the sequel.

It will also be made apparent how 'anxiously and sincerely' his Excellency practically manifested the sympathy professed for the distressed of 'such of his countrymen as sought an asylum in this settlement in the year 1820,' and what were the modes he adopted for 'redressing their real grievances, and promoting their general and individual welfare.'

The 'inflammatory or libellous writings,' alluded to in the concluding paragraph of the proclamation, were certain paltry MS. pasquinades circulated about Graham's Town, and relating to matters entirely unconnected with this meeting, or with the Cause and Concerns of the respectable body of the settlers; and this the Government was perfectly aware of; but it was no doubt considered a good piece of jockeyship to represent those who ventured to speak of 'grievances,' as at the same time disturbers of the public peace, by inflammatory writings, by conjoining both in the same denunciation. The real character and drift of the pasquinades referred to will be rendered more obvious by the following extract from a letter now before me, written at that time by an officer on the frontier, who was intimately acquainted with the transactions under review :

"The 'inflammable and libellous writings,' alluded to in the extraordinary proclamation of the 24th of May, were 'The Times,' a burlesque newspaper in MS., written by Bishop Burnett; and two other similar squibs, entitled the 'Graham's Town Gazette,' the author not known. The first of the 'Gazettes' professes to give an account of the occupations of the Landdrost while in Cape Town, and of his entry into, and reception at, Graham's Town. It is ill written, and would never have been read by a dozen persons had not the proclamation called it into notice. The second number animadverts on the ignorance and rapacity of some of the subordinate local functionaries; and who, it must be confessed, have richly merited much severer censures than any bestowed on them in this obscure pasquinade. But the *real secret* of the affair is, that both the 'Times' and the 'Gazette' attacked Captain Somerset for having possessed himself of the best part of the town lands, while he was Deputy Landdrost of Graham's Town; and his barbarous mode of mangling grammar and murdering the 'King's English' was not badly hit off in the 'Times.' Depend upon it that was the sore point—it was there that the shoe pinched; and I am persuaded that Lord Charles Somerset would have permitted Bishop Burnett to belabour the Dutch functionaries, and Rivers to boot, until he was tired, if he had only spared this precious son of his."

Before proceeding further to develop the policy of the Colonial Government, as it affected the general body of the settlers, it may be well to lay before the reader a few cases of individual persecution; for by this mode I shall be enabled, I think, to bring the system of misgovernment more closely and distinctly under the view of the reader; and the possession of numerous authentic documents, both official and private, enables me to accomplish this with ease and accuracy—a task both just and necessary, but which the Commissioners of Inquiry, though they may possess sufficient means, have scarcely, I fear, sufficient decision of purpose to perform without varnish or reservation. I shall begin with the case of Captain Campbell, which, though not so calamitous in its issue as some others I shall have subsequently to relate, will, nevertheless, serve as a very appropriate illustration of the justice of some of the foregoing remarks on the *vindictive spirit* of the Cape Government.

Captain Campbell, one of the most respectable heads of the settlers, and a gentleman of very superior intelligence and ability, had received in Sir Rufane's time a location near Graham's Town, and had also been appointed one of the Heemraden of the district of Albany. His talents for public business were speedily perceived; and his residence being only a few miles from the Drostdy, he was appointed to perform the duties of Acting Landdrost in the absence of Captain Somerset, at the other extremity of the colony, during a considerable part of the year 1821. This arduous duty he performed to the universal satisfaction of the inhabitants, without

remuneration of any sort, though his whole attention being necessarily devoted to it, his private affairs were thereby not a little prejudiced. Captain Somerset, (who enjoyed the entire salary of Deputy Landdrost, along with the benefit of Captain Campbell's official services,) one, would have imagined, would at least have shown civility, if not gratitude, to a person who, both on this and other occasions, had done so much to assist him in the civil charge which he was personally altogether incompetent to manage with any creditable measure of ability or discretion. But the sentiments of young Somerset, from some cause not easily defined, soon manifested themselves to be very different from what might have been anticipated. His jealousy of Campbell first displayed itself on the adjustment of the boundaries of their respective estates; when the land-surveyor, not having extended the limits of the new grant which he had obtained out of the town-lands so far as he desired on Campbell's side, the young Landdrost wrote an indignant official letter to the Colonial Secretary, complaining bitterly of the surveyor for disappointing his wishes on this point; and stating, that unless the Government interfered to obtain for him what he wanted, (a certain kloof namely, which actually belonged to Campbell,) his new grant would be rendered 'quite *invaluable*'—meaning, that it would be of no value at all! Captain Campbell, on becoming acquainted with this extraordinary application, replied to it, by adducing clear proof that the kloof in question formed part of his estate, but at the same time readily abandoned his claim in favour of Captain Somerset, from a wish to avoid any unpleasant controversy with the son of the Governor.

This conciliatory conduct failed, however, to avert the formidable hostility which he had unconsciously incurred. A person of the name of Dietz, who occupied an adjoining estate, was instigated to annoy him by laying claim to part of his location, cutting down his woods, pounding his cattle, and by a thousand other modes of incessant persecution, which, in South Africa, any person in favour with those in authority can inflict with impunity upon those who are not. It was in vain that Campbell complained of these injuries to the Landdrost, or cited Dietz before the District Court. The Dutchman was either openly or secretly supported in his systematic course of aggression, and all redress was denied. At length Campbell's patience was worn out, and he wrote to the Acting Governor, to claim his interference and protection. This complaint, probably operated, with others of a similar description, to induce Sir Rufane to remove Captain Somerset from the district of Albany, in the manner already mentioned; and the knowledge of this did not fail to exasperate still further the hostile feelings which this ill-advised and overweening young man cherished against him, and which, there can be no doubt, he very assiduously and successfully communicated to the breast of his father on his return from England.

As soon as Mr. Rivers appeared in Albany to assume the functions of Chief Magistrate of the British settlers, Captain Campbell was made to feel that he was specially marked out for insult and persecution. At the very first meeting of the Court of Landdrost and Heemraden, Rivers behaved with such marked rudeness to him, that the rest of the Board were extremely struck by his behaviour, and Major Pigot, as soon as they came out, inquired of Campbell whether there had been any former misunderstanding between them, and was surprised to learn that they had been previously entirely unacquainted with each other, and that Campbell was equally at a loss as himself to account for the Landdrost's unaccountable demeanour. He was, however, speedily enabled to guess, pretty distinctly, both its cause and object. Young Somerset (now a Major) reached the frontier shortly after Mr. Rivers; and a few days after his arrival, Captain Campbell received a confidential communication from a friend, who was in habits of intercourse with 'those in authority,' advising him to quit the colony as soon as he could, because he had fallen under the displeasure of the Somersets, whose characteristic it was never to forgive those who offended them. This gentleman (a man of strict honour and veracity) added, that Major Somerset had stated in his presence, 'that a letter of Campbell's had fallen into Lord Charles's hands, in which he had claimed Sir Rufane's protection against young Somerset's persecution; that, in consequence of this, he should be subjected henceforth to every species of annoyance; that he should be immediately called upon to pay quit-rent and opgaaf, and exempted as far as possible from the advantages of the other settlers, adding,—'I never did persecute him; but, by G—d! I shall now, and my father too!'

Besides this verbal denunciation, Major Somerset stated, in writing, to a person on the frontier, that he bore a particular hatred to Campbell and another Heemraad, and vauntingly declared that they should be both speedily dismissed, for his father was determined to have no one in office who had been placed in it by Sir Rufane Donkin.

That these were not the mere vain and empty bravadoes of a petulant youth, Captain Campbell soon felt to his cost. He was not a person to whom any open insult, which could be personally resented, could be offered with impunity; but without running this risk, a thousand modes of injuring and annoying him were easily discovered, and diligently put in practice by the base tools of a mean and malicious faction. Rivers, personally, was as insolent as he could possibly be without committing himself. Other partizans of 'Government' ventured, with more incautious zeal, somewhat farther, and Campbell found himself under the necessity of sending a message to one 'led Captain,' who had busied himself in propagating calumnies against him. This individual instantly made a humble apology, and was more discreet in future. His old tormentor, Dietz, how-

ever, was not of a grade to be kept in check by such means. His aggressions had been put a stop to by the interference of Sir Rufane Donkin; but he was again brought forward, on the arrival of Mr. Rivers, to injure and annoy in the same way as formerly, the man who had dared to defy the vengeance of the house of Somerset. It was in vain that Campbell had him summoned before the Landdrost. No redress could be obtained; nor was it likely there should, for Dietz afterwards declared to Mr. Phillips that he had been *instigated and encouraged by Mr. Rivers himself*, to acts of trespass and annoyance against Campbell, and added, that he had never done half so much to annoy him as the Landdrost wished him to do.

Captain Campbell's patience (and it was little wonder) was at length exhausted; and he addressed a letter to Rivers, stating that he had resolved to bring the case before the Court of Circuit; and he took the opportunity to make some remarks upon the extraordinary course that he (Rivers) had pursued towards him since his appointment to the magistracy of the district, and in reference to the indignities to which he had been subjected, and the iniquitous artifices used to obstruct and baffle every effort he made to put a stop to the continual trespasses and annoyances that were perpetrated against him.

This letter was immediately transmitted to the Governor; and by return of post an order was sent back, dismissing Captain Campbell from the office of Heemraad.

In his own defence, Captain Campbell then felt it incumbent to address the Governor; and he detailed to him not only the particular acts of which he had reason to complain, but stated also the proofs which he possessed of establishing his accusations; and earnestly entreated his Lordship to grant an investigation of the facts referred to. To this letter his Excellency did not see fit to make any reply. But as if to express distinctly his approval of the scandalous persecution to which he had been subjected through the agency of Rivers and Dietz, the latter, though as a bankrupt incapacitated by the Dutch law from holding such office, was appointed by Lord Charles's direct mandate (in direct breach also of the colonial regulations) to succeed Captain Campbell in the board of Heemraden.

These details, though they comprise but a small portion of this flagrant case of oppression towards a most meritorious individual,*

* Though none of the facts of this case have been furnished to me by Captain Campbell, or are made public with his sanction, they are derived from such sources as enables me to vouch for their perfect authenticity. I would willingly have spared the names of individuals who may dislike publicity, could I have done so without injustice to an important public object.

will assist the reader to form some conception of the mode in which the unfortunate British emigrants were treated under the administration of Lord Charles Somerset. Before concluding the subject, however, I shall adduce some farther illustrations of a character still more extraordinary and outrageous.

THE MAID OF LOWDORE.

(From 'The Lyre of Elbor and other Poems,' just published, by John Nicholson, the Airedale Poet.)

THE crest of dark Skiddaw was misty and dreary,
The winds roar'd aloud near the hoarse raven's nest,
The strongest with reaching its top would be weary,
And, like the young lover, be wishful to rest,—

The lover that wander'd, his breast with love burning
For Anna, the beautiful maid of Lowdore,
Who watch'd the white clouds as she wish'd his returning,
But night came too soon—he returned no more.

Beneath him the dark mist roll'd rapid in motion;
Above was the ev'ning star seen through the cloud;
But the mist was as fatal to him as the ocean,
When seas wash the lost from the wave-beaten shroud.

A wand'rer he roam'd, where the curlew was screaming,
Till he heard the deep roar of the lone mountain flood;
Of danger approaching he little was dreaming,
Though on the high verge of dire terror he stood.

He thought on his Anna, with earnest endeavour
To reach the blest spot that his soul doth adore;
He steps—shrieks, and falls!—but the shepherd can never
Return to his Love at the falls of Lowdore.

His Anna now nightly sits list'ning with wonder,
To hear in the tempest the cataract's roar;
And thinks she can hear, in the midst of its thunder,
Her shepherd call 'Anna, the maid of Lowdore!'

MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE RELATIVE TO LITERATURE AND THE ARTS IN ITALY.

SOME time ago an account of a manuscript of Petrarch was published at St. Petersburg, under the following title: 'Illustrazione al Codice Autografo di Messer Francesco Petrarca, stato occulto alla Repubblica Letteraria fino dall'anno 1501, epoca in cui fu posseduto dal chiarissimo Messer Bembo.' This publication has excited a considerable degree of attention among the Italian literati; by some it has been regarded as a mere puff of the Chevalier Arrighi, the purchaser of the manuscript referred to, and certainly suspicion is never more justifiable than when people boast of finding prizes. Signor Arrighi rests his conviction of the authenticity of his manuscript on the following grounds: 1st. It wants many readings and poems which the best critical authorities now pronounce to be spurious. 2d. It contains others which are not found in the common manuscripts, for example, the chapter: 'De fama triumphus,' which begins with the words 'Nel cor pien d'amarissima dolcezza.' 3d. The manuscript is free from corrections and erasures, for which reason Arrighi presumes it to be Petrarch's autograph. And 4th. The character perfectly corresponds with the specimens of the poet's handwriting, which are preserved in the Vatican, and in the Ambrosian library at Milan. This last is the most decisive circumstance adduced by Arrighi in proof of the authenticity of his prize; but even this rests on his bare assertion, as he has published no facsimiles. According to his own showing, the manuscript does not in other respects differ from some that are already well known; for instance, the beautiful *testo di penna* of 1370, now in the possession of Professor Poggi of Pisa. That Signor Arrighi's manuscript may be carefully written, and even contemporary with the poet, is possible enough; but there appears no evidence to prove that it is the original autograph, once in the possession of Bembo. There were formerly two autograph manuscripts of Petrarch in the Vatican; there is now only one.

A monument has recently been erected at Milan to the memory of the painter Appiani. It is executed by Franceschetti, after a design by Moraglio. The reliefs, which are by Thorwaldsen, have not met with unconditional approbation. Appiani was a native of Milan, and was born in 1754. His style was pleasing and elegant rather than bold and vigorous, and therefore in the reliefs which adorn his monument, Thorwaldsen has appropriately represented the artist weeping. Appiani's most celebrated works are the frescos in the Government Palace at Milan. He died in 1817, before he had completed them.

Professor Sebastian Ciampi, of Florence, has lately discovered
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an autograph note-book of Boccaccio. Besides being the only authentic autograph of this celebrated poet, it throws some curious light upon the history of his life. Professor Ciampi, who is the author of various esteemed literary productions, has lately published a little pamphlet, showing that the Canary islands were discovered by Florentine and Genoese navigators in the year 1341.

In Italian dramatic literature, the name of Giovanni Battista Nicolini at present claims the highest rank. Since Alfieri, no Italian dramatist has equalled Nicolini in tragic composition. His plays, with the exception of one entitled 'Matilda,' are all founded on classic subjects. His 'Polissena,' 'Ino e Temisto,' 'Medea,' and 'Eclipo nel bosco delle Eumenidi,' are alike calculated to gratify the admirers of classical purity, and the lovers of the more glowing and imaginative style of modern composition. Italy possesses two other dramatic writers of considerable reputation, viz. Professor di Christoforis, and Carrara Spinelli. The former is the author of a tragedy entitled 'Sergian in Caracciolo,' and the latter has written one called 'Guido della torre.' Both these productions have been much read.

The celebrated improvisatore, Faustino Gagliuffi, lately published, at Verona, a volume entitled 'Scherzi estemporanei latini dell' avvocato Don Faustino Gagliuffi, in occasione di viaggio per la Svizzera, Monaco e Verona.' The talent of improvisation is now common enough; but Gagliuffi possesses the peculiarity of delivering his inspired effusions in Latin verse. Even his writing may be said to be a sort of improvisation, such is the rapidity with which the verses flow from his pen.

Count Falchino Schizzi some time ago published, at Milan, a poem entitled 'Il Calomero,' in which he celebrates those monuments of architecture with which the ex-Empress of France, Maria Louisa, has adorned her present dominions. The author describes, in enthusiastic language, the picturesque scenery of the Po, and the two bridges that have been built across the Taro and the Trebbia. He also bestows his tribute of admiration on the new theatre of Parma. The fantastic title which Count Schizzi has given to his poem, requires some explanation. It signifies *Buonaparte*; the Greek word, *Καλόμερος*, having the same meaning which Napoleon's family name bears in Italian. There exists a tradition, according to which the Buonaparte family originally came from Maina, a mountainous region in the Peloponnesus. On their emigration to Corsica, about the end of the 17th century, their name was translated from *Καλόμερος* to Buonaparte. The censorship of Milan did not, perhaps, understand the meaning of 'Calomero,' otherwise it is not likely that the work would have made its appearance under that obnoxious title.

A late number of the 'Biblioteca Italiana' contains an article on lithography, from which it appears that Sennefelder was not the

original discoverer of the art. Simon Schimdt, a professor at the Cadet-Hospital at Munich, was the first who made experiments in printing from stone. The idea was suggested to him by some information which he had collected from an old German work on the 'hidden powers of nature.' Sennefelder, who was introduced to Schimdt as an assistant, first applied the process to the printing of musical notes. If, therefore, Sennefelder cannot lay claim to the original discovery, he at least possesses the merit of having been the first to turn the invention to a useful account.

Professor Lingi Sabatelli has recently finished a beautiful fresco painting on the ceiling of the Pitti palace at Florence. It has been greatly admired, and the Grand Duke has sent a handsome present to the artist.

Professor Seyffarth, of Leipsic, who is at present in Rome, has given some very interesting explanations of various Egyptian antiquities in the Vatican, the Capitol, the Propaganda, and the Villa Albani. Besides the thirteen Roman obelisks, he has carefully studied the statues of papyrus manuscripts in Rome. These manuscripts, he finds, are all historical, and relate to Egypt from the time of Menes to the Romans. Professor Seyffarth has also found the Old and New Testaments in the Sinitic language; the Penta-teuch, in the Memphitic dialect; the Acts of the Council of Nicæa, in the Coptic; several glossaries and grammars in the last-mentioned language; and, finally, a Mexican manuscript in hieroglyphics, with the Mexican zodiac, which shows the connection which existed between Mexico and Egypt at the earliest periods, and places beyond all doubt the correspondence between the mythological systems of the two nations.

THE SARACEN'S BRIDE.

YES! go—and if parted for ever,
Thou lightest these sad eyes no more:
Oh, tell me not now, as we sever,
The truth thou withheldest before.
Oh, tell me not now thou art going
To struggle in battle alone—
To combat where danger is strewing
With carnage the field yet unwon.
Thou reck'st not of what I am feeling,
How constant I bow to the shrine
Where Pity and Sorrow are pealing
Their voices of music to mine.
Oh! woman but too often smother's
The sorrow she knows or has known—
While fathers, and lovers, and brothers,
Seem heroes that suffer alone.

DISEASES OF THE EYE IN INDIA.

To George Richmond, Esq., Oculist, Subordinate Station.

SIR,—I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 26th December, accompanied by a return of diseases of the eye treated by you during your visits to different stations under this Presidency, and am directed by the Medical Board to express to you, that the result of your practice, particularly in the treatment of cataract, is highly satisfactory to them, and that they will have much pleasure in bringing to the notice of Government the value and importance of your services in the department which you have been selected to superintend.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient humble servant,

(Signed)

JAMES M'ADAM,
Secretary Medical Board.

Bombay Medical Board Office,
4th January 1827.

(A true copy.)

GEO. RICHMOND, Oculist.

Number of blind, at Broach and Baroda, restored to sight by surgical operation, from the 15th February to 30th September 1826:

Cataracts, 771
Artificial pupils, 18

Total number restored to sight, 789

Number of persons with other diseases in the eye, cured or relieved in the same period.

Diseases.	Cured.	Relieved.	No better.	Total.	Remarks.
Ophthalmia	160	25	6	191	
Granular Conjunctivæ	131	15	5	150	
Pterygium	16	6	2	24	
Leucoma		15	40	95	
Nebula Corneæ	10	28	4	37	
Nyctalopia	24	1		25	
Hemeralopia	15	7		22	
Hydrophthalmia		7		7	
Amaurosis		46	41	87	
Incipient Cataract				90	Not treated.
Epiphora	17			17	
Lippitudo	13			13	
Entropium		10	5	15	
Staphyloma		23	18	41	
Fistula Lachrymalis		6		6	
Structure of the eye destroyed previously to application				75	

To whatever part of the country I turn, I still find ophthalmic diseases prevail to an unprecedented extent; a fact which can only be ascertained by travelling much among the people, and ensuring them, by kind and mild treatment, of ready access, and a near prospect of relief. Of the opportunity of my residence among them, they are always exceedingly glad to avail themselves; and when I was at Baroda during the monsoon, though the roads were deeply covered with water, they did not slacken their attendance, but continued as long as they derived benefit; and when I was called off to important duty at another quarter, two hundred patients assembled at my house, and expressed their grateful acknowledgment for the benefit derived to their sight, and also entreated to know of me when I should return. Many of them, though poor, after being restored to sight, would not attend me without making daily a small offering of fruit, and when I requested them not to do so, they persisted, until I dismissed them cured.

In the different towns through which I passed, they came in considerable numbers, yet they could not comprehend my object in restoring sight to the blind, without some remuneration on their part; but upon being informed that the Government had in its kindness employed me for that purpose, they were much delighted, remarking, at the same time, that such an act was a high token of benevolence towards them.

It frequently happens, when I am travelling among the villages, that no sooner is my arrival announced, than the blind, and people with all kinds of diseases, assemble round me for relief. They receive medicine with avidity; and when I remove pain, or any kind of suffering, from them, they seldom fail to return and thank me. In the villages, I am always necessitated to operate in the open streets, and frequently in the midst of a crowd, when it sometimes requires no little care on the part of my servants to engage the attention of the bystanders, while I perform the operation. Their curiosity is never impertinent or forward; but while I am engaged in operating, they frequently walk in upon me unperceived. I then leave the needle hanging in the patient's eye, and request the unconscious intruders to stand aside for a few moments, until I finish the operation. This interruption has not a bad effect on the patient, for the weight of the needle is not felt by him, and, in consequence of that, he is led to conceive that I am only applying medicine to the eye. In more than four hundred operations for cataract, which I performed at Baroda, not more than one was complained of pain. To the smallness and delicacy of the needle with which I operate, this happy circumstance and my success are principally to be attributed. To operate, however, without injury to the delicate structure within the eye, much time and care are requisite.

In proceeding from one town to another, my first object is to

find out four or five people blind of cataract, restore them to sight, and send them abroad wherever they please; in this way, their cure is generally made known, and other people, on ascertaining by what means they were restored to sight, are induced to apply for the like remedy.

In the district of Broach, 319 blind of cataract were perfectly restored to sight, forty of which number were operated on in presence of Mr. Kirkland, in the course of one day. During four months, while at Baroda, I restored 412, and in travelling through the country from Baroda to Kaira and Dhewan on other duty, I restored forty more, besides seventeen with artificial pupils, making, as is stated in the columns of the table, a total of 789 restored to sight from cataract in the course of nine months. Were it not that I was called to duty in another quarter, a considerable number more of blind at Baroda would have been restored to sight; for I had not then been able to afford relief to more than what the town contained.

Nine hundred people with other diseases in the eye were cured or relieved at Broach and Baroda, so that during that period there were 1689.

Among those blind of cataract and restored to sight, were two boys and two girls who were born blind, and two of them were of one family.

A petty Rajah at Broach, who had been blind of cataract five years, applied to me for relief. He was so exceedingly corpulent, that his bulk encumbered him in walking, and rendered it necessary for him to have two men to assist him in getting into his carriage. My servants were told that in the event of inflammation succeeding the operation, neither the application of leeches nor any painful remedy to subdue it would be admitted. The Rajah was, however, very desirous of putting himself under my hands; and having done so, his attendants watched me with a jealous eye, lest I should use an instrument, or a remedy repugnant to their feelings. My servants, however, by conversation managed to draw off their attention for a short time, while I operated and succeeded in restoring him to sight. He then joined in conversation with them, and recognised one servant from another. An inquiry was then made by what means sight was restored; various conjectures were thrown out, but it was at last unanimously agreed on, that I had done it by the touch of some particular stone. He had been in the habit of chewing large quantities of opium; I therefore, as a preventive of inflammation, recommended him to double his doses, to which he cordially acceded. By thus keeping him in a state of happy stupidity for a period of four days, I succeeded in preventing symptoms of inflammation; at the end of which time the bandages were removed, and on being allowed the use of his sight, he read several letters to me.

In estimating the number of people blind of cataract in British India, I would draw a comparison between the population of the whole of it, and that of the towns in which I have operated. These are Poonah, Ahmednuggur, Surat, Broach, and Baroda, which contain 500,000 inhabitants, and in which 2115 blind of cataract have been restored to sight. Two thousand five hundred, with other diseases in the eye, have been either cured or relieved, making in all, 4615.

Taking the population of British India at 60,000,000 of Native inhabitants, and this I believe is much below the usual computation, and supposing that blindness generally prevails in the same proportion as what I have found it to exist in the course of my practice, there are at this instant 246,000 people blind with cataract, who are capable of being restored to sight by an operation as simple as blood-letting, 270,000 with other diseases in the eye who are also fit objects either for cure or relief. By adding this number to the former, we have a grand total of 516,000 within the Company's territories, who are afflicted with blindness and diseases in the eye.

The tropical situation of British India, its soil, climate, and temperature, the excessive heat and glare of the sun, the high prevailing winds, the quantities of sand and dust carried by them; all taken together, bear me out fully, I conceive, in the above calculation, especially as, in multiplying, I have dropt the odd numbers.

GEO. RICHMOND, Assist.-Surg. 4th Dragoons.

THE DEYRAH DHOON.

WE have heard a rumour that Government mean to select some spot near Deyrah Dhoon for an invalid station. A Correspondent, with a sight of whose letter we have been favoured, as the result of personal observation, gives his opinion, that the establishing of an invalid station at some place intermediate between the climate of Simla and Subathoo, is an experiment well worthy of trial, and on the success of which he would almost venture to pledge his professional reputation.

There is one thing, he observes, very certain,—which is, that none of the residents at Subathoo, up to the date of his communication, (September,) had died, or been obliged to leave the place from sickness contracted there, while scarcely any of those who had, on the other hand, been resident at Deyrah Dhoon have resisted the effects of its climate. Subathoo, he continues, possesses another advantage—it can be approached without difficulty or the shadow of danger, at all seasons; and during his residence there, of many arrivals and

departures in the most sickly season, no case of sickness followed. Our Correspondent being a medical man, his observations will carry the greater weight on points so immediately connected with his profession. He considers Subathoo and the surrounding country as particularly favourable to cases of fever and bilious affections. The temperature, he states, is moderate, and may be increased or diminished ten degrees by a day's journey. There is no table-land where water could rest; and at the base of the hills, where flats have been formed by the gradual decay and debris from their sides, vegetable matter is not allowed to accumulate, as it is kept in a state of constant cultivation, from which the inhabitants derive the whole of their support.

The climate of Simla is ten degrees lower than that of Subathoo, from which, as the crow flies, it is about 14 miles distant. During the months of March, April, May and June, it is represented as a most desirable place of residence: but during the rains, it is apt to be enveloped in clouds and fog.

By proceeding beyond the Himala range into Kurawur, one gets into a climate where there are no periodical rains, and in which, during a ten weeks residence, at the time when the periodical rains prevailed further south, European visitors experienced only two showers, with a clear unclouded atmosphere, during the period of their sojourn there, and the thermometer from 50° to 60°. The people are described as civil beyond any thing experienced in our own territories. The alleged difficulty of procuring coolies or hill porters, our Correspondent entirely scouts; it is his belief, that if left to their own choice, they would willingly hire themselves as carriers. But putting this out of the question, it seems that camels moderately loaded, can proceed, and have proceeded to Simla without risk.

The traveller need not want for good mutton, as a large kind of sheep is common in the hills. They are to be easily had for 3½ rupees each, require no feeding, and their meat is represented as being fat and sweet tasted, resembling the large mutton found in the London market: there are people at the place, too, who obtain a livelihood by bringing up poultry from the plains.

It need scarcely to be added, that there are several complaints, to which a residence in a hill climate would prove decidedly prejudicial, but the climate in question appears, so far as we can understand, to be admirably suited for obstinate intermittents, bilious complaints, &c.—*India Gazette.*

FREEDOM OF COMMERCE.

To the Editor of the 'Revue Encyclopedique.'

SIR,—I have perused with extreme interest, in your Number for January 1827, an anonymous letter, calling the attention of your readers to certain premiums proposed by several philanthropists, and, among others, by an unknown person, under the signature of M. G., who offers 3000 francs for the author of the best article on this important question: '*What system of Customs would be most suitable for France, for her commerce, industry, and agriculture; and what the best classification of the tariff to facilitate the collection of the duties, and render them the least burthensome to commerce, &c.?*' The unknown writer remarks, with justice, that the question so proposed takes too wide a range, and, he might have added, is too indefinite; and that before discussing it, it is necessary that another should be settled, namely, that of the absolute or limited freedom of commerce; for, if we grant unlimited freedom, all other questions become superfluous. This fundamental question has suggested to me the following reflections.

I am decidedly a friend to unlimited freedom, for the following reasons:

1. Freedom, in its most extensive sense, is man's first blessing, for it is the power of always following our own will, or, in other words, of gratifying our desires. Now, it is very certain that if our desires could always be gratified as soon as conceived, all our wants, whether real or imaginary, physical or moral, would be immediately satisfied, and that consequently we should exist in a state of perfect happiness.

But the state of misery which is the lot of man, does not admit of this. The laws of nature in general, and those of our own organization in particular, oppose numerous and insurmountable obstacles to the realization of this enchanting chimera. But we should strive to approach it as nearly as possible, or, at least, not to lose it from voluntary errors.

Not to depart from the question of our physical wants, which is the object of political economy, and of the premium recommended by M. G., I remark:

2. That it is the universal interest of men of all nations to be provided in the easiest manner possible with all objects which are either necessary to them, or merely useful or agreeable.

The universal interest, then, is incontestibly that of the con-

sumers, and not that of a few producers. Not that I would rank first in society the class of idle consumers; they are already too numerous every where, and yet they are useless, we might even add, noxious, beings. The truly useful of the human race are the productive classes, of whatsoever kind. But every individual of these classes, so deserving and valuable that they cannot be too much encouraged or increased, is the producer of only one species of article, while he is a consumer of all others. His general interest then is, in reality, the same as that of other men,—freedom. But the special interest which men attach to their own particular produce often renders them the partisans of restrictive and prohibitory measures, which affect other producers; and from this error they must be protected against themselves; they must not be yielded to when they persist in it. They are too often supported and strengthened in this false notion by governments, which are never backward in commanding and regulating, and which are, above all, fond of levying imposts wherever they can, particularly on their own frontiers. It is, undoubtedly, this universal disposition of governments, of whatever age or country, backed by their agents and sycophants, which has been able, in spite of the general march of intellect, to perpetuate until now, in the minds of many, the fallacy, that the national producers must be defended against foreign ones by imposts, or even by prohibitions, and the still more fatal error, (for it is the source of every war,) that a country is happy and rich in proportion to the wretchedness, poverty, and inability of its neighbours. It is very singular that, while the smallest retail trader is aware that it is to his advantage to have rich neighbours, who are able to deal largely with him, and to pay him handsomely for his goods, our would-be politicians insist that it is to the advantage of a state that the countries surrounding it should be poor and ignorant.

It is very true that, in the latter case, it is easier to overreach and exact too much, but it is much more difficult to treat with mutual good faith. For myself, my prayers for my country have an entirely different tendency, for the reasons I have just assigned.

In fact, let us suppose France absolutely free from commercial shackles, profiting by all the advantages of her soil, and by those which she derives from her knowledge of the sciences and manufactures; exporting to divers points of the globe, without any obstacle on the part of foreign Governments, the various articles for the production of which she enjoys facilities of which other countries are destitute, and receiving on all sides, without obstacle from its own Government, all the products for which those different countries have local advantages which she does not possess. Is it not clear that, in this supposition, the great mass of the French people would enjoy, to the fullest possible extent, all the products which the whole

universe could yield? and that the rule of reciprocity being universally agreed to, other countries would enjoy the same advantage? Can we conceive any possible situation more prosperous than this?

I know that it is impossible to return at once, or even very quickly, from the state into which we have been brought by the ancient and innumerable errors of what is called *policy*, and which I should be tempted to call jealousy and trickery, to that desirable and happy state of things which I have just sketched; but I maintain, without fear of committing myself, that it should be our object constantly to steer towards that point with moderation, undoubtedly because many private and respectable interests are founded upon the present and preceding order of things, and that it is important that these interests should not be rashly sacrificed.

What, then, is the path which should be followed in order to arrive at this end? That which the United States of America, and even England, since the administration of Messrs. Canning and Huskisson, appear to me to have followed to a certain extent,—to offer successively to all foreign Governments the same advantages for the introduction of their productions, as they are willing to grant to us for the consumption of our goods in their country; and thus successively, by one amelioration after another, nations would in time be reciprocally agreed not to worry each other. Every individual nation would possess full liberty to encourage the particular production for which it is especially adapted by nature and circumstances, and all would be supplied at the cheapest possible rate with every article which each can furnish at the least expense.

I am aware that another great obstacle, to which I have not yet alluded, prevents the adoption of this system of absolute freedom, which would be attended with such happy results; it is, that all governments have a sort of predilection for rendering their Customs as productive as possible. Here we have not to contend against mere political and economical prejudices, but against the interest of the Treasury, so powerful and so rapacious. For this I see no remedy, unless it be that nations should adopt economical governments, which should have for their object the happiness of the people generally, and not the fortune of a few favourites exclusively. May this consummation be attained!

This last consideration is an additional confirmation of that adage well known, but much more profound than it appears to many persons—'That the best government is the most economical, and the least expensive.'

THE GREEKS.

'Vivere fortes anti Agememnona,' &c.—HORACE.

BEFORE proud Sparta's vengeful lord
To god-built Ilium came,
And gave her warriors to the sword,
Her temples to the flame;
Through many a long-forgotten age,
Untold by poet or by sage,
Chiefs of as proud a name,
With hearts as brave, and thoughts as high,
Had trod in fields of victory!

They pass'd unchronicled, unknown,
Or how they fought or fell;
Tradition's idle tongue alone
Their tale awhile might tell:
Then ages dim the haughtiest hide,
For to their name the muse denied
Her sanctifying spell,
Nor deign'd their memory to prolong
In immortality of song.

Though where they fell, the gather'd ground
The nations heap'd on high,
And deem'd that consecrated mound
Should stay the wanderer's eye,
And proudly plead to other days
For fame, and claim the tongue of praise!—
The stranger passes by—
Nor yet one thought that spot may claim,
Without a record or a name.

They hoped that to the proud scene, where
Their sword the nations drew,
Far distant ages would repair,
With glory's wreaths, to strew
The warrior's grave! The barrow still
Crowns the wide plain, or towering hill,
Or skirts the distant view.
Now wander peaceful flocks above.
The spot where hero warriors strove.

The Scion's theme, the Trojan's grief
Eternal in the strain
Survives, or every warrior chief
Had vainly press'd the plain.
Unmark'd, the Greek's neglected grave
Had risen along the Aegean wave,
And Helen loved in vain,
Or flash'd the reddening flames that broke,
When Ilium to her doom awoke.

'Liverpool Mercury.'

H. W. J.

HISTORY OF ARMENIA.

WE are glad to find, that the History of Armenia, which has been some time announced, has made its appearance. It is translated by Mr. Avdall, an Armenian gentleman of Calcutta, of great literary attainment, from an abridgment made by Michael Chamich, of his own history of Armenia, in three quarto volumes, published by the Mikhitharian Society of San Lazaro, at Venice. The abridgment, as translated, occupies two 8vo. volumes of respectable dimensions, and is therefore, probably, sufficiently copious for all useful purposes. Such a publication was indispensably requisite to supply an utter blank in English literature, in which we have no account of Armenia upon original authority; we can scarcely consider the Latin translation of Moses, of Koran, by the two Whistons, as an exception, for it is not available to mere English readers; the translation will not be read for its Latinity; and the addition of the text, although it enhances the value of the publication to Armenian scholars, renders it in a still greater degree 'caviare to the multitude.'

The cultivation of every branch of literature, by the writers of Armenia, has already been the subject of some of our columns, but it is especially to history that their attention has been directed; and through a long series of years, Armenia enjoys the advantage of successive contemporary record. The annalists confine themselves, no doubt, to facts, either witnessed or believed, and we cannot expect much critical or philosophical embellishment. The present age, however, will probably not be disposed to quarrel with the omission, as the business of disquisition is better understood, and all that is required, is the ground-work of fact, on which the fabric of speculation is to be constructed. In what they knew or beheld, the Armenian writers are, in all probability, trust-worthy guides, although we may not always put implicit trust in them, when they write only what they heard, wished, or believed. Indeed, Mr. Avdall warns us against his own original, and Michael Chamich, being a member of the Roman Catholic church, is charged by him with an unwarrantable attempt to pervert the minds of the credulous and ignorant, with prejudices favourable to his own persuasion, and with an unnatural wish to divert their allegiance from the Patriarch of Etchmitatchin to the Pontiff of Rome. This will not matter much in the estimation of his European readers.

Our limits will not permit us to offer any detail of the work beyond the following description of its contents, taken from the preface. Of the translation, considered with regard to the language alone, we may observe, that it evinces a very extraordinary command of English in the translator. Some inelegancies, chiefly of

repetition, may be occasionally observed, but the style is generally correct, idiomatic, and flowing, and not unfrequently approaches to eloquence. Mr. Avdall acknowledges having received some assistance, but we have reason to know that he stood but little in need of it, and that he possesses a conversancy with the English language, very uncommon in one who is 'not native, and to the manner born.'

Our history is divided into seven parts, each exhibiting the political changes that took place in the country. The first part embraces a period of 1779 years, commencing at the time of the general deluge, or the year of the creation of the world 1757, according to the Jewish chronology, or 2663, according to the Septuagint. In the beginning of this period the foundation of the Armenian monarchy was established by Haic, the fourth descendant of the second general father of mankind. Haic greatly distinguished himself in defeating the Syrian king Belus, and in relieving his countrymen from the tyranny of his adversary. For this heroic act, Haic was generally acknowledged as the grand progenitor of the Armenian nation, and all his descendants are called by the name of Haics, (Armenians,) after his name. The Haican power thus happily established by Haic, was carried to the highest pitch of glory by his wise and powerful successors, who distinguished themselves by prudence and valour in the wars which they engaged in with the Syrians, the Medes, the Jews, and other neighbouring nations of the East. The kingdom of Armenia, like many others, had its fall after a long period of glory and prosperity. Vahey, the last of the Armenian kings, having rashly entered into a war with Alexander the Great, was defeated and slain by the conqueror, who took the country of Armenia under his command.

The second part embraces a period of 176 years, during which time Armenia was considered as a province of the powerful empire of Macedonia. The Armenians were at this period ruled by governors sent by the Macedonians, to whom Armenia was tributary until the rise of the Arsacidæ.

The third part comprises 580 years, commencing at the reign of Arsaces the Parthian, who, having rebelled against the Seleucidæ, proclaimed himself an independent monarch. Arsaces extended his sway over various countries, and released Armenia from the yoke of the Seleucidæ. Hence arose the kingdom of the Arsacidæ, under whose government Armenia shone with peculiar lustre for nearly six centuries. So many prosperous circumstances are comprised in this part, and so happy was Armenia in a civil and religious point of view, that all regard it as the brightest period of Armenian history. The Arsacian kings highly distinguished themselves in their wars with the Jews, the Romans, the Greeks, the Persians, and other aspiring foes, who were tempted by a thirst of conquest to invade Armenia. Christianity at this era first rose on

the horizon of Armenia by the mission of St. Thaddeus the Apostle, who first preached the word of God in the country, and converted king Abgar, whose bright example was joyfully imitated by several of his subjects. The ecclesiastical history of Armenia takes its date from the beginning of the fourth century, when St. Gregory the Illuminator flourished, who, by his zealous exertions, succeeded in converting thousands of the population to Christianity. The pontificate of Armenia originated in St. Gregory, and has continued to the present day. The building of churches, the invention of the Armenian letters, the version of the Holy Scriptures, the establishment of schools, the cultivation of literature, the foundation of convents and monasteries, have marked this period with many memorable and delightful recollections. Under these favourable circumstances, Armenia, for a long time, enjoyed prosperity in her political and religious affairs. Time, however, soon changed the state of things. Treason and disunion began gradually to weaken the government of the Arsacidæ; Greece and Persia, by craft and outrage, succeeded in partitioning Armenia between them, permitting the Armenian monarchs to hold only a nominal power. The Armenians chiefs were the principal instruments in overthrowing the kingdom of Armenia by their factious and ambitious proceedings; for having preferred a complaint to the Persian king, Vram, against their lawful king, Artaces or Artashir, they caused him to be deposed from his royal dignity. By his deposition the Arsacidæ lost for ever their power over Armenia, and the country successively fell a prey to the strongest invader.

The fourth part embraces a period of 456 years. Armenia was from this time governed by Prefects sent by the government of Persia, by the Caliphs of Bagdad, and by the Greeks, being oppressed with every kind of persecution. We see in this part the extraordinary struggles of Christianity against idolatry, the memorable martyrdoms of the Vardanians and Levondians, the treachery of the Vasakians, the heroic bravery of the Vahanians, and of other faithful Armenians chiefs, who shed their blood in defending their church from the profanation of the fire-worshippers, the Persians, and the infidel Caliphs. Armenia was literally rendered a slaughter-house, churches were converted into temples for the worship of fire; priests were superseded by the infidel magi; clergy and laity were doomed to imprisonment or banishment, and exposed to the tortures of fire and the rack. In short, a general gloom overspread Armenia till the rise of the Bagratian kings.

The fifth part comprises 160 or 220 years, commencing at the reign of Ashot, the first king of the race of the Bagratians. Ashot was elevated to the royal dignity under the auspices of the Caliph of Bagdad. During the reigns of the Bagratian kings, Armenia was for a time allowed to taste the sweets of peace and consequent

prosperity, yet she was soon disturbed by internal factions and dissensions, by the incursions of foreign enemies, and by the cruelties of those powers to which she was tributary. The calamities of Armenia were finally crowned by the barbarous oppression of the Greeks, who being actuated by a spirit of inveterate enmity excited by religious differences, committed such dreadful enormities in this unhappy land, as caused the destruction of the Bagratian monarchy, which was followed by the most horrid invasions.

The sixth part embraces a period of 300 years, commencing with the reign of Reuben the First. The Reubenian princes usually held their court in the country of Cilicia, and were not invested with the absolute power of kings. A political intercourse was maintained with the Crusaders, whom the Armenians assisted with provisions during the time of a sore famine. Notwithstanding the wisdom and valour of the Reubenian princes, Armenia was constantly distressed by internal commotions, by hordes of invaders, by the incursions of Jenkhiz Khan and the other monarchs who wielded the sceptre of Scythia, by the cruelties of the Greeks, by the irruptions of the Persians, the Egyptians, and several other aspiring foes, to whom Armenia was in turn tributary. The Reubenian monarchy was destroyed by the Egyptians, who made Leo, the last king of Armenia, prisoner, and from that time royalty was lost to Armenia.

The seventh and last part contains an account of the expatriation of the Armenians, and of the state of the church to the year 1780. The irruptions of Tamerlane, the cruelties of Shah Abas, the inroads of the Turks, and of several other neighbouring foes, have rendered Armenia almost a total waste, having stripped her of all that was good and great. The ambitious and factious proceedings of the patriarchs of Constantinople, combined with the infamous junctoes of the Thulthulians, the Jahukians, and the Tivrikians, and the turbulent spirit of other corrupt clergymen of Armenia, have placed a stigma on the Armenian church which can scarcely ever be removed, and poured scandal on the memory of the Holy St. Gregory the Illuminator. The saying of our blessed Saviour is truly verified in the depraved conduct of these unworthy ministers of the Gospel, 'My house shall be called the house of prayer; but ye have made it a den of thieves.'

Lastly, with a view to satisfy the curiosity of the reader, who will be naturally inclined to be put in possession of some information respecting the events that have passed in Armenia since the year 1780, it has been thought necessary to append to this volume a continuation of the history down to the present day, from the most authentic sources.—*Government Gazette.*

SKETCHES FROM INEDITED TRAVELS IN ITALY IN 1823—1824.

*The Simplon—Borromean Isles—Milan—Churches—Theatres—
Iron Crown—Echo—Poet Monti—Music.*

THE series of sketches, of which this article is intended to be the commencement, is formed from the notes and letters of a French traveller, during his sojourn in Italy in 1823 and 1824. On his return to Paris, an attempt was made by his friends to persuade him to revise and publish them, which, after some consideration, he declined doing, excusing his refusal in the following terms:

'I passed a year in Italy and Sicily, but, as I must avow to my shame, very ill prepared for my travels. I am, moreover, neither painter nor musician,—neither antiquary, nor architect. I am not clever enough to divine the manners of people through the walls of their houses, and my classical learning is most scanty. In what, then, can the publication of my travels instruct mankind? Of the two or three thousand young English, who every year *font leur France, et leur Italie*, (this is their own expression,) a hundred, at least, think it necessary to impart to the public their mawkish admiration, and their disgusts still more mawkish. What good can it do to add to this mass of nonsense? My materials, besides, are in such confusion, that it would require an age to arrange them, and still more time to render their style tolerable. Instead of calling up old ideas and old phrases, I prefer seeking for new ones. In 1827, I do not think as I did in 1823; and I flatter myself that I am able to write somewhat better. All that I can do, then, is to consign to you my manuscripts. They are at your service, to make what extracts you please.'

The manuscripts were accordingly put into the hands of the conductors of 'The Globe,' French journal, who have availed themselves of the permission accorded to them, and have given several interesting articles from the notes and letters of their traveller. Of the first and second of these, we submit the following version to our readers, and we propose to continue to translate the rest whenever we find in them matter likely to afford entertainment or instruction.

The author entered Italy by the Simplon on the 15th of September 1823, and this wonderful passage excited in him the liveliest emotions. 'Yesterday evening,' he says, 'I was still at Brigg, in the Valais. A formidable barrier lay between me and Italy,—a few hours have been sufficient to surmount it. A single day saw our carriage leave the plain, gradually rise to the region of perpetual

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snow,* wind at the foot of the glaciers, and rapidly descend again towards another plain, through frightful rocks. The deepest ravines, terrifying abysses, the hardest granite, nothing could impede our descent; and stretched at my ease in a good calèche, I contemplated, as they unfolded themselves to my view, the magnificent prospects which, during two months, had cost me so much labour. Of an uninterrupted width of five-and-twenty feet, and constantly as smooth as the avenue of the Champs Elysées, this astonishing causeway has never a greater inclination than two inches and a half to the toise. In one place supported by walls of masonry, in another, cut as an overhanging cornice in the solid rock, and in a third, penetrating the body of the mountain itself, in the form of a gallery; I am no longer surprised that 160,000 quintals of powder hardly sufficed for this prodigious work; but how can I conceive, that in less than three years it was begun and terminated?

The first feeling of our author on entering Italy is astonishment at the preference given by so many travellers to the Swiss scenery over that of Italy; and the difference in the race of people is even more striking to him. 'Instead of your good Helvetian faces,' he says, 'in which honesty displays itself in proportion to the absence of intelligence, I see nothing here but strongly marked features, expressive physiognomy, countenances full of force and passion. The day before yesterday I was amongst a people who speak no language but the French, and yet to make myself understood, I, a Frenchman, had to repeat the same thing three or four times over: here, where I can with difficulty stammer out a few words of Italian, whoever I speak to catches in a moment what I would say. The fact is, the first understands words only, while the others guess at the thought, even almost in spite of the words. In revenge for this, an incredible wretchedness seems to tarnish the finest faculties of man. I see passing beneath my windows at every moment, wretches who have no other clothing than ragged small clothes, without either stockings or shoes; and the tatters with which the women are covered would make them ugly, but for the large black eyes which shine out through all. We have here none of the cold physiognomies of the North, and there is nothing to the very amusements of these people which does not become terrible by the force of passion. I just witnessed four *Vetturini* playing at *mora*, a sort of game very common, I am told, throughout Italy, and by the cries they raised, I thought the whole town of Baveno up in arms. Of what would not such men be capable when excited by fanaticism or despair?

From Baveno, the author visits the Borromean Isles, the situation

* Not that any point of the passage of the Simplon is actually at the point of perpetual snow. The Convent of Mount Saint Bernard is so; but that is, at least, two thousand feet higher.—Ed.

of which enchants him. But with the palace of his Excellency, the Count Borromeo, he is not quite so well pleased. 'At sight of it, one would conclude that it was never the design that it should be inhabited. It is with fear and trembling, however, that I hazard this opinion, for I have no desire to incur the danger of the Editor of the "Journal des Debats," who ventured to take a similar liberty. There is not an imaginable project of vengeance which M. le Comte, in his indignation, does not entertain; and he has already written to Paris ten letters demanding the name of the anonymous author of the irreverent article. "But when he shall know it, what will he do?" "What will he do, Sir? why he will have satisfaction." "What, will he fight him?" "Signor the Count Borromeo fight with a writer! No, no; but in whatever corner of Italy the insolent fellow may be concealed, he will be found and put in prison. Abuse the *Isola bella*! Two years in a dungeon are not enough for such *bestialità*." This was our discourse in going over the terraces with the gardener of the place, the worthy echo of the cholera of his master,—a warning to travellers who dread the Italian grand signors.'

'Near the village of Arona, and on the side of a hill which commands the Lago Maggiore, stands a statue in bronze, of which the stretched out arm seems to confer the benediction on all the surrounding country. It is that of St. Carlo Borromeo, one of the benefactors of Lombardy. In the body of this venerable prelate we made a very agreeable promenade: one of the folds of his capacious robe gives admission through a narrow entrance, and two or three minutes of laborious ascent conduct you to his head, which is lighted by a twofold aperture. Immense cavities on the right and left, and a deep precipice which you perceive beneath you, mark the ears of the saint, and the breviary which he carries under his arm. Lastly, clambering into his nose, and looking out at one of his eyes, you have a view of the whole lake, with its numerous bays and lovely landscapes. The height of this colossus is a hundred and twelve feet, and that of the breviary alone is fourteen. The head and hands only are cast.

'After this singular excursion, we arrived on the shores of the Tessino, the boundary of Piedmont and Lombardy. The beauty of the stream, the physiognomy, replete with character, of the peasantry, who with us crossed the stream in the ferry-boat, and even the melodious songs of a blind man, whose task it seemed to be to amuse us while crossing, all appeared to combine to give us an agreeable welcome into the states of his Austrian Majesty. But scarcely had we touched the shore, when assailed at once by a swarm of custom-house officers and beggars, of vagabonds and police-agents, all equally in tatters, all with the same gallows looks, we found ourselves crowded and jostled, without seeing how or where to find a retreat for our persons or our baggage. At last, by dint of elbowing, and the distribution of a few pieces of money, we

escaped from the throng, but not without leaving behind two of our fellow-travellers, who, less in rule than ourselves with regard to their passports, were civilly remanded to Turin. These several formalities unfortunately retarded us, and made us despair of arriving the same evening at Milan, the road to which is insecure after sun-set. If the gendarmes, however, occupy themselves but little about the thieves, on the other hand, certain it is, that no traveller, suspected of being suspicious, could advance four steps beyond the Austrian frontier, and this is of far more importance to the Government: as for the governed, they are no object of concern.

On the evening of the author's arrival at Milan, the theatre of La Scala being shut, he is taken to the *Fantoccini*, which he thus describes:

'In the *Fantoccini* I expected to find but a poor consolation under my disappointment; but the talents of the Signor Gerolamo, the absolute director of the company, were unknown to me. Such is the exactitude of all the movements of these pigny performers, their bodies, arms, and head, all move in so exact a measure, and are in such perfect accord with the sentiments expressed by the voice, that, but for the dimensions, I should have thought myself in the Rue Richelieu. True it is, that in the acting of these excellent *Fantoccini*, there is more study than inspiration; and that without perceiving the strings by which they are moved, we are sufficiently convinced of their existence; but it is precisely this which makes the portrait perfect, and on this account that we should pronounce them pupils of the *Conservatoire*. Besides *Nebuchadnezzar*, a classical tragedy in five acts, in rumbling verse, and with the accompaniment obligato of six recitatives and four airs, we were favoured with an *Anacreontic* ballet, composed à la Gardel. How I wished that the dancers of our "grand opera," so proud of their arms and of their legs, could see my little puppet-dancers copy faithfully all their attitudes, and give all their airs. The whole audience, however, did not judge so favourably as I did; and meeting at the door a Belgian, with whom I had become acquainted in the head of St. Carlo Borromeo, "Well," said I, "what do you think of the Marionetts—are they not wonderful?" "Truly," said he, "but yet they did not quite please me." "What can you object to them?"—"They seem to me a little too stiff."

The cathedral of Milan, that immense church, constructed entirely of white marble, with its five aisles, its numberless pinnacles, its four thousand statues, and the subterranean chapel, cased in gold and silver, where St. Carlo Borromeo reposes in a coffin of crystal, are too well known to require us to follow our author through his account of them, and we prefer seating ourselves by his side in the pit of the *Scala*.

An hour before the performance began, I had already taken my place in the immense pit of the *Scala*, and, commodiously seated on

a cushioned bench, I looked round with wonder over a theatre in which four of ours might dance a quadrille. To a Frenchman or an Englishman, accustomed to range with his glass through well-lighted boxes, the darkness of the *Scala* must appear surprising. But, on considering that the theatre is the only rendezvous of the best society, that every box is a drawing-room, in which the proprietor receives friends *sans toilette* and *sans ceremonie*; and lastly, that it is the place where are consummated the intrigues begun at mass and matured at the promenade, our astonishment ceases, and like the Milanese dames, we shudder at the very idea of gas, and even of oil lamps. Yet I grieve to say, that in a country where light, it may safely be affirmed, is not held in honour, a conspiracy has been formed against the only kind of darkness which is tolerable. The *Scala* is threatened with a lustre for the next year. Some Frenchified ladies are, it is said, at the head of the plot, and it is feared they will succeed,*—poor Milan!

'The curtain at length rises: a magnificent scene is displayed, and the soldiers of Othello file off before the Doge. But, sung by Marie and La Morandi, this opera produced but little effect. To make amends, however, the ballet surpassed my expectation. It was the 'Gabrielle of Vergy;' and nothing can equal the magnificence of this grand pantomime. What would be said by our Parisians, who were in ecstasies at the sight of the pair of horses of Trajan, or of Cinderella, on seeing here twenty knights, armed at all points, go through a tourney on the stage? What would they say on beholding the dresses and decorations incomparably finer than ours? But these are mere accessories in this piece, in which the interest of the drama and the skill of the actors excite as much emotion as the best tragedy. The author, besides, has only borrowed from Dubelloy the horrible *dénouement*; and La Pelerini is as much superior to Mademoiselle Duchenois as Tahna is to Lafond. If in this respect, however, the palm be borne away from us, on the other hand, the glory of the *entrechat* and the *pirouette* still remains as ours. There, as in London, I enjoyed the sweet satisfaction of seeing both performed by French legs. Among the legs which figured on the present occasion, and which sustained the female bodies, there were several very pretty ones, which two priests, my neighbours, eyed with particular predilection, doubtless from scientific motives. However that might be, the novelty of the spectacle, and the contrast of their black frocks with the transparent gauzes of the ladies was not one of the circumstances of the evening which amused the least. To sum up, a superb theatre, but so-so singers, an excellent orchestra, an inattentive audience, a splendid ballet, and above all, a house in perfect order, is the amount of what struck me most on my visit the *Scala*.

*It has in fact succeeded, and the *Scala* is now as brilliant, at least as far as light can make it, as St. Carlo at Naples.

The following day, a musical mass was performed in the church of St. Euforbio; and within a small space, gaily hung with crimson, I beheld a squeeze of from 1500 to 2000 of the faithful occupied in any thing but the mass—moving from one place to another, elbowing, talking louder than at the Scala; a third, at most, of the congregation had their faces turned to the altar. In the mean time, an orchestra, placed on a scaffold, elegantly adorned, executed the airs of Rossini. Beautiful women, covered, as to the head, with black or white veils, cast around from under these their expressive glances. Every thing, in fact, breathed an air of joy and pleasure. Could we but, by the touch of the wand, transport to the midst of such a scene a peaceable inhabitant of Edinburgh, what would be his indignation? I remember, at Haarlem, observing the horror with which a newly debarked Scotchman fled from a church in which the organ burst forth with one of the cavatine from the “Barbiere di Siviglia,” “because,” he said, “the canticle was much too gay.” What would he have done at Milan? For my part, not enjoying the felicity of being a Puritan, I was very well pleased with the performance at St. Euforbio. Besides the Scala, St. Euforbio, and the Fantoccini, there are, moreover, at Milan, many other theatres devoted promiscuously to comic operas, tragedies, and comedies. The theatre *Re* is of this number; and there I saw our delightful vaudeville of “Une Visite à Bedlam,” mercilessly tortured, revised, corrected, spun out into three acts; for, while the glory of our tragic writers slumbers tranquilly at Paris, that of Scribe makes the tour of Europe. In Italy, theatrical amusements are much more within the reach of all conditions than in France. At the theatre *Re*, the price of the best places is twelve sous, and a free admission to the Scala costs only 130 francs a year. Were the rate the same at the Louvois, not a single person, *comme il faut*, would enter it. I doubt much if our *elegants* could reconcile themselves to take excellent ices of an evening at eight sous. Tortoni, at any rate, would think it bad taste.

During the last days of the month of September, the author visits the delicious little town of Varese, and the beautiful lake of Como, which, penetrating, on one hand, into the bosom of the rudest mountains, and, on the other, bordering on the plains of Italy, unites beauties of so different a kind. On his way he stops at Monza.

‘Monza,’ says he, ‘is a town celebrated in the history of Lombardy, and its cathedral, built twelve hundred years ago, in the time of St. Gregory, and of the Queen Teudelinda, contains a great number of venerable relics, among which are a comb of her Gothic Majesty, and a cup of sapphire, which she presented to the church. It is here also that is preserved most carefully the celebrated Iron Crown, which, successively placed on the head of all the emperors and Lombard kings, at last encircled the brows of Napoleon. “*Dio me la da, guai a chi la toccherà*,” exclaimed the Conqueror, on fixing it

with his own hand on his head. To see this curious monument an order of the Government is requisite. The rescript, thus obtained, is deposited in the vestry. A priest then, in full robes, and attended by two of the chorister children, reverently approaches the altar; the clouds of incense ascend; long prayers are repeated; and after, at the least, five minutes of genuflexions and signs of the cross, the tabernacle is opened, and the venerated crown appears encased in a rich silver-gilt cross, which contains, moreover, a few drops of the blood of Jesus Christ, and of the milk of the Virgin Mary. The crown itself owes its name to a band of iron which encircles the interior, and which is said to have been formed from one of the nails of the true Cross. But, in other respects, it is all brilliant in gold and precious stones; and while we were absorbed in the idea of the great associations attached to it, other travellers, brethren, no doubt, of the worthy Mr. Isaacs, were in ecstasies at the delicacy of the workmanship, and the intrinsic value of the materials. To replace it in its situation, it was necessary to repeat from the beginning the former ceremonies, and twenty times incensed and blessed, it returned to its august abode.

At the distance of about two miles from Milan there is a singular Echo, which all the world goes to see. The sound of a pistol, fired from one of the windows of an old palace, now uninhabited, is immediately repeated fifty or sixty times. I counted myself forty-seven detonations quite distinct. This phenomenon delights, above all, the English, who think it the finest thing in Lombardy. One of them, some years ago, conceived the noble idea of forming a similar one in his park. He, therefore, had all the dimensions of the edifice precisely taken; the angles were measured with geometrical nicety, and the most skilful architects of Great Britain were charged with the execution of the admirable work. The owner himself superintended the whole proceeding; he gave his advice and his orders, and, above all, he paid. At last all is finished, and his happy day arrives. A numerous assemblage is collected; and after a sumptuous banquet, the happy Englishman, armed with two pair of pistols, proudly takes his post at the wonder-working window. He fires,—but alas! not the least echo—not the slightest reverberation. It is affirmed, that in his despair, he turned the next fire on himself, and thus perished a victim to his love for echoes; a fit theme for an affecting elegy!

The name of the celebrated Monti, one of the first poets of modern Italy, is known to all the world. A friend of his took me this morning to see him. He is now an old man, almost blind, but of the finest countenance. We remained together nearly an hour, and to facilitate the conversation, he spoke in Italian, while I replied in French. We thus ran over a crowd of subjects, all of which he treated with equal warmth and spirit. On the lips, the language of Dante acquires an inconceivable charm;—it is truly music. The

only reproach made against Monti, and it is a serious one, is that of having praised all parties. The furious enemy of the French Republic, in his "*Bassevilliade*," he afterwards celebrated the excesses of the Convention; and we have since seen him blowing the trumpet, in turn, for Napoleon and for the Emperor of Austria. But this conduct is the result, it is said, of an extreme mobility of imagination. Every object has two sides; one only of these sides strikes him at a time; and he ends in believing, because he has written. This, perhaps, is to justify his reputation at the expense of his head: but the head of a poet has privileges. Let the genius of Monti then acquit him; the example is not dangerous.

"I was one day at the performance of *Othello*, in the box of Madame V——, an amiable woman, and an excellent musician. Expressing my astonishment at the noise which constantly prevailed in the theatre, "You talk," says she, "like a true Frenchman, with all his prejudices about him. True it is, that at the Louvois an universal *hush* would be raised at the least conversation during an unimportant air, or even a *lingering* recitative. But do you know what conclusion we draw from this? That with you, music is only the object of study, or of fashion. With me, it is an art which, of all others, I love with the most ardent passion. What then! I declare that it would be physically impossible for me to listen to its notes during four successive hours without the most painful fatigue; whilst, with these intervals, which to you seem so shocking, I enjoy all the principal and excellent morsels in the work. But it is not in this manner that music is understood at Paris: there you would judge it—not feel it; and the least disturbance during *Le Nozze di Figaro* would be a crime of *Lèse-Mozart*. Thus, towards the end of the second act, and in the third, you are all to be seen, your heads drooping with their own weight, all the features contracted, and, very often, a gape, however promptly suppressed, betrays an *ennui* you are ashamed to own." "So then you think that vanity alone?" "I am sure of it. It is the order of the day, that the *bon ton* shall be to prefer Mozart and Rossini to Grétry and Boïeldieu. But, believe me, that, at the bottom, the latter reign in the hearts of all. The pleasure besides that is taken in raising the Paris company above those of Milan and Naples, in speaking of the orchestra of Louvois as the first of the two hemispheres." "What, and do you pretend to criticise our orchestra?" "No, certainly not. I acknowledge the vigour and the skill of its execution. But this very vigour, is it not too unremittingly kept up? Beneath the able fingers of the young pupils of the Conservatoire, have not a funeral march and a march of triumph nearly the same character? Are not the accompaniments always too powerful? Lastly, allowing them to possess in the highest degree the science of music, have they equally the feeling for it? Listen to the breathings of that clarionette. With you it would be more brilliant—but here, it goes more home to the soul.

But I am talking to you in a strain which must surprise you: a sojourn of six months in Italy will teach you more than all that I can say. Besides, La Morandi is going to sing—let us be silent." In short, Morandi sung: the orchestra accompanied her softly, and although she be far from approaching the excellence of Pasta, I beheld the house electrified in a manner in which the Louvois never will be! Is Madame V—— in the right then?

"On my arrival, too, I thought the ballets of Paris the first in the world, but I have already changed my opinion. Here we are not obliged to derive our whole pleasure from witnessing the gambols of Monsieur and Mademoiselle *Such-a-one*, turning like a teetotum on their pivot. An interesting drama occupies the mind, while the most charming airs of Rossini and Mozart enchant the ears, and our eyes admire the magnificent stage decorations. I have already seen the Gabrielle de Vergy six times, and am not yet tired of it; and yet the author of this ballet, M. Gioja, is, they say, but a poor imitator of the late Vigano, a man of most original genius. Why not get up in France some of the grand ballets of the last named master? Would not this be better than the eternal shreds of mythology of Messieurs Gardel and his successors, patchwork which, besides, have already had their reward. The musician would then be invited to draw from scores already known, instead of forming one expressly for the occasion; and all the stars of the *Conservatoire* would give precedence to Mozart and Rossini. In point of decoration, in France, we are at the height of exultation, when at the expense of one hundred and fifty thousand francs, we have stuck plenty of gold on a sufficient surface of canvas, and throw our light to the very Boulevards; so that, as we cannot often renew a decoration so costly, we have to contemplate, for twenty years together, the tender spouse of *Psyche* blossoming under the same ceilings. God knows how in this abode of voluptuousness all is worn and tarnished. In Italy, all the decorations are every year broken up or effaced, and replaced by others. It is true that, in executing them, more tinsel than pure metal is used, and perhaps the dignity of the 'Grand Opera' would revolt at this Charlatanism. But, setting aside this moral consideration, since the decorations so constituted produce as much or more effect, I do not see that the public are losers. Moreover, we should never despair of any thing; and who knows but what some day a revolution may reach even the Royal Academy of Music. It is a benefit reserved for our grandchildren."*

* Since M. Lubet has had the direction of the Opera at Paris, that venerable relic of the *ancien régime* has undergone considerable modifications. Let not our young and able director stop in his course. He has begun by reforming the opera, but the ballet also has need of his cares, and we recommend to him the fine works of Vigano.

THE VOICE OF FRIENDSHIP.

When night surrounds—when darkness spreads
 Around the path the traveller treads,
 How lovely seems each gleam of light
 That bursts the gloom of such a night;
 How sweet the moon's alternate ray
 That breaks upon his dreary way;
 And when through life's uncertain wild
 Slow journeys on misfortune's child,
 And memory, in her silent languish,
 Weeps o'er each darken'd day of anguish,
 How sweet the gleam that Friendship throws,
 When shining on a way of woes!
 Not erring like the phantom light,
 That wanders in the gloom of night,
 Leading away the unwary stranger
 O'er paths of death, and depths of danger;
 While gleaming to the eye so fair,
 There seems not ruin lingering there,—
 But spreading free like that bright beam
 Upon an Indian day dawn shining,
 When passing like a waking dream,
 Its every link of thought untwining,—
 The shade of midnight leaves the sky,
 And morning bursts exultingly.

And, oh! there was, when on my soul
 The night of woes and sorrow stole,
 And love its days to weeping gave
 Upon an aged father's grave;
 The world—it was no world to me,
 For no sweet voice of sympathy,
 Like music to the sad heart sounding,
 Came o'er me in my deep distress,
 But silence was on all surrounding,
 And I was lone in bitterness;
 Then with a voiceless thought I view'd
 The visions of my solitude.
 For the spirit of my youth pourtray'd
 The fairy scenes of infancy,
 When through the memory's twilight shade,
 Its days look lovely to the eye.
 The innocence that once was ours,
 The pleasures that we dreamt or tasted,
 The hopes that bloom'd like autumn flow'rs,
 Fair blown to-day—to-morrow blasted.
 These were the scenes that fancy brought
 With the far wanderings of my thought,
 Till o'er the sorrows of my mind,
 Like fragrance on the midnight wind,
 Then came the soothing voice, whose strain
 Calm'd my sad heart to smiles again.

R. H.

DOCTRINE OF SUMMARY COMMITMENT FOR CONSTRUCTIVE CONTEMPTS OF PARLIAMENT, AND OF COURTS OF JUSTICE.

No. I.

PUNISHMENTS inflicted, without the intervention of juries, for contempts *in facie curiæ*, and actual obstructions to the administration of justice, are all violations of that elementary principle of the constitution which will not allow a man to be judge in his own cause; and have, accordingly, in the Ecclesiastical and Equity Courts, at least, been often attended with circumstances of extraordinary cruelty and oppression. This part of the law calls loudly for reform; and one of the simplest steps would be to enact that, instead of punishing defendants with indefinite imprisonment for non-appearance and non-feasance, the matter should be taken *pro confesso*, and effect given *in rem* to documents executed by order of the Court. But how transcendent is the injustice, when the authority, which is at once accuser and judge, awards punishment where no contempt has been committed, no obstruction interposed, but where those names are given to acts which might with equal colour of reason be charged as treason! If libel be an offence which ought not to be cognizable by temporal tribunals, if grand and petty juries cannot be trusted with it, what shall we say where the cause is tried before, and adjudged by, the offended party himself, and when, on the ground that 'the effect of immediate punishment and example is required to prevent the evils necessarily arising from this offence,'* judgment is pronounced in hot blood by men tingling under the smart of well merited reproof or flippant pasquinade! Other crimes, 'however erroneous, even open treason and rebellion, which carry with them a contempt of all law and the authority of all courts,'† may, without inconvenience, wait upon the 'more dilatory proceedings of the ordinary Courts of Law;' but bare words, which import no injury, actual or meditated, to the persons or property of any human being, 'require the most prompt interposition and restraint;' and, in the opinion of Sir Eardley Wilmot, are 'more proper for an attachment than any other case whatever.'‡ In vindicating actual invasions of the peace of society, justice preserves an impassible gravity, an awful dignity; but when roused to the resentment of imaginary attacks upon herself, then we have the *fulgores terrificos, sonitumque, metumque flammisque sequacibus iras*.

Hence the sympathetic constancy with which the Court of King's Bench has always supported the most violent proceedings of the House of Commons in cases of constructive contempts, since to

* Report of a Committee of the House of Commons, 1810.

† Letter of Mr. Erskine, State Trials, 86.

‡ Ibid. 59.

disallow, over-rule, and correct them, would strike at the root of its own pretensions. Thus, in the case of Sir Francis Burdett, in 1810, Lord Ellenborough said: 'Is not the degradation and disparagement of the two Houses of Parliament in the estimation of the public, by contemptuous libels, AS MUCH AN IMPEDIMENT to their efficient acting with regard to the public, AS THE ACTUAL OBSTRUCTION of an individual member by bodily force, in his endeavour to resort to the place where Parliament is holden?' And, as if to improve on this doctrine, another lawyer is pleased to assert, that 'if contumacy or resistance to process be an assault upon the House in the exercise of its duties, still more so must be the total denial of its jurisdiction. This has a tendency to cut off its rights and privileges altogether. It will not admit a doubt, therefore, but that all such denial, whether by word or writing, is a direct breach of privilege, and a high contempt.* It is manifest that this denial of the difference between actual and constructive contempt, or raising of the latter to an equality with, or superiority over, the former, accords perfectly with the language of Lord Bacon, noticed in the first chapter,† when he states one of the four means whereby the death of the king is compassed and imagined to be, 'by disabling his regiment, and making him appear incapable or indigne to reign.' The two dicta coincide exactly; and consistency required that Lord Ellenborough should hold, that the degradation and disparagement of the King by a contemptuous libel, was as much an impediment to the efficient discharge of his regal functions, as the actual seizure and detention of his person by bodily force, though *non constat*, that even that would amount to compassing and imagining his death.

The sanction which Mr. Fox, in his letter to Mr. Perry in 1798,‡ gave to the doctrine of constructive contempt, is expressed in terms not much less objectionable. If a man were to write *contumaciously* of the manner in which a judge gave judgment, I suspect he would certainly be attacked for a contempt. 'Now, if this is so, it is clearly a contempt of the House of Lords to animadvert *contumaciously* on the speeches of its members, and, perhaps, more clearly than in the other case, inasmuch as to print the speech at all is a breach of privilege.'

Now, contumacy is a wilful contempt and disobedience to any lawful summons or judicial order; and to say that courts of justice and the Houses of Parliament may punish as *contumacious* all those who signify by their writings that they refuse to acquiesce implicitly in all the grounds and reasons on which they found their proceedings, is to strain the authority of those courts as high as their most zealous partisans could desire.

* Holt's 'Law of Libel,' p. 138.

† Eight State Trials, 98.

‡ Page 7.

According to Blackstone, contempts may arise 'by speaking, or writing contemptuously of the court, or judges acting in their judicial capacity; by printing false accounts (or even true ones without proper permission) of causes then depending in judgment; and by any thing, in short, that demonstrates a gross want of that regard and respect, which when once courts of justice are deprived of, their authority (so necessary for the good order of the kingdom) is entirely lost among the people. The process of attachment for these and the like contempts must necessarily be as ancient as the laws themselves. For laws, without a competent authority to secure their administration from contempt and disobedience, would be vain and nugatory. A power, therefore, in the supreme courts of justice to suppress such contempts, by an immediate attachment of the offender, results from the first principles of judicial establishments, and must be an inseparable attendant upon every superior tribunal.* In the first place, it is here taken for granted, that the disregard and disrespect evinced by the libeller are without reasonable foundation, and that the effect of his punishment must be to inspire him, or, at least, others, with that measure of regard and respect from which courts derive all their authority among the people. Of the degree of respect that may be at any time due to courts of justice, they are themselves the worst judges, and are, therefore, very liable to increase existing distrust and disaffection by punishing just animadversion as calumnious, instead of removing the evil complained of: but, granting that in a particular instance they have been calumniated, yet the summary correction of the offender at their own discretion invariably occasions a loss of regard and respect, because the abuse of such a jurisdiction is inseparable from its use. This doctrine would encourage courts to heap up wrath against themselves, by justifying their punishing every exposition of their conduct, however corrupt and arbitrary. If a want of respect, without any inquiry into the causes of its being withheld or withdrawn, is to constitute a crime, and a display of power is to be considered the appropriate remedy, a legal provision is at once made for an infinite series of acts of usurpation and oppression. But the surest way to make courts *deserve* respect, is to prevent them from punishing indications of the want of it, when they do not obstruct their proceedings. In the second place, the foundation laid by Blackstone himself is too narrow to support the superstructure; for laws may have a competent authority to secure their administration from disobedience and contempt, (taking this last word as synonymous with 'disobedience,' or as surplisage), though libel were neither punishable by judges nor by juries. To punish in an exemplary manner every act of disobedience to a lawful command, would abundantly ensure the efficiency of laws, and exempt them from the reproach of being vain and nugatory. But the libeller disobeys no command,

* 4 Black. Comm. 282.

resists no process, obstructs no proceedings; and in proportion as he deviates from truth and candour, can only make *himself* the object of disesteem and disapprobation.

With this brief view of the theory of this question, which indeed lies in the narrowest compass, I proceed to notice chronologically the principal cases which have occurred.

The first on record is worthy to lead the list. In 1345, John de Northampton, an attorney of the Court of King's Bench, having written of the judges of that court, that *they had independence enough not to be swayed by royal commands*, was adjudged, in so doing, to have been guilty of a contempt, was committed into custody, and, as it seems, was obliged to find main-perners.

In 1621, the House of Commons took upon them to summon to their bar, Edward Floyd, a Roman Catholic minister, and a prisoner in the Fleet, and to examine witnesses, touching contemptuous words by him spoken of the Elector Palatine and his wife, daughter of James I. Sir George Goring 'would have him set upon an ass, with twelve beads, his nose, ears, and tongue cut off, to be whipt at as many stages as he hath beads, to ride with the tail in his hand, at every stage to swallow a bead; and then to be whipt to the Tower, and there to be hanged.' However, they only sentenced him to be pilloried twice, to ride on horseback a certain distance, with the tail in his hand, and to be fined 1000*l*. The next day they received a message from the King, desiring them to query whether they could sentence one who was no member, nor offender against the House, nor any member of it, and whether they could sentence a denying party other than on oath. Sir Edward Coke wisheth that his tongue may cleave to the roof of his mouth that saith this House is no court of record; and he that saith this House hath no power of judicature, understands not himself.

The Lords also desired a conference, at which the Commons confessed, 'that out of their zeal they had censured Floyd, but they left him now to their Lordships, and hoped their Lordships would censure him.' The Lords adjudged him not to bear longer the arms of a gentleman, to ride with his face to the horse's tail, to stand upon the pillory with his ears nailed, to be whipt at a cart's tail, and to be fined 5000*l*., and to be imprisoned in Newgate during life!

In 1660, (November 17,) Mr. Secretary Morrice acquainted the House with a dangerous book, entitled, 'The Long Parliament Revived,' and that he had found the author, W. Drake, who had acknowledged it, and was at the door. It was referred to a committee, who resolved: 1. That the pamphlet is seditious; 2. That the House be moved to order it to be burnt by the hangman; 3. That the House be desired to appoint a committee to draw up an impeachment; and 4. That the author be kept under such re-

straint that none have access to speak to him. Sir Edward Massey looked upon Drake as 'distempered.' Sir Henry Finch said, that the burning of the book was too tame a punishment; that no man had merit enough to expiate the setting the kingdom in a flame again; and moved to agree in all with the committee. Mr. Howard said the author was a person who was writing a *Mene Tekel* upon the wall against them; and that they would not so much as rap him upon the fingers; that he ought to be severely punished by being tied up to the gallows, whilst his book was burning below it; for if he, being a friend, wrote in that manner, what would their enemies do? December 4.—The long designed impeachment against W. Drake was ordered to be carried up to the Lords by the Lord Falkland. Drake was brought to the bar of the House of Lords, and confessed his fault; and the Lords, in consideration of the shortness of time for proceeding further in this business, ordered him (December 19) to be prosecuted in the King's Bench by the Attorney-General. But he was never prosecuted.

This Drake was a loyalist, and a great sufferer for the King, probably a Presbyterian. He was not a lawyer, but a merchant, and published his pamphlet (which is given in Cobb. Par. Hist., vol. iv., Ap. No. 1.) under the fictitious name of Phillips. It is a mere technical discussion of a most knotty but very little interesting question, whether the Long Parliament, or the Convention, was the true Parliament, in 1660. The Convention was summoned by writs issued under the direction of an ordinance passed on the 16th of March 1659, by the remainder of the Long Parliament, entitled, 'A Bill for dissolving the Parliament begun and holden at Westminster, on the 3d of November 1640, and for the calling and holding a Parliament at Westminster on the 25th of April 1660.' A bill received the royal assent, 1st June 1660, declaring that the Long Parliament was fully dissolved and determined, and that the Lords and Commons now sitting in Parliament, are the two Houses of Parliament to all intents and purposes, &c. Nevertheless, such doubts were entertained, that on the 24th of May 1661, (subsequent to the impeachment of Drake,) the House of Lords thought proper to call upon the Judges to deliver their opinions upon it, and on the 6th of June they ordered the Attorney-General to prepare a third bill upon this subject, which he did accordingly. But nothing further was done. The bill was not introduced, or if introduced, certainly did not pass.

In 1689, Titus Oates applied to both Houses of Parliament for relief against the judgments and verdicts which had been obtained against him by the Duke of York. A printed paper, which had been dispersed by him, was brought into the House of Lords, acknowledged by him, and read,—namely, 'The case of Titus Oates, D. D., humbly offered to the tender consideration of the Lords and Commons.' It was voted that the paper doth contain matter tend-

ing to the breach of the privilege of this House. Six Lords protested, 1. For that the matter resolved to be a breach of the privilege of this House is not plainly and distinctly expressed in the said vote, as we humbly conceive it ought to be; nor doth it appear therein what particular privilege of this House is broken by any matter contained in the said paper, and that therefore this vote can be of no use to support any privilege of this House, or prevent the breach of any of them for the future.

In 1692, a complaint was made to the Commons of a printed pamphlet, lately published *with licence*, and said to be written by C. Blount, Esq., entitled, 'King William and Queen Mary, Conquerors,' ordered to be burnt by the hand of the common hangman, and that his Majesty be desired to remove Mr. Edward Mohun, the licenser, from his employment, for having allowed the same to be printed. It was at the same time suggested that Dr. Burnet, Bishop of Salisbury, was the inventor of the notion of their Majesties being conquerors, which he had first of all published in his 'Pastoral Letter,' three years before, or in 1689. This occasioned a debate of several hours; but at last it was carried by 162 against 155, that the said 'Pastoral Letter' should be burnt by the common hangman. There was likewise complaint made by one of the members of a book written on the same subject by Dr. William Lloyd, Bishop of St. Asaph, entitled, 'A Discourse of God's Ways of Disposing of Kingdoms;' but that motion fell. The Lords passed the same order against the first-mentioned pamphlet.

In 1695, the nation had been thoroughly disgusted by the violent and inconsistent proceedings of a Tory House of Commons. Among the most prominent of the complainers were the inhabitants of the county of Kent. The following petition, signed by the Deputy-Lieutenants, twenty Justices of Peace, all the Grand Juries, and a very considerable body of Freeholders, was presented by William Colepepper, Thomas Colepepper, David Polhill, Justinian Champney, and William Hamilton, Esquires, at the bar of the House of Commons.

'We, the gentlemen, Justices of the Peace, Grand Jury, and other Freeholders, of the General Quarter-Sessions of the Peace, at Maidstone, in Kent, deeply concerned at the dangerous state of this kingdom, and of all Europe; and considering, that the fate of us and of our posterity depends upon the wisdom of our representatives in Parliament, think ourselves bound in duty humbly to lay before this honourable House the consequences, in this conjuncture, of your speedy resolution, and most sincere endeavour, to answer the great trust reposed in you by your country.

'And, in regard that from the experience of all ages, it is manifest no nation can be great or happy without union, we hope that no pretence whatsoever shall be able to create a misunderstanding between ourselves, or the least distrust of his most sacred Majesty,

whose great actions for this nation are within the hearts of his subjects, and can never, without the blackest ingratitude, be forgot.

'We most humbly implore this honourable House to have regard to the voice of the people, that our religion and safety may be effectually provided for; that your loyal addresses may be turned into bills of supply; and that his most sacred Majesty (whose propitious and unblemished reign over us we pray God to continue) may be enabled powerfully to assist his allies before it is too late.'

After this petition was read, the gentlemen who presented it were called in, and having declared that they owned the petition, and had signed it, they were ordered to withdraw, when the House resolved, 'That the petition was scandalous, insolent, and seditious; tending to destroy the constitution of Parliaments, and to subvert the established government of these realms.' They then ordered 'That all these gentlemen be taken into custody, as guilty of promoting the petition.'

The imprisonment of the Kentish petitioners did but inflame those people, who were before displeased with the proceedings of the Commons, and gave occasion to a piece, supposed to be drawn by Daniel de Foe, entitled, 'A Memorial from the Gentlemen Freeholders and Inhabitants of the Counties of ——— in behalf of themselves, and many thousands of the good people of England,' and signed 'Legion.' This was sent to the Speaker, with a letter, charging and commanding him, in the name of 200,000 Englishmen, to deliver it to the House of Commons. The memorial began with a preamble upon this maxim, 'That whatever power is above law, is burthensome and tyrannical, and may be reduced by extra-judicial methods.' Then it charged the House with illegal and unwarrantable practices, in fifteen particulars, of which the three first were as follow:

1. 'To raise funds for money, and declare, by borrowing clauses, that whosoever advances money on those funds shall be reimbursed out of the next aids, if the funds shall fall short; and then give subsequent funds, without transferring the deficiency of the former; s a horrible cheat on the subjects who lent the money, a breach of public faith, and destructive to the honour and credit of Parliaments.

2. 'To imprison men who are not of your own members, by no proceedings but a vote of your own House, and to continue them in custody, *sine die*, is illegal, a notorious breach of the liberty of the people, setting up a dispensing power in the House of Commons, which your fathers never pretended to; bidding defiance to the Habeas Corpus Act, which is the bulwark of personal liberty; destructive of the laws; and betraying the trust reposed in you; the king being at the same time obliged to ask you leave to continue in custody the horrid assassins of his person.

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3. 'Committing to custody those gentlemen, who at the command of the people, (whose servants you are,) came in a peaceable way to put you in mind of your duty, is illegal and injurious; destructive of the subjects' liberty of petitioning for redress of grievances, which has, by all Parliaments before you, been acknowledged to be their undoubted right.'

After enumerating twelve other particulars, the memorial proceeds to a claim of right under seven heads, of which the three former run thus:

'We do hereby claim and declare,—1. That it is the undoubted right of the people of England, in case of their representatives in Parliament do not proceed according to their duty and the people's interest, to inform them of their dislike, disown their actions, and to direct them to such things as they think fit, either by petition, address, proposal, memorial, or any other peaceable way.

'2. That the House of Commons have no legal power to imprison any person, or commit him to custody of serjeants or otherwise, (their own members excepted,) but ought to address the King, because any person, on good ground to be apprehended, ought to have the benefit of the Habeas Corpus Act, and be fairly brought to a trial by due course of law.'

After other claims, it concludes:

'Thus, gentlemen, you have your duty laid before you, which it is hoped you will think of: but if you continue to neglect it, you may expect to be treated according to the resentment of an injured nation; for Englishmen are no more to be slaves to Parliaments than to Kings. Our name is Legion, and we are many.'

The Commons were extremely incensed at this memorial, but could not descend to a particular censure of it. It was thought sufficient that a complaint was made to the House, of endeavours to raise tumults and seditions, in order to disturb the public affairs; and a committee was appointed to draw up an address, to be presented to his Majesty, humbly to lay before him the endeavours of several ill-disposed persons to raise tumults and seditions in the kingdom; and humbly beseech him that he would provide for the public peace and security.

But the Kentish gentlemen, who lay in prison till the prorogation of the Parliament, were much visited, and treated as confessors. Being discharged, of course, at the end of the session, they were splendidly entertained at Mercers' Hall, at the charge of the citizens, being accompanied by several of the nobility and gentlemen of the first rank. They were likewise very honourably received upon their return to their own country.

EULOGY OF SILENCE.

THE finest meed of praise we ever pay
To any thing we very much admire,
Is when we have not a syllable to say,
But stand as if we dreaded to respire,
Still as the image of Prometheus lay
Ere he had fill'd his reed with pilfer'd fire—
For which, until he should have learn'd to do better,
He was *gridironed* on Caucasus by Jupiter.

There is a silence far more eloquent
Than even the nectarous praise of Cicero,
When the deep feelings in the bosom pent
There like volcanic minerals melt and glow,³
Yet seek not at the lip to find a vent,
But burn in silence on; nor overflow
At last, unless perchance a tear or sigh
Ease the full heart, or dew the raptured eye.

Exempli gratia:—On some amber eve
When the blue paradise of summer hills
Half melts into the skies which o'er it weave
Their 'brede ethereal,'* while around distils
That sort of light which somehow makes one heave
A sigh too sweet to breathe of human ills;
If you might feel at all inclined to chatter—
My frogs you do not understand the matter.

Or as still moonlight when the woods are dark
When shadows mellowed like remember'd woe,
And sprinkling moonbeams fall on leaf and bark,
Or through the thinner tree-ranks broadlier flow—
Dost thou not love, at such an hour, to mark
The shade's clear glimmer, and the light's chaste glow,
And, if thou dost, feels not thy spirit there
Contagious silence in the dreary air?

When some fine touch has waked the keys or chords,
And drawn forth all their rich melodious soul,
While the clear voice ran through the accordant words,
Till from the heart the tear spontaneous stole—
(Such melody the minster-aisle affords,
When the proud thunders of its organ roll
Full on the sacred air's prophetic pause)—
Say was not silence then the best applause?

Or when before a rich Italian picture,
(Some pale Madonna, o'er whose gloried brow,
Thought sits enthroned on Beauty) 't would afflict your
Heart—'t would *mine* at least—to hear the *row*
Of learned tongues delivering praise or stricture.
(To which the best of answers is Bow-wow.)
While you yourself feel that a word would wrong
Thoughts which should never speak, except in song.

* Collins.

Beneath the purple silentness of night,
Poets have dream'd of spherul music pealing
Among the stars, and, on their solemn light
Gazing, have heard its faint vibrations stealing
Along the winds of time:—the mind is bright
(I know not how) with its most glorious feelings,
Beneath the golden darkness of the hour,
When the stars walk in day's deserted bower.

Sophocles says, in *Antigone*,
'Silence' is ornamental to a woman:—
Now, though he was not quite so great a scoffer as
His rival, the Bright Sex's scenic foreman,
Yet had he no melodious truth to offer us
Gentler than that aforesaid, I fear no man—
At least no lady—would his claims allow
To twine his white locks with the Delphic bough.

Not but I think said lady's heart might beat
Some blissful pulses in its mutest mood,
When, at his side for whom she lives,
By moonlight thread the dear familiar wood,
Where first they met, and where their heart now great,
Though mute their lips, in happy solitude:—
For aught superior to a young pure love,
Look not on earth, 't is only found above!

But words float o'er me now, as I intangle
From a wild rainbow tale of bliss and tears—
'How † silver-sweet sound lover's tones, as by night,
Like softest music to attending ears!—
Now English people hold their Shakspeare right,
Be wrong who may;—by which test it appears
My train of proof is somewhat out of joint,
Since case the last is little to the point.

In fact, I wonder how I thought it was—
But, if I can't be right, I won't be wrong:—
Poets and popes are quite above all laws,
Infallible alike in bull or song:
Since then, according to the aforesaid clause,
The eye is incomplete without the tongue,
I yield—but be it at the same time known,
That lovers love all silence but their own.

Quod erat demonstrandum, now is made
As clear as Phœbus and myself can do it,—
That that strange thing, the heart, is often swayed
(Perhaps Demosthenes and Tully knew it)
More when we speak not, than when most is said—
Aye, even by those who know all pathways to it:—
So, should these stanzas get a hundred mile hence,
I may be crown'd the Laureat of Silence.

Crediton.

Ind 66.
to 292. L. 293. Edit. Brunck. † Romeo and Juliet.

JOURNEY ACROSS THE PENINSULA OF INDIA, FROM MADRAS TO

BOMBAY.

No. IV.

Primitive Forests of Mysore—Indian Gypsies—Wild Elephants—
Bamboo Jungles—Monkies—Eastern Customs.

AT day-break, on the morning of the 10th of March, we left Pe-riapatam, and in the course of a couple of hours after starting; we began to enter the vast primitive forests with which the western districts of the Mysore country are lined. They are composed chiefly of bamboo, but poon, and other forest trees of gigantic size, are interspersed. Many of these are clothed in the most beautiful foliage; and in one particular, the silk cotton-tree we remarked loaded with clusters of bright scarlet flowers. The clumps of bamboos are in some parts so thickly interwoven, that it would be impossible to pass between them, while the wild elephants which here abound have forced their passage through other parts, marking their progress by the trees which they have thrown down, and by the long vistas, resembling gothic aisles, in the tract which their huge bodies have left.

After penetrating three or four miles, we arrived at a barrier, where a few sepoy are stationed by the Courg Rajah, to examine and pass goods passing to and from his country, the boundary of which was marked by a stone that we passed, a few miles before we entered the woods. Here there was a small resting-house where we made a halt. It was merely a raised mud floor, with mud walls breast high around it, covered by an overhanging thatched roof, supported on posts. An immensely strong bamboo gate and stockade crossed the road, and a little further on there was a thatched house, like a weighbridge, under which all passengers were forced to pass, and pay the required toll to custom-officers placed there. The road itself was lined on either side with an impenetrable jungle, and this, with the enclosures mentioned, gave the spot a wildness not easily imagined. It seemed like some great trap for elephants, or what it really was, a post of protection against the incursions of these giants of the forest.

Two kinds of soldiers composed the guard here. Those who, imitating our sepoy, were armed with a musket, and wore red jackets and short linen breeches, reaching half way down the thigh; and those who were dressed in the costume of the country, a long muslin dress, and armed with a large heavy knife and matchlock. The latter were very handsome warlike men, and added much to the picturesque appearance of the scenery.

Whilst I was admiring all around me, a drove of about 400 bullocks, laden with rice, threaded the pass. Their drivers were of

a very singular race, called Lumbadies, who are to be met with in all parts of India. The dress of the females consisted of a long boddice of party-coloured cotton, looking like tapestry, which exactly fitted the shape, while from the waist downwards hung a thick woollen petticoat, and over their heads was thrown a coarse white sheet, which reached to the heels. Their sleeves were short, and their arms were covered even above the elbow with rings made of brass, and of the horn of the elk. A number of brass rings were also seen on their legs and ancles; and these, together with the boddice, looked, at a short distance, not unlike some strange kind of armour. Their hair was plaited into several distinct lengths, each tipped with woollen knots like those in the fringe of a carriage. Their general aspect was peculiarly wild and Amazonian, and corresponded with the description I received of their character. The men, like most of the poorer castes of Hindoos, wore cotton drawers, and a coarse cloth over their shoulders.

These people are a wandering tribe, who much resemble in their appearance and mode of life the gypsies of Europe. They are looked on with the same sort of dread and wonder by the Natives, so that an European could scarcely pass one, without his being made an object of remark by his servants. They have no fixed habitations; nor do they use tents, but being employed to convey supplies of grain to armies and for general purposes of transport, they light their fires, and repose on the ground, wherever they may happen to halt. Their utility as carriers is so universally felt, that I have heard it affirmed by Natives, that their persons are esteemed sacred, and that they are permitted to pass between contending armies without being molested by either party. They are much addicted to stealing, like their brethren in Europe, and frequently rob and murder unwary travellers. Their language is peculiar, and is said to be a mixture of Hindoostanee with the Mahratta. From these people we learned that about six miles further, on the way by which we were about to pass, a wild elephant had seized on one of their bullocks, which it had trampled to death, carrying off its load.

We set out again about eleven o'clock, along the most romantic and wild road in the world. Which ever way the eye turned, it was arrested by immense clumps of bamboos, shooting out in all directions to more than 100 feet in height, some of these so close as to be quite impervious, and others falling together in gothic arches, amphitheatres, and arbours, and preserving a gloomy shade beneath. In some places they were hurled down and lying prostrate like trodden corn; in several others the road was almost blocked up by great trees pushed down by the elephants, and numberless were those which were stripped of their bark to the very summits, by these stupendous brutes.

Some conception may be formed of the height to which these forest trees grow, when it is mentioned that one of our people

pointed out one, over which he related with *wonder*, that a man had thrown a stone, though this was by no means so high as many which we saw. It stood alone, however, and being leafless, we could measure its height by the eye, and this we estimated at 160 feet.

The sublimity of the picture before us was much heightened by our sense of danger; for, as the elephants roam about in all directions, and in considerable numbers, and as the intelligence we had received from the Lumbadies, led us to believe them in our neighbourhood, we were in constant fear of being surprised, and advanced with proportional suspicion and caution.

Two or three spots were pointed out where travellers had fallen victims to their rage. We had sufficient proofs in the devastation around us, that these were not mere idle stories. Nor was this all, for on coming to a turn in the road, whence we could see our way onward for some distance, five wild elephants were perceived crossing the path. My cavalry men, who happened to be in front, were the first to see them, and, impelled by a kind of instinct, threw down their boxes, and climbed up some small trees. This, however, was said to be by no means a safe mode of escape, as no trees but of the largest sort, would be strong enough to resist their force. The best expedient in such cases is to penetrate the forest, if possible, between trees where the size of the elephant prevents him from following. My guards and myself, on coming up, perceived the coolies perched aloft, and on ascertaining the cause, pushed on to get a shot at our enemies; but we were unable to come near them, and they soon wandered out of sight. The crash which they made, in passing along, was still, however, audible for a considerable distance. The indisposition which they showed to attack our party, was attributed to their being in a herd. A single elephant is said to be much more dangerous.

In the course of a quarter of an hour, we met three men running towards us in breathless terror, who stated, that they had just left an elephant in possession of a turn of the road, which we were about to pass; however, although we advanced very slowly, we saw nothing of him. Our march now proceeded without interruption, and we were gratified by the frequent view of wild peacocks and jungle-cocks, and a beautiful species of fowl of a slate colour, and otherwise not unlike our domestic breed. We arrived about four o'clock at a small wild village in the midst of the woods, where I put up for the night, in a roofed shed, like that described at the barrier I had passed in the morning.

From the abundance of bamboo jungle which I had passed in the day, I was enabled to verify a curious observation attending the growth of the bamboo, and adding another to the innumerable proofs of the wonderful provisions and resources of nature.

The different reeds of a clump of bamboos, with their lateral branches and subdivisions of branches, are so closely matted together,

in many instances absolutely touching, that on first view it seems inexplicable how any one of them should have grown up among the rest; but, on examination, it is found that every reed grows to its full length, which may be a hundred feet, before it throws out a single lateral branch, and as it shoots up with a pointed conical end, it insinuates itself without difficulty among its grown brethren. As soon as it has ceased to grow longer, lateral shoots sprout out single and pointed, attain their full length, and in their turn send forth shoots which obey the same law. The rapidity of growth in this case is also very remarkable, and must be almost visible to the naked eye. A stump of three or four inches diameter will increase in length eighteen inches in as many hours, and it is a punishment, well known in Ceylon, to impale a criminal on a bamboo thus growing, which speedily makes its way through the body.

A messenger was dispatched this evening to Virajapetta, a large village or town a few miles further on, to announce to the people our approach.

On the following morning, (March 11,) I rose early, and as I had been told the night before that the peacocks and jungle-fowl were out feeding at the dawn of day, I went out with one of my guards, a posse of whom, I should before have mentioned, accompanied me from the first barrier in the Courg territories, to try and get a shot at them; a heavy fog, however, common in these dark woods, had fallen, and interfered with our sport.

On returning to the village, I found twelve or thirteen coolies, or porters, sent by order of the Rajah to assist in carrying my baggage, together with a few musketeers, so that we formed a very strong party, to make a second march through the woods. We started after breakfast, and continued traversing the same sort of forests, as on the preceding day, for about six miles, after which the bamboo began to be less prevalent, its place being supplied by other large trees. Among these, monkeys, both of the black and tawny kind, were skipping; and various birds were seen, more especially of the dove kind. On passing up a hill, and coming to an open glade, I perceived two red deer feeding below, at the distance of 150 yards. They would not allow me to approach nearer than 100 yards, at which distance, I need scarcely say, my fire was ineffectual.

On returning to my palanquin by another path, through some long grass, we heard peacocks calling on all sides, but could not succeed in putting them up. Having the gun in my hand, I now walked for a considerable distance before my palanquin, enjoying the beauty of the scenery, and looking for some object to fire at, when coming to an opening in the wood, I suddenly perceived an elephant advancing towards me. For the instant I was startled; but on a nearer view it proved to be not a wild one, indeed, but sent, together with twelve palanquin bearers, from Virajapetta to carry me thither in due state.

Although the sun was still powerful, yet I could not resist the temptation of trying my new conveyance. The elephant was therefore commanded to kneel down, and by the help of his tail, which one man held up to form a step, I succeeded in mounting. Another command being given, he rose, and I was lifted into the air to a height, at which I certainly never before travelled. Upon his back was placed a pad stuffed with cotton, and covered with blue cloth. It was fastened on by ropes under his tail and belly; while over his forehead hung an embroidered cloth as an ornament, and to his sides were suspended bells, which rang as he passed along. His motion was not unpleasant, but his width stretched the legs to a painful degree. The driver sat on his neck, his legs hanging down, and resting in stirrups behind his ears. This person held a goad in his hand, with a hook, as well as a point, made entirely of iron, and about eighteen inches long. It had a knob at the handle, with which the animal was struck for small offences, while for more marked disobedience, such as seizing the boughs of trees by the side of the road, he was punctured, either with the point of the goad only, or a drawing motion of the arm with the hook. As the elephant found himself incommoded by the heat, he occasionally put his trunk into his mouth, where he had some means of secreting water, and this he disgorged into it, and then squirted over his body, thus keeping the surface of his skin moist and cool by evaporation, though in a manner not very agreeable to his riders.

The road we travelled was particularly hilly and rugged, sometimes passing over loose rocks, and every where full of deep ruts; yet the animal never made a false step, nor did he jolt us in descending the most precipitous steep. His tread was so soft that it could not be heard; and on one or two occasions, where the stones were perpendicular for two or three feet, he let his foot down so gently, that he did not in the least shake his riders, but only inconvenience them from the sloping position of his back. I sat about midway between his neck and tail, my feet being in stirrups, which hung across the pad. There were holders both before and behind, but these were unnecessary in sitting across.

The road along which we now passed became more varied in its beauties, though less wild and extraordinary. The hills were covered with the most luxuriant trees of all varieties and shades, and the valleys were cleared of jungle, and cultivated with rice-fields. Sheds were erected at certain distances in these fields, where persons were stationed to prevent the depredations of wild elephants, and the cottages of the cultivators themselves hung in the woods above. At length, after ascending a rather steep wooded mountain, and passing through a rustic bamboo-gate, we descended into a retired glen, occupied by a village surrounded by fields and groves, and

overlooked by a neat Roman Catholic Church,* which rose from a neighbouring eminence. Such was the picturesque situation of Virajapetta.

We passed through the principal street, and after ascending the opposite hill, arrived at the bungalow, a large mud hut, with a low pent roof of thatch, and several divisions of mud walls inside. The windows were not higher than ships' port-holes, which, from the little light they admit, keep the rooms cooler than those of larger dimensions. A good-sized old table, a chair, and mat, formed its furniture; and even this was more than the Mysore bungaloes possessed, as they are entirely without moveables.

Almost immediately on my arrival, the great men of the place, about twenty in number, came to pay me their respects; of these, three seemed of more consideration than the rest, and were head military officers, called subidars. They were dressed in long clothes, and wore daggers at their girdles. They brought me, as a present, a dish of fruit, consisting of oranges, pine apples, citrons, and green peas; for it is the custom in India never to pay a visit to a superior, without offering something, however small, as a gift. On conversing with them, I found that the British Resident's messenger had arrived at the capital, Madakery, and, consequently, that the Rajah was apprised of my approach. This place they stated to be not more than fifteen miles off, and begged to know at what time I would have the elephants ready in the morning to proceed thither. After the usual civilities on both sides, I gave them permission to retire. It may seem strange that visitors should thus need a dismissal, but such is the custom of the East. No man paying a visit to his superior presumes to quit his presence, until he has leave to do so; and, on the other hand, it is no want of politeness to tell a visitor that he may depart. It might, however, be done in a more delicate way, by sprinkling a little rose-water over him; a hint which is understood and taken. This custom is, at first, awkward to Europeans; ludicrous mistakes are sometimes made in consequence; and a man may be bored for half a forenoon with a visitor, whom he might have got rid of in ten minutes, and who has been anxiously waiting for leave to depart.

In the afternoon I strolled out in the vicinity of the village, which was surrounded by beautiful walks, shaded by the foliage of a hundred nameless shrubs, and echoing with the voices of a hundred rare birds.

* On inquiry I found that there were many Christians in Virajapetta, and that a Native officiated in the church, as they had no European priest.

CLASSICAL ANTIQUITIES IN FRANCE.

THE last Volume of the 'Journal of the Transactions of the Royal Society of Antiquities of France,' notices the discovery, near Thionville, in a field within the territory of the ancient *Ricciacum*, of an interesting relic of antiquity, described as a small bifrontal statue, 108 millimetres high, the one side presenting the face, bearded, of a man in years, and the other that of a woman, yet in her youth. A pair of wings springing from the upper part of the ears, and spreading in an horizontal direction, is affixed to this double head. The head gear, with which the wings appear united, presents, in the male, a Phrygian cap, reaching down to his shoulders, and in the female, a sort of hood, enveloping the head, and a part of the neck, leaving the face only somewhat uncovered. The trunk of both figures is clad in a close tunic, descending from the neck to the feet. The left arm of the male figure is bent, and the hand holds, resting against his side, a sort of disk, which might also be taken for a loaf; the other hand is pendant, and holds a similar article, which it passes to the left hand of the woman, who receives it. The forced attitude of the right arm of the woman, which she appears to slide under the bent arm of the man, seems to indicate that she is endeavouring to reach the other disc also. This pretty statue is of bronze. It is supported by a species of bronze vase, 36 millimetres high, and 72 in diameter, to which it is attached by a screw bolt, a circumstance which might give rise to a suspicion that the pedestal is not so ancient as the figure. Some persons, considering it a representation of Janus, see, in the character of this little statue, the emblem of the old and new year. M. Tersier, who presented it to the Society, only regards it as one of those household deities, under whose protection the ancients placed domiciles, and to whom they paid a peculiar worship.

EPITAPH ON A LIAR.

HERE lying Major Longbow lies
For once—against his will;
He would not lie, if he could rise,
And so—he here lies still.

W. B.

POLITICAL COMMOTIONS IN CHINA.

The 'Malacca Observer' has generally distinguished itself for the information it contains on Chinese subjects, of which so little is known, that the little that is published, however unimportant in itself or in its consequences, cannot be read without interest. The Editor appears to be supplied from Canton with the Chinese news he lays before his readers, and his Canton correspondent appears to derive his information from Gazettes published at Peking.

Canton, December 6, 1826.—The regular Peking Gazettes now received are of an older date than the extracts which have previously come to hand. They contain papers concerning the affair in Tartary; appointments, supplies, &c., sufficient to show the degree of interest which the Tartar revolt excites at court.

Reports at the Tseang-keun's office to-day are, that the leading general, Yang-yu-chun, had reported himself sick, and begged to be relieved; that his deputy had done the same; and that Tih-ling-gih, subsequently appointed, had, on his own authority, sent to the rebels a soothing document for them to adopt, as the Hong merchants of Canton do, when they are unable to carry matters their own way with foreigners.

Whether the rebels will adopt Tih-ling-gih's document or not,—and, if they do, whether his Imperial Majesty will sanction it or not,—are all, as yet, things of futurity, which cannot previously be known. But this much is certain, that Tih-ling-gih despairs of reducing the Tartar tribes by force; and, therefore, he offers them terms of peace, and mutual accommodation, without the knowledge and consent of his Imperial Majesty.

There is a long document, containing some of the details of a battle between the Chinese of Canton and those of Fokien province, which made it necessary to call in military aid to quell the disturbance; not, however, till several lives were lost. To that, as to most other memorials, the Emperor replies laconically, '*Che taqu leaou*, 'Known it is,' i. e. 'I am informed.'

There are rumours, on which, however, no confidence can be placed, that the brothers of his Imperial Majesty are putting in a claim for a portion of the empire.

Canton, December 11, 1826.—The regular Peking Gazettes, up to September the 25th, and extracts from later ones, up to November 1st, have been received. They are filled with papers concerning the military operations in Tartary, appointments, marching of troops, commissariat department, providing horses, punishments for neglect or delay, and such like details, which are not of immediate importance.

One paper contains an imperial order to restrain the military from robbing or distressing the people on the line of march; requiring that the soldiers who do so be punished according to martial law, and the officers who suffer it be reported to the supreme government.

An Yu-she (or censor) has ventured to write against the new law proposed by the board of revenue. He sent in his paper on the same day as the board did theirs, of which circumstance the Emperor avails himself to reprimand him, and deliver him over to a court of inquiry,—for he had no business to know any thing concerning the project till the Emperor had published his opinion.

His Majesty defends this, or some similar measure, on the grounds of ancient usage in time of war, and the reasonableness of raising fresh supplies for extraordinary exigencies, instead of appropriating the regular internal income of the government to the present external military operations. Grain is abundant in Tartary, he says, but the transport occasions a very heavy expense.

Several of the officers on Formosa, who permitted the burning of villages, and other acts of violence, by the insurgents, are punished by dismissal from the service, and others are delivered over for trial to the board at Peking.

At Canton, there is a military man in high favour with the governor as a vigilant thief-catcher. He is authorised to search the creeks and rivers of eight Heen districts; and, it is said, his people will ensure smuggling to any extent. By the daily paper of Saturday, it appears he brought twenty banditti under arrest to Canton.

Ying-ho, the minister who was praised by his Majesty for resuming the practice of sending grain to the capital by sea from the southward, has written a letter of thanks, and referring the honour to his Majesty. In his letter he says the practice had been discontinued two hundred years. The Ming dynasty abandoned it on account of the Japanese pirates.

There are from sixteen to twenty junks go from Canton to Teen-tsin, about one day's journey from Peking, carrying dried fruits, sugar, glass-ware, camlets and woollens in small quantities, opium, &c. They sail about the beginning of the fifth moon, and return in the eleventh, with ripe fruits, sheep and deer's horns, skins, &c. Each junk invests between 20,000 and 30,000 dollars.

The latest rumours from Peking, by King's messengers, (the messenger deputed from Canton goes all the way to Peking, and returns, like our King's messengers in Europe; but latterly, in consequence of a messenger dying on the road, a deputy accompanies him,) state, that Chang-ling, the commander-in-chief, has offered terms of accommodation to the rebels, desiring to put an end

to military operations; and, it is added, the rebels have a similar wish.

Canton, December 15, 1826.—A manuscript document has been received, which describes the origin, and the seat of the Tartar rebellion, more distinctly than any former statement that has come to hand.

The region is thus described: From the Kiayu-kwan (or pass of D'Anville) to Hami, is 1470 Chinese le. There one road conducts to the north of the Teen-shan or Alak Mountains, to Woolo-muhtse (Oromousi), and Ele (or Ili). Another road leads to the south of the Teen-shan Mountains, where are the cities called Hales-hala (Harasjar), Okilisoo (Aksa or Ascon), Yeurhkeang (Yarcand), Yingkeihshaurh (below Cashgar), Kihshih-kourh (Cashgar), Hoten (Hoten or Koter), and Wooshih, which are called the eight Mohammedan cities.

In Thompson's Atlas, in the Map of Tartary, this region is well delineated, and most of these towns inserted. It lies to the eastward of the ancient Imaus, or the Belur Mountains, to the northward of the snowy mountains of Thibet, and the southward of the mountains called Altai, Alak, Mogulistan, and Musart. Beyond Hami, to the westward, there is a pass at Tooloofan (Turfan); and the region included between those mountains mentioned above form a plain, or steppe, in which the eight Mohammedan cities are included; it is the Scythia extra Imaum of the ancients, and the Little Bucharía of modern geography.

In 1789, Keen-lung, in consequence of one of the imperial family having rebelled in those parts, subjugated that region, and established Ele as the seat of government.

Previously to that time, Hocho-muhtih, the head of the eight cities, their khan or chief, was enticed to Ele, and detained there many years, probably till his death. He left behind him two sons, who were born at Ele during his captivity. Keen-lung liberated them from confinement, and restored them to the eight cities, under his own authority. They, however, rebelled as soon as they could, and murdered the Chinese Resident. They were overcome by Keen-lung's troops, fled, and perished in the mountains. The Mohammedans delivered up their dead bodies; and the whole territory of the eight cities (Little Bucharía) was annexed to the Ta-tsing empire, and considered an integral part of China.

But the region is extensive, and troops kept there but few. At Cashgar there is a Resident, and about a thousand troops; this city is considered the chief city of the eight. The other cities have each a Resident; and a few hundred troops.

Heretofore, most of the officers there have been sent thither for their crimes committed in China; and they have treated the Musulmen with contempt and insult, with extortion and oppression.

They have commanded Musulmen women, of handsome appearance, to enter their offices, and serve as menials, and have not allowed them to return at the end of the month. On these accounts, discontent arose among the Musulmen, and they longed for their old masters. They have a great affection for the memory of the two brothers who were slain, and call them, as expressive of their regard, the big and little Hochomuh-tang.

The elder brother, Poolatun, left a son, who rebelled in the fortieth year of Keen-lung, and this son's grandson is the present rebel Chang-kih-urh. He excels in attaching men's hearts to himself, and is called a Shing-jin,—a sage, holy man, or prophet among the people. Mahomet has no higher title than Shing-jin. Confucius is the Shing-jin of China.

To the northward of Cashgar, there is a Tartar tribe called Pooloo-tih, who had also submitted to China. Last year, when the Chinese authorities were endeavouring to seize Chang-kih-urh, they pursued him to the borders of the Pooloo-tih; and the officers of his Imperial Majesty, unable to catch Chang-kih-urh, seized a Pooloo-tih (or Pruth) and put him to death, as if he were Chang-kih-urh, in order 'to stop the mouth of reproof' from his Imperial Majesty. This roused the Pooloo-tih to take part with Chang-kih-urh. The death, or murder, of a Chinese officer, last winter, arose from this cause. The Resident at Cashgar, in the beginning of this year, seized Chang-kih-urh's son, and put him to death. Chang (to abbreviate his name) got together a few hundreds of the Pruths, and attacked Cashgar, but was repulsed. The Resident, King-tseang, received a wound in his face, and therefore directed two other officers who had come from Ele to pursue Chang. They followed him to the distance of a hundred le, when he entered a large mosque. The Chinese soldiers surrounded it till the middle of the night, when, under cover of a shower of arrows and spears from within, Chang once more made his escape. The two officers attempted to pursue, but knew not whither Chang had gone. The Musulmen, now worked up to a high pitch of feeling, cried out, 'Our Hocho is in distress; it is incumbent on us to rescue him; and they 'gathered thick as stormy clouds,' with a force which the Resident was quite unable to resist. He ordered 250 men from Ying-keih-sha-urh, which is 140 le to the south of Cashgar, to come to his assistance; but they, and their commanding officer, were annihilated on the road. The letters written by the several Residents to the Emperor, speak in the most despairing terms. One says, 'If they (Musulmen) attack this city, we will defend till death, and fall with the falling town; and by death in our country's cause, express our gratitude to it.' Another says, 'This orphan city has neither troops nor provisions; it is impossible to defend it. I can only collect our slaughtered men, and shut the gates.'

These are the accounts which arrived in Peking on the 15th of the seventh moon.

Ten thousand men have been sent from Ele, but it is apprehended they will be too late. Since the 16th of the 7th moon, no couriers have arrived from Cashgar; and whether it has fallen or not is uncertain. From that region no mails have arrived. Reports, both in and out of Peking, are very numerous, but nothing certain.

On the 21st of the 7th moon, a letter arrived from Ele, saying that two of the principal military officers had been killed, and that Cashgar must fall. The names of these officers were Woo-yun-paou and Mo-kih-tung-poo.

On this occasion the *ninth-recess** resolved to make the minister, Chang-lung, commander-in-chief, for the suppression of the rebels; the governor Yang-yu-chun, and the deputy-governor Woo-lung-ho, members of his council, and generals of divisions on the left and right to support him. Chang-lung is said, by the copyist, (which must be a mistake,) to require four hundred times ten thousand troops from the interior of China, and scores of hundreds of ten thousands of taels of silver to suppress the rebellion. Yang-yu-chun took with him 5500 men, and Woo-lung-ho took with him the same number. Thus ends the document, which has been almost literally translated above.

Little Bucharía, the seat of the revolt, extends from east to west more than 1000 miles British, and from south to north upwards of 500 English miles. The population is thin. In D'Anville's time, it was not reckoned more than one million. If, therefore, Taou-kwang, his Imperial Majesty of China, will grant these people independence, it is likely the affair will be accommodated; but if he will not allow a dismemberment of his grand-father's and his father's empire, he is likely to waste the resources of China Proper, and afford an opportunity for the disaffected at home to rise up against him.

That China should extend or maintain her narrow unsociable principle in Central Asia, is not to be wished by any friend of mankind. That the friendly traveller, the agent of commerce, of science, or of truth, should not be stopped by threats of death on the frontier of Thibet and of Bucharía, uttered by Chinese 'gendarmes,' is certainly much to be wished for, however the present struggle by the 'little' Bucharíans, to rid themselves of their oppressors, may terminate.

Accounts from Peking, much later than the preceding, evince a determination on the part of the Emperor, to reduce the Bucharíans to submission. The Gazettes, up to the 10th moon, all show the

* A phrase for the Emperor, who dwells in the ninth back-court from the palace.

same feeling. But the excesses of the soldiery in pillaging, plundering, and ravishing, are matters of concern; and papers are issued against those who thus offend. The horses and carriages necessary for transport afford an occasion for extortion, which his Majesty desires may be prevented by proper arrangements being previously made.

From Peking a supply of powder, balls, and ('fire-strings,') matches, were ordered; but it has been found that they were so much injured on their way from thence to Kansuh, where the troops were collected, that it is found better to manufacture them on the spot, and desist from transporting them from Peking. Wherever they happened to be, at the time of this order, there they were to be stopped, and expended by the military at their reviews.

Canton, December 16, 1826.—His Majesty has ordered a bounty of four taels to each soldier who proceeds onward to Tartary, and also certain sums to the officers. Legacies are also given to the families of the men and officers who fall in battle. The following quantity of ammunition is ordered for 2000 men: powder, 13,000 catties; powder for the pan, 750 catties; balls, 11,250 catties; and matches, 12,000 strings. In a late engagement with the rebels, his Majesty's forces expended all their ammunition, and the commanding officer lost his life when leading on the troops to the charge.

At the end of Hog-lane (Canton) there is pasted up a manuscript proclamation, to which is appended a long list of robberies during the last two or three years in this neighbourhood, the perpetrators of which have not been discovered. A reward is offered of from five to thirty taels on conviction, according to the heinousness of the crime. Those who inform against a criminal who shall be condemned to death by decapitation, shall receive thirty taels; and against one who is to be transported, will be rewarded by five taels. There is likewise a proclamation directed against the Native trading and coasting boats, which, by various contrivances, are said to defraud the revenue.

A native of Fun-keen province has carried his complaint before his Imperial Majesty, in consequence of repeated assaults from banditti, in which four of his kindred were killed. He made numerous applications to the local government, without receiving any satisfaction whatever. The poor man is represented as utterly unintelligible to the court of Peking, as he spoke no dialect but that of his native village. According to his statement, when interpreted, the conduct of banditti was most daring and insulting to the local government, the police of which they set at defiance.

Duke Ho, of Lord Amherst's embassy, has rarely appeared in the Peking Gazettes. His name occurs in the latest, as the writer of a memorial to the Emperor concerning horses in Tartary. He

complains against the officers who have the care of government horses, for having neglected them during the last year. It would appear that his appointment is that of a sort of upper grazier in Tartary.

On the road out to Ele, by Hami and Oromouisi, there are thirty-eight military posts, with relays of horses. At present they are found insufficient in number, and it is requested of the Emperor to make an addition both to the number of men and horses at each station.

The rebel leader in Tartary, whose name is Chang-Kih-Urh, is a descendant of a Manchow Tartar, to whose ancestor Ele belonged. He has succeeded, in a great degree, in winning the hearts of the Mohammedans. According to some statements, he stands related to the imperial kindred; and hence the cruel policy of putting to death his son.

A case of matricide has occurred among the Tartar Chinese military, which, for a moment, has changed the uniform warlike feature of the Peking Gazettes: a drunken profligate soldier beat his mother to death; he is given over to the privileged tribe to which he belonged, to be punished as they may direct.

His Majesty has ordered thanks to be given at the temples of wind-gods and water-gods and goddesses, who protected his fleet of rice-boats along the coast from Keang-Nan to Teen-tsin; and for those temples that have not tablets he has ordered a supply, as a mark of his imperial patronage to their godships. Whether this be the result of sincere drivelling, or of cunning mockery, the fact is equally humiliating. They say to the work of their own hands, 'Ye are our gods'!

By the latest accounts of the Tartar affair it appears that the rebels are carrying every thing before them. A document just received, dated Canton, January 2d, informs us that Ele, Keu-Chang, and Cashgar, have been lost; that the high-officer King-Tseang has been killed, and the imperial army annihilated. The rebels are said to be very numerous, amounting to tens of tens of thousands. The following royal mandate, which refers to this affair, shows the gracious disposition of his Majesty towards his faithful servants, and how liberally he rewards the merits of those who die in the defence of the country.

Imperial Edict.—King-Tseang, commandant in Ele, was twice sent to Cashgar to examine into the rebellious conduct of Chang-Kih-Urh. He managed the affair so unskillfully that he was unable to penetrate to the bottom of it, and consequently to transmit to us a correct statement. We have thought upon his daily conduct in Ele, which has hitherto been distinguished by diligence and attention in the discharge of his duties, in consideration of which he was afterwards appointed Resident of Cashgar. Six months elapsed

before he inquired into, or made any report of, the real circumstances of Chang-Kih-Urh, then wandering without his post; at the expiration of which time, the rebels actually became possessed of the city. It now appears, according to the statements of Chang-Ting and others, that the rebels surrounded and attacked Cashgar, upon which King-Tseang led out his troops, and opposed them to the utmost of his power. In about two months the rebels dug a subterraneous passage to the city, and by that means entered it; afterwards the royal troops attacked them, and killed many persons; but, although all the ammunition of the imperial army was expended, and the Resident's resources entirely destroyed, he determined to sacrifice his life for his country, by maintaining his position till death. We weep over him, and deeply commiserate his fate. We command you to confer upon him the posthumous title of 'Guardian of the Prince during his minority.' We command the Board to consult and decide upon the manner in which our favour shall be extended, and inform us of the result. It is farther our royal pleasure to command you to introduce the Resident's eldest son at court, and allow his family to return to the capital after a hundred days of mourning are completed. We likewise command the Governors of the four provinces, Kan-Seuh, Heen-Se, Ho-Nan, and Chih-Tae, to appoint officers to take charge of his family; and also to show our abundant liberality in rewarding them with a thousand taels of silver. 'Let the Board know this. Respect this.'

The original, of which the above is nearly a literal translation, omits the circumstances of the Resident's death; and is, indeed, throughout, remarkably obscure. The preceding article, however, throws some light upon the subject, and it is pretty evident that nearly the whole of the officers and troops in that engagement have been killed by the rebels. Other accounts mention the capture of the city, and the loss of several troops on the way to succour it. How the disastrous events which agitate the northern part of this great empire will terminate, is unknown. The Emperor seems determined to reduce the rebels to subjection, whilst they, on the other hand, resolve as firmly to shake off the yoke under which they groan.—*Malacca Observer, February 13.*

INCREASING INTEREST OF THE ENGLISH COMMUNITY IN INDIAN AFFAIRS.

KNOWING, as we do, by experience, how naturally those who are suffering in India under the galling yoke of an arbitrary Government look with anxiety towards the Mother Country, in the hope of finding there some symptoms of an approaching change in the management of her distant dependencies, we take some pains to glean all the information contained on this subject in the Provincial Papers (the London ones, for reasons already often repeated, shrink from the discussion, as far at least as the *East India Company* is concerned); and as these Provincial Papers are not likely to be seen, except by very few, in India, we shall render an acceptable service to our countrymen in the East by affording them an opportunity of perusing such portions of their contents as are connected with India, through our pages.

With a view to give the utmost publicity to the article contained in our Number for September last, 'On the East India Company's Monopoly,' we incurred the expense of transmitting a free copy to every public journal in Britain (about three hundred); and the result has been its re-publication in more than half that number of provincial papers throughout the country. This has excited, as it was intended to do, the thoughts and pens of Editors and Correspondents, and awakened an interest which, instead of slumbering again, will, we trust, increase with every succeeding month till the Parliamentary discussions on the East India Company's Charter begin. We shall from time to time present our Indian readers with notices of whatever may reach us, of great interest, from these quarters; and in the mean time, content ourselves for the present, with the following from the 'Liverpool Mercury' and the 'Manchester Gazette,' of the respective dates given.

From 'The Liverpool Mercury,' of September 28, 1827.

In the 'Mercury' of last week we published an important article from the 'Oriental Herald' on the East India Company's monopoly, and we have this week the satisfaction to lay before our readers a valuable communication of a correspondent on the subject of a free trade to the East, written by a gentleman of intelligence and extensive commercial experience. A subject of so much consequence as this ought to be taken up simultaneously and vigorously by all public journalists throughout the kingdom, as the present ministers are more favourable to the principle of free trade than any of their predecessors proved themselves to be.

In the first volume of the 'Liverpool Mercury,' the subject of the East India Company's monopoly, and of free trade to India, was

most ably discussed, in a series of letters written by Thomas Creevey, Esq. M. P., who did us the honour to select our journal as the medium for laying before the public a series of most valuable articles, the result of his personal experience. It is our intention, in pursuance of this subject, to prepare an abridged digest of the letters of Mr. Creevey; as the time seems at hand when the petitions of our countrymen to partake of the extensive trade to the East will, in all probability, be more effective than they have hitherto proved.

The letter of our valued correspondent to which we have alluded, will be found in another column of our publication.

To the Editors.

GENTLEMEN,—The advantages of a removal of absurd restrictions on our trade with China and India are so obvious, that it seems as if nothing which can be said can make it more so, and especially when it is considered that these countries contain nearly half the population of the globe, and that half, too, whose pursuits, climate, and productions, being different from our own, make an interchange so much the more important.

Whatever the wiser people of this country determine to have, to the extent of the power of their own government they may have; but these obvious advantages have never been sought with much earnestness until near the close of the last session, when petitions from the principal manufacturing towns, most respectfully signed, were presented to Parliament. If free trade with the vast population of India and China would be so obvious a benefit, why has it not again and again been demanded? Notwithstanding the mighty changes we have seen by the extension of commerce, and by other improvements in the country, it is only the reflecting few who are willing to see these improvements beforehand, and every attempt to obtain that which we have not yet had in possession is treated by the great mass of the people as visionary!

If all the people of this country, rich and poor, were supplied as plentifully as they desire to be with every thing, any endeavour to obtain an extension of commerce would be wholly without an object. The absence of general, united, and persevering endeavours, to obtain the removal of these absurd restrictions, can only be accounted for in two ways:—either that the people do not desire better wages, or greater comforts, than they now enjoy, or they do not believe that Government have the power and the will to afford them, if perseveringly demanded.

With respect to the first point, tea and sugar are the great productions of China and India, and are second only to corn in the consumption of the people of this country. About 25,000,000 lbs. of tea, and 170,000 tons of sugar, are annually consumed; being about 20 oz. of tea and 1 lb. of sugar for every individual in the United Kingdom.

dom. Is this all the people are willing to consume, or is it only all they are able to obtain? If I am not mistaken, the aged women-paupers in our workhouse are allowed 52 oz. of tea and 26 lbs. of sugar per annum, being about 50 per cent. in one case, and 150 per cent. in the other, more than the average consumption. Now, if there were any doubts about it, it would be quite easy to try the experiment in that house, and to ascertain whether the poor generally were not quite so willing to consume sugar and tea as the rich: and if so, it would be more than three times that of the present consumption of the United Kingdom.

Of the cause why the consumption of these articles is not greater, I was fully satisfied by calling lately at a weaver's cottage in this county. He was then obtaining 2s. per piece for what, in the late time of distress, he wove for 1s. per piece. About four pieces were a good week's work, though, by very close application, early and late, he could weave five pieces. A slender and delicate little girl, between eight and nine years of age, wove one piece, though she went half the day to school. This poor man (though only about thirty) could remember having 8s. per piece for weaving what he was now doing for 2s. To such an extraordinary degree of experience have their necessities driven them, that he could weave near double the quantity he did then with the same loom: but he is not obliged to sell double the quantity of labour for half the price. A this increased skill and industry produces no benefit to him. Very little of either tea or sugar comes into this poor man's dwelling, not because he is unwilling to use them, but because he is unable to pay for them.

It is quite clear that there is no remedy for this state of things but a more extensive market for the produce of our looms, and there seems no doubt that this can be easily obtained; for, notwithstanding the high and almost prohibitory duties imposed on some of the productions of India, there is a most astonishing increase in the exports of our manufactured goods.

	Printed Cottons.	Plain Cottons.
In 1814 our exports were....	604,800 yards.	213,408 yards.
1826	10,218,502 „	16,000,601 „

Being in plain cottons an increase of seventy-five fold in the short period of twelve years; and large as this may appear, it is probably not one-twentieth part of what is consumed in British India, of which we might now supply a much greater proportion, if it were not for our restrictions; and all this is in a great degree independent of the still greater consumption of China.

Though the vast increase of our exports cannot be disputed, it may be said that neither tea nor sugar are produced in such quantity as to supply a threefold consumption in this country. The present productions of the earth are not to be mistaken for the

measure of its capabilities, but of the present demand; for who will be at the trouble of raising what he cannot sell. Ireland manufactures very little calico: are we from hence to infer that calicoes cannot be made in Ireland? The climate and soil of most parts of India, and some parts of China, are well suited for the growth of sugar; and a piece of fertile land, half the size of Lancashire, would produce all the sugar which is used in the British dominions, and surely no one will say there are not, in those countries, people enough to raise it. Notwithstanding tea is subject to a monopoly in China, still it is sold comparatively cheap in the United States: Bohea, on an average, at 8d. to 9d. per pound, exclusive of duty, and other kinds in nearly the same proportion.

The advantages of giving more employment and better wages to the poor, is by no means confined to themselves: by raising their condition we make them consumers of taxable articles: by participating in our comforts they participate also in our burthens. If the consumption of sugar and tea were trebled, the duties might be reduced to one-third, without any loss to the revenue; by this means the cost of sugar would be reduced to 2d. per pound, and tea might be sold at least 2s. to 3s. per pound lower to all classes of consumers.

The monopolies of the tea and sugar trades have become public nuisances and intolerable burthens to the country, and ought to be done away at once; but giving fair and just compensation to those who have a right to demand it. Even the monopoly of the China trade needs not, and ought not, to be endured till the expiration of the Charter. The East India Company are the stockholders, and by giving these a moderate advance on their dividends, they would sell their Charter at once.

But what are we to do in order to accomplish these great objects? Let us recur to the King's speech in 1825, where the ministers say, 'His Majesty recommends to you to persevere (as circumstances may allow) in the removal of similar restrictions on commerce; and his Majesty directs us to assure you, that you may rely on his Majesty's cordial co-operation in fostering and extending that commerce, which, whilst it is, under the blessing of Providence, a main source of strength and power to the country, contributes, in no less a degree, to the civilization and improvement of mankind.' When we compare the strongly marked language of this speech with the King's recent determination to form a ministry who would support such principles, we may feel assured of his promised cordial co-operation, and it only remains for us to do our duty. If we are determined to succeed, we must not only petition, but support our petitions by deputations from at least the principal commercial and manufacturing towns. When the public mind is prepared by further discussion (which would soon be the case if other editors would not abstain from doing so) to support such measures, we shall be enabled to do so.

follow your example) meetings should be held, and subscriptions entered into to defray the necessary expenses.

A FRIEND TO THE FREEDOM OF TRADE.

From 'The Liverpool Mercury,' of October 12, 1827.

At a time like the present, when the indispensable necessity of new channels of commercial intercourse must be evident to all, and when the general attention is fixed on the immense territories of India and China, as affording these desiderata, we cannot think that the following synopsis of the excellent letters of Mr. Creevey on the subject, which the communications of a valued correspondent have enabled us to modernize, will be unacceptable to our readers. They were written at a time when the East India Company were about to apply for a renewal of its destructive monopoly. The present aspect of affairs gives the subject a peculiar interest; and such of our readers as have an opportunity of referring to our first volume, pages 129, 137, 161, and 289, will there find it treated in a masterly and conclusive manner.

Mr. Creevey commences by stating, that if the extraordinary anomaly of such a corporation as the East India Company, holding an exclusive right of commerce with a great portion of the world, be, at all times, a subject worthy of consideration, it was particularly so then, from the circumstances of the approaching expiration of its charter, and the depressed state of the commercial interests. He adds, as an inducement for mercantile men to bestir themselves in the question, his conviction that they are the only persons whose remonstrances will have any influence on the Government; and, assuredly, he is in the right: for, if they remain quiescent, will it not be convincing that the system is the best of all possible systems, and requires not the slightest alteration? After stating that, to produce any effect, immediate and constant intercourse between commercial communities was absolutely necessary, and that the then Minister had given the Company notice that 'their exclusive trade would cease in the year 1814,' he proceeds: 'But it by no means follows from this notice that the Company's exclusive trade is to cease in 1814, or that the consideration of the renewal of their charter is to be deferred to that period. The notice is mere matter of form. The Government and the Company will do on this occasion as they have done on similar ones: in the intermediate time they will come to some new and secret agreement, for their own separate advantage; that is to say, for prolonging the interest of the Company, and promoting the influence of the Crown; and from any benefit in such a contract the public will, as usual, be carefully excluded. The time for laying this new agreement before Parliament and the public, is quite certain to be that period of a session when the country can be most advantageously taken by surprise. In fact, there are the best reasons for believing that the parties are actually at work, and that some convenient portion of the next

session of Parliament is to be devoted to imposing upon the country another twenty years' term of all the contemptible and injurious absurdities of the existing East India Act.' It certainly requires no conjuration to divine that the same machinations may now exist, or that circumstances demand the zealous and prompt interference of the mercantile classes to counteract them. Mr. Creevey then describes the perplexity of a man who wishes for information on the subject; when he finds that a trading company, with exclusive privileges, incorporated upon certain conditions, 'have changed their occupation from trade to conquest; that they have become lords and masters over 30,000,000 of human beings; that they have an army in their pay of 150,000 men; that they are in possession of a territorial revenue of 15,000,000*l.* per annum; and that, finally, they have seated themselves upon the throne, and are the successors of the Great Mogul.'

Mr. Creevey, in his next letter, throws the subject into the form of an address from the merchants, and describes the origin of the Company, its progress, its delinquencies, and its ruinous consequences to Great Britain, to India, and even to the Company itself. The exigencies of the State required a loan of 2,000,000, and, by way of compensation, the contributors to it were formed into a company, enjoying a monopoly of the East India trade for the term of fifteen years. The Company is next referred to the four acts of Parliament, by which its exclusive rights were successively renewed down to the year 1780, from which it appears that the Company still continued to purchase its monopoly from the State; but from that period it no longer paid in any way for its exclusive rights. In the meantime, by conquest and treaty, the Company became possessed of great territorial revenue, and acts were passed for the purpose of giving the public a participation of the profits of its new possessions; but other acts succeeded, for the purpose of relieving it from its engagements, on the ground that there were no such profits to share. For a continuation of its monopoly from 1781 to 1791, the Company was to give 400,000*l.*, besides three-fourths of the surplus profits of its whole concern; but 'the united operation of all these acts, beginning the very year after your agreement with the public in 1781, was to release you from all the obligations imposed upon you by that act, from your avowed inability to perform them; to suspend the payment to Government of the duties upon your merchandise, from your admitted want of means to discharge them; to enable you to take to yourself dividends out of your capital, in the absence of all profits; and, finally, to give you the power of borrowing money, by any means, to meet the desperate circumstances of your case. We refer you to those acts for the proof of our allegations, and we state it to have been a most tolerable grievance, that, without your having contributed the smallest consideration to the State since 1781, and notwithstanding your incapacity for managing your complicated concerns, you repeatedly

recorded in the statutes to which we have referred you, you were still permitted to exclude us (the merchants and traders of these kingdoms) from all commercial intercourse with the East Indies.

In addition to the reasons already urged why the Company should no longer continue to exclude others from trading to India, the extraordinary fact is stated, that it had itself, long since, ceased to carry on any trade with that country; since what it terms its 'Indian commerce,' bears no resemblance to commerce rightly understood. The principle of the exclusive commerce first granted to the Company, was an interchange of the productions of each country, for the advantage of both; but when it became possessed of great territorial revenue, this principle was lost sight of; its revenue increased, its commerce declined, and at length became totally extinct; its numerous fleets bringing merely the produce of its Indian rent, without any return from this country; thus excluding all real commercial intercourse between the two countries. 'This, then, in truth, has been your Honourable Company's Indian commerce: your fleets have annually sailed to India, not to bring home your rent, for there was none to bring, but to negotiate, by loan from your own servants, a sufficient sum, at ten and twelve per cent. interest, to buy your Indian cargoes with. It is not to be wondered at, that, with such a competitor in commerce, the United States should have found it so conducive to their interest to resort to India. They have, by means of individual enterprise, and true commercial principles, established a great capital in India, and a great and beneficial Indian trade with all the world; whilst your Honourable Company's inauspicious management of your concerns has only loaded you with debt, and whilst to us, the merchants and traders of this nation, and to us alone, India has been a forbidden land.'

The system on which its affairs have been managed is fatal to India, because the Company no longer carries there capital or commerce to stimulate its productive industry; because it has become an absentee landlord, and will neither improve nor cultivate that country by commerce, nor permit others to do so. The system is ruinous to the Company, because, from the period of its institution up to 1767, during which it preserved its primitive mercantile character, it was always enabled to render some pecuniary assistance to the State; whereas, after that time, the statute-book is loaded with acts to preserve it, by means of loans and indulgencies, from perdition. Thus the Company seems to be playing a more curriish part than the dog in the manger; for the hay, which he refused to yield to the hungry ox, afforded him a comfortable bed; but the couch of the Honourable Company is so thickly matted with thorns and thistles, that it finds some difficulty in selecting an easy corner to repose upon.

The address then represents the only true foundation of any new

agreement between the Company and the public to be one that should be conducive to the advantage of both; that this is only to be derived from giving the trading interests a share in Indian commerce, and leaving such commerce unshackled to the guidance of individuals; that it is most unjust, as well as impolitic, to debar British merchants from the advantages of a perfectly free trade to India and China, while foreigners, by their own laws, and the connivance of the Company, are in full possession of them: thus preventing British capital and enterprise from reclaiming, and for ever securing to the State, that great and beneficial result, which the Company's limited means or mismanagement cannot secure, and which its monopoly has hitherto permitted to be entirely absorbed by foreigners.

The principal arguments against the concessions of free trade, contained in three reports written by the Directors in 1802, are, that disappointment and ruin are to be the infallible, and only returns to individual enterprise in this new commercial world; that 'India, from its nature and constitution, can be no great consumer of the manufactures of this country; that the prejudices and poverty of its population preclude the possibility of any greatly increased consumption of the luxuries of our nation; that the morality of the Indians will be injured by coming in contact with our commercial countrymen; and that, by manning our ships with inefficient mariners, for cheapness' sake, we are to become the victims of perpetual misfortunes. These objections need only be stated; they require no reply. This branch of trade, which had always been unprofitable, was not open to the country on the same terms as it had been enjoyed by the Company. They could send out as many agents, and allow as many persons to go to India, as they pleased. The traders to India have no such choice. No British subject can settle in India without license from the Company; and this, after much trouble and perplexity, has been sparingly granted.

The duties on some of its most important productions were increased; that on sugar had sometimes been even less than that on West Indian sugar; for in the year 1802, the West Indians memorialized the legislature, and complained that the duty on East Indian sugar was lower than on West Indian, and called for an equalization. After that time the duties on sugar from both countries remained very nearly the same, until 1813, when the trade was about to be thrown open, and then an extra duty of 10s. per cent. was laid on sugar from the East.

Thus taxed, and thus restricted, was the worst part of the Company's commerce thrown open to the enterprise of the country; and what has been the result is too well known to need much further proof. One single fact may be sufficient. The exports of plain cotton goods have increased from about 200,000 yards, in 1814, to 1,000,000 in 1826.

The shameful abuse of the Company's monopoly of the China trade was most ably exposed in the 'Edinburgh Review,' No. 78, where it is shown that, by the terms of their charter, the country was to be supplied with teas as cheaply as the markets on the continent of Europe. How far this has been the case, may be seen by a reference to the prices, in 1823, at New York, Hamburgh, and the Company's sale, viz.

	New York Prices.		Hamburgh Prices.		Company's Sale.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Bohea.....	0	8½	0	9 5-10	0	10 3-16.2
Congou.....	0	7½	0	1	2	6 2
Catapo.....	—	—	0	10 7-8	1	14.3
Souchong....	1	3½	1	0	1	4 7-10
Twankay....	—	—	1	5	1	7 4 6-10
Hyson Skin..	1	5½	1	5½	1	7 3 9-10
Hyson.....	2	6	2	2	2	4 5 4-10

Taking the quantity of tea sold at the Company's sales, the reviewer shows that the sum paid for tea over and above the prices of New York and Hamburgh, amounts to 2,218,000*l.*, besides this being nearly doubled by the operation of the *ad valorem* duty of 96 per cent.; and he adds, 'We do not hesitate to affirm, that this is one of the most scandalous impositions to which any nation was ever subjected.'

The country has felt the vast advantages of the worst part of the Company's trade, delivered to it in all its bonds and shackles; and if it becomes aware of the still greater benefits of a trade, which even these monopolists have contrived to render profitable, and still submits to these unjust exactions for the support of the Company, surely it must be considered as subscribing money for the purpose of keeping in repair the tackle which suspends a millstone round its neck.

We are glad to perceive that several of our contemporaries have copied the two articles which have lately appeared in the 'Mercury' on this important subject. The editor of the 'Cambrian' prefaces his last article with the following paragraph:

'We insert in our fourth page a valuable letter on the subject of 'Free Trade and India and China,' which we have taken from the 'Liverpool Mercury,' with the editors of which we agree in thinking, that a subject of so much importance to the general interests of commerce ought to be taken up throughout the country, particularly now when it is known that the present Ministry are more favourable to the principle than their predecessors. We hope to have it in our power hereafter to advert to the subject, as we observe a disposition in Liverpool to keep the public attention alive; and we can have no doubt that the Journals there will redeem the pledge which we observe is given, to furnish an exposition of the prejudicial effect of the East India Company's monopoly, and of the benefits to be expected from a free trade with India.'

To the Right Honourable Charles Grant, President of the Board of Trade.

SIR,—I congratulate you on your recent appointment to your elevated station at the Board of Trade. It is a station which affords ample scope for the talents which you unquestionably possess, but which, in their application to purposes of public utility, have not yet fulfilled the lavish promises of your youth. Circumstances, some of them highly honourable to your public virtue and private feelings, have hitherto confined you to official situations too limited or subordinate for the free and vigorous exercise of your powers.

You have at length attained a station in which the most comprehensive and active mind would find a boundless field for its efforts. You preside over the commerce of the greatest commercial nation in the world, and at a period the most critical of its mercantile history. You have succeeded two of the most able men that ever sat at the Board of Trade, and you have embarked with them in a glorious struggle of liberal principles and free trade, against precedent, and prejudice, and the determined efforts of a bigoted faction to arrest the elastic energies of the country in the career of improvement. The acts which emanate from your Board affect the happiness of millions. From its close connection with those great commercial streams which will supply, in a more scanty or liberal measure, according to the wisdom of your administration, the luxuries of the rich, the comforts of the middle classes, and the very subsistence of the poor, you are, in a peculiar manner, responsible for your official conduct to every individual in the kingdom; while there is not a nation in the great commercial community of the globe that will not sit in judgment on your acts, and regard you either as its enemy or its friend.

On taking the comprehensive survey that you will feel it your duty to take of our various commercial relations, and the different restrictions by which the natural current of our commerce is impeded, there is nothing which I should conceive so calculated to arrest your attention, and fill you at once with astonishment and dismay, as the nature of our position with respect to India and China. You find, in the 19th century, a company of traders, established in the reign of King William, loading with heavy restrictions the commercial intercourse of the rest of their countrymen, with sixty millions or more of their fellow-subjects in our Eastern empire; prohibiting totally to their fellow-countrymen all communication with China, equal in population to the whole of Europe; and precluding them not only from interfering with their own commercial operations, but from engaging in most lucrative branches of Eastern commerce which they themselves do not pursue, but which foreigners are permitted to carry on, even from British ports!

Now, to use the words of the report of the Committee of the House of Commons upon this very subject—'Whenever a question arises to grant or to withhold a permission to carry on unrestricted trade, with whatever part of the world, in whatever ships, and in whatever commodities, the burden of the proof rests upon those who propose to withhold their permission, or to impose the restriction. Restriction, being in itself an evil, requires, as well for its continuance as its original imposition, a special political expediency to support it. This is a principle no less of justice and duty than of commerce and policy.'

Now, upon this indisputable principle, I would ask you, where can be found a justification of the continuance, for a single instant, of the restrictions I have alluded to? It is to be found neither in commercial policy nor political expediency, but only in that charter of the East India Company which ought never to have been granted, and which happily expires in a very few years. To renew a charter containing such restrictions would be a dereliction of all those principles which have been so ably and manfully advocated by your predecessors, a mockery of all that has been lately professed in the chair which you now fill, and an unparalleled insult to the understanding and feelings of the British nation. I will not argue for the infraction of an existing charter, however improvidently granted, nor although the conditions on which it was originally bestowed have been contemptuously violated, because it has been renewed since that violation; but I can conceive of no services, either past or future, that could warrant the sacrifice, at the shrine of the monopoly of the East India Company, of interests so varied and extensive as those which are involved in the question of a further renewal of those exclusive privileges secured to them by their charter. If acquisitions of territory and empire—too often, alas! the fruit of bloodshed and devastation, and of atrocities which have left an indelible stain upon the page of our history—if territory and empire thus acquired be entitled to reward, at least let that reward be granted in a form less ruinous and expensive than that of restrictions and prohibitions, which lay a withering hand on the productive industry of India, and circumscribe the commerce of Great Britain by a preposterous and artificial limit.

That no great consideration is due to the Company, I think might readily be shown by a retrospect of its constant violations of its successive engagements with the public. It was stated by a member of parliament, in 1812, in a series of excellent letters, first published in the 'Liverpool Mercury,' (and which I should rejoice to see republished at the present time,) that 'had the Honourable Company's proposal of a participation on the part of the public, held out by the existing act, as the purchase of the monopoly, been realized, the public would, at this period, have received from it nine millions of money; that, on the contrary, the Honourable Company had

once only, during the eighteen years which had elapsed of their agreement with the public, made the annual payment of 500,000*l.*; and, within the same period, namely, 1810, it had borrowed from the public 1,500,000*l.* It was also stated, that the Company had engaged, out of the profits of the whole concern, to reduce its debt in India, then at eight millions, to two millions, whereas it had increased to thirty millions; that it had engaged, out of the profits of its whole concern, to reduce its bond debt in England, namely, three millions, to one million and a half, whereas it had increased to seven millions; that it had engaged, out of the profits of its whole concern, to provide the enormous sum of twelve millions as a guarantee fund for its India stock, and to which fund not a farthing had been paid. It was observed by the same member, that only one of the numerous appropriations of its profits under the act of 1793, which the Honourable Company had ever carried into execution, (but this he admitted had been done with exemplary punctuality,) was the payment to themselves of ten per cent. as divided upon their capital stock. He stated that in 1810, the Honourable Company came to Parliament with a statement that they were deficient in no less a sum than 2,088,948*l.* to meet the expenditure of that year; and in urging their petition on that occasion, they stated, by way of appeal to the compassion of the public, that they had actually lost, that year, in ships and cargoes, by accidents of the sea, 1,202,638*l.*

They obtained upon this plea a loan of 1,500,000*l.* from the nation, and they took to themselves, according to their custom, a dividend of 10 per cent. upon their capital stock, out of the profits of the whole concern.'

He added, 'that those profits were appropriated, by the act of 1793, to the payment of their own dividends, the public, and their creditors; yet that the experience of eighteen years had shown, that in no year had they paid any thing to the public, or to their creditors, while in every year, and in all years, they had taken care to pay to themselves a dividend of 10 per cent. upon their stock.'

Little, however, as it appears the East India Company deserves its charter, it cannot, of course, be infringed upon without the consent of that body; but there are two obstacles to the beneficial influence of the intercourse of Great Britain and India, so powerful and so injurious, that I trust you will spare no efforts to effect their removal. The first is, the heavy duty on the imports of East India sugar, which operates, as has been clearly shown, in restricting the commerce between the two countries, precisely as an equivalent duty on the export of our manufactures to India would do. I say nothing at present of the effect of this duty in encouraging slavery itself in a Christian country—a sufficient argument for its reduction; but I would ask, how can we, in common justice to the export country we have brought by force under our dominion and protection, and with whose long established manufactures we have

essentially interfered, both at home and abroad—how can we, in common justice, lay a paralyzing hand on the productive industry of India, and, by the imposition of an extravagant duty on one of her great staple productions, divert the labour of her population out of its natural channel, and erect an artificial barrier to her intercourse with England?

The other obstacle to which I allude, is the difficulty, or rather the impossibility, of residing in India *ad libitum*, and purchasing a property in her soil. Is it possible that the interior of India can ever become so completely civilized, that the productive powers of her soil can be fully developed, or the manufacture of her raw productions adequately improved, if you deter the inhabitants of this country from settling down there with their capitals, identifying themselves with her interests, and looking to her as their home, and the home of their children's children for generations to come?

If we want to cultivate Canada, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, or the Cape of Good Hope, we endeavour to root Englishmen in the soil, by giving them grants of land, where they and their remotest descendants may settle in their adopted country. If we wish to do justice to the resources of Ireland, and introduce a better system of internal polity, we raise an outcry against absentees; and while we are unwilling to compel residence by legislative enactments, we regret that the moral considerations which appear to us imperative, are so unavailing with the great landholders, in inducing them to settle on their Irish estates, and to diffuse around them the industry, the comforts, the social and agricultural improvements, the physical blessings and moral benefits, which we expect would follow; yet, with an enlightened regard for the interests of India, consistent only with the spirit with which, in our character 'of conquerors and sovereigns,' in which we swept from their thrones, and courts, and palaces, and reduced into the list of pensioners on the East India Company, the various princes and potentates who were seated in every part of Hindoostan, with all the population and consumption that surrounded their great establishments; with an enlightened regard to India, in that country we sever the capitalist from the soil, and forcibly prevent the growth of those natural attachments and stimulants to improvement which in other parts of the world we so sedulously and expensively cherish, and from which we justly expect, in the ordinary progress of society, the most extensive and permanent results.

I trust, Sir, you will make it evident, that if these obstacles are permitted to remain, it is not want of your strenuous efforts to remove them. They form the greatest restrictions which now exist on the commerce of Great Britain; and you will ill discharge the duties of your responsible official situation if you overlook or neglect them. Their removal would create a demand for our manufactures, that might ultimately employ the whole Irish population; and then

some compensation might at length be made to the two most injured countries under the British throne.

With regard to India, you must possess something of an hereditary interest in her welfare; for your venerable father, though connected with the system of the East India Company, was a sincere and zealous friend of the Indian population.

As a Christian, too, I am persuaded it would afford you heartfelt satisfaction to assist in diffusing through that extensive country the blessings of civilization and Christianity. It is not given you to emulate in his own bright path the splendid and devoted efforts of the excellent Heber; but it is given you to throw all your official weight in favour of that system of Indian administration which shall open to India the widest door for the admission of all the benefits to be derived from intercourse with Great Britain.

Now, all the best informed and most competent judges, to whose opinions I have had access, assert, without hesitation, that the discouragements at present opposed to the settlement of Englishmen in India, and the impossibility which exists of fixing their capital in her soil, are quite among the strongest obstacles to her civilization, and to the effectual dissemination of the Gospel among her population. The view which the public take of the duties of your office, and the estimate they have formed of your character, will lead them to expect from you, notwithstanding some natural adhesion of hereditary prejudice in favour of the East India Company, a prompt and resolute determination to place the intercourse of Great Britain and India on the footing most conducive to the real, substantial, permanent interests of both countries. If you decline this honourable office, demanded not less imperatively by policy than by justice, your successors will reap that rice harvest of a nation's gratitude which it is now in your power to secure, and that still higher and more enduring reward—the consciousness of having, by the upright and manly discharge of the duties of the chair you fill, conferred on India and the British Isles a blessing of which our latest posterity can alone estimate the extent.

A BRITISH MERCHANT.

Liverpool, October, 1827.

DESCRIPTION OF FUTTEHPOOR SIKRI.

‘We mentioned last week the Governor-General’s having visited Futtehpoor Sikri on his way to Bhurtpoor; we have since been indebted to a correspondent in his Lordship’s suite for the following notice of the remains of that place: “Of the city of Futtehpoor Sikri, which was built by Akber, and appears never to have been of very great extent, little now exists, except a mass of ruins, enclosed within walls equally decayed. The northern portion, formed of a series of low hills, is covered by the relics of Akber’s Palace, and the Dergah, or Shrine, of Sheikh Sellim Chishti, the saint, whose prayers and surpassing piety procured the monarch the much coveted blessing of a son and successor.

“The palace of the Emperor consists of a succession of buildings, scattered over a considerable extent of ground, and presents nothing grand or striking. The different structures are all on a very small scale, and apparently little adapted to an imperial residence. Many of them, however, are of peculiar construction, and the ornamental architecture is elaborate and curious. They are especially worthy of notice, as marking an era in the arts in India, and indicating the transition about to take place from the genuine Hindoo to the Indo-Persic, or Sarcenic style of building. Indian architecture combines rudeness and delicacy in a peculiar manner. The edifices are built in square massive blocks, where strength depends upon the quantity of matter less than upon its disposition. Some of the roofs at Futtehpoor Sikri are formed of immense slabs of stone, laid, without beams, from wall to wall; others are formed of similar slabs laid aslope, and meeting in the centre as in a pitched roof. The door and window-frames are all square, the buildings angular, and such columns as occur are short and ponderous; combined with this Cyclopean style, if it may be so termed, there is extreme delicacy and minuteness in detail, and the walls and cornices are covered with scrolls and flowers of an almost microscopic delineation, and most complex and laborious execution. In the building immediately adjoining, a wholly different style prevails, and the shrine of the saint, with its carved arches, corridors, cupolas, and minarets, corresponds with the general character of Mohammedan architecture as it occurs throughout Persia, whence it seems to have been imported, in full perfection, into Hindoostan by the Mogul princes, and especially Akber’s predecessor, Hoomayoon.

“The Dergah of Sheikh Chishti is, perhaps, the finest specimen of Mohammedan architecture in India. It is situated on the summit of a hill, from the brow of which a lofty gateway, to which a long flight of steps ascends, commands a distant view of the Taj on one side, and Bhurtpoor on the other. Like all buildings of this de-

scription, it is a quadrangular enclosure; but it is much more than the usual extent, measuring about 500 feet from wall to wall. The court within the enclosure is paved with stone; an arcaded verandah extends round three sides; whilst that opposite to the main entrance is occupied by the tombs of the family and descendants of the saint. His own tomb is a low building of white marble, projecting into the centre of the square; the walls and windows of the shrine are carved with the greatest delicacy, like net-work or lace, and a screen, curiously wrought with mother-of-pearl, protects the marble sarcophagus within from profane approach. The memory of the Sheikh is still held in great veneration, and many persons come daily in pilgrimage to his shrine. They tie small threads, or offer flowers on the tomb, making, at the same time, presents to the khadims, or servants, of the establishment; and they anticipate that the saint’s intercession will procure them health, or longevity, or children, or whatever may be the object of their desires. Hindoos form a full proportion of the pilgrims; and it is a curious circumstance, that a similar superstition invests the sepulchral monuments of the Taj with imaginary sanctity; offerings of a like character, and with similar objects, being presented, especially by Hindoos, at the tombs of the despot Shah Jehan, and the lovely light of his harem.”

—*Government Gazette.*

AFFAIRS OF AVA AND THE BURMESE EMPIRE.

We have been favoured with the following particulars, extracted from private correspondence, which give a frightful picture of the horrors of Burman conquest. The document relating to the intended monopoly of the trade will be perused with interest by our merchants.

“Mr. Sarkies has probably learnt in Calcutta the good effects of monopolies, on those in whose favour they are created; and he has taken rather a bold step in attempting to annul the provisions of a treaty of peace in his own favour, though it is not impossible that it may bear any construction put upon it. It is not to be expected that our Government will agree to the guarantee of a man who is well known to be possessed of little or no property, to say nothing of the impertinence of his interference, which, if he were a British subject, might place him in an unpleasant situation. Perhaps, the best way of defeating his object, would be to give the Burmese Government the time they require as a favour, but with the express condition that the trade should be open, as stipulated by the treaty; if they persist in a monopoly, encouragement might be given to Amherst Town, which would, in a great measure, defeat their object.

Some of our contemporaries have considered the measures of the

Burmese Government as likely to lead to another war. We doubt much whether so costly an experiment will be again tried, nor is it clear that the re-occupation of some of our posts within the Burmese territory would induce that people to oppose us. It would more probably cause a strict adherence to the terms of the treaty. One thing is quite clear, that the Burmese have got plenty of loopholes in the commercial parts of the treaty, through which they have both cunning and inclination to creep, and therefore the importance of the settlement of Amherst to secure to us the trade of Pegu is more apparent, than when we thought the good faith of the Burmese might be trusted.

Rangoon, March 9, 1827.

'I believe you have been informed of the various changes which have taken place in this quarter, but I will nevertheless contribute my mite in this way, as I know you feel interested in what concerns these brutes of Burmese.

'On the 2d ultimo, the Taliens who occupied the post at Tackallie were seen to be seized with a sudden panic, and to take to their boats without any apparent cause; but on the following morning, some hundreds of Burman boats were seen coming round the point, and which had forced the Talien Stockade at Pandalang on the preceding day: our information therefore with regard to the strength of the Burmese, and their inability to bring any force into the field before the rains, was incorrect; for we have at least 12,000 or 14,000 men in and about Rangoon alone. Since the arrival of these reinforcements the poor Taliens have been driven from every point, and 5000 have arrived in our possession with *Mauat* at their head: hundreds of their children are now selling in Rangoon at 10 *rupees per head*, and the work of exterminating the race of Taliens is going on briskly, by decapitating the men by dozens. I saw the Karyon chief Maongbyo hung in quarters the other day, with the male part of his family dead by his side, consisting of his son, son-in-law, and four or five more of his relations: he had reached the coast in the vicinity of the Elephant, but could not get a boat to convey him to Amherst. Such is the disgusting state of affairs here at present. Perhaps you are not aware that Moung-tha-ga-doo, the Myosugi of Prome, Mounggho, the Myosugi of Pandaong, and also the Shewedoung Myosugi, have all been beheaded as friends of the English.

'Sarkies arrived here on the 12th ultimo in high glee, with the King's order in his pocket for a general monopoly of the produce of this country, stipulating on his part, that as he could do any thing he liked with ———, he would meet with no difficulty in putting off the payment of the third instalment for one year, and that if interest was demanded, he (Sarkies) would guarantee the payment of it: such a monopoly would surely be a downright opposition to the 9th article of the Treaty of Yandaboo. I send you a

copy of Mr. Laine's representations in the Lootoo, which will give you more correct information than my version of it.

'The following is a translation of a representation made by Mr. Laine, merchant in Ava, to the Beerdyke on the subject of the monopoly of the timber and other produce of the Burman empire, then about to be granted to Mr. Sarkies.

'The consequences of Mr. Sarkies's monopoly are: 1. To compel all foreign merchants to quit the country, as they will have no means of making returns. 2. To increase the price of foreign goods at least two-fold. 3. To reduce the price of country produce to less than one-half: for instance, a quantity of timber, &c. which can now be exchanged for four chests of foreign cloths, will not realise more than one chest: as there will be no competition, of course he will make his own terms, and the revenue will consequently be reduced in proportion.

'I am informed that before the war the King received for one year's import duties 25,000 pieces of cloth. If this monopoly is allowed, I will guarantee that his Majesty's revenue from that source will not exceed one-third of 25,000 pieces of cloth. A similar experiment was tried in one of the Spanish provinces. The Government for a sum of money gave the whole trade of the province to an individual: the consequence was, that in four-years the revenue fell so low as not to cover the expense of collecting; the province became depopulated, and eventually the contractor found himself unable to pay the amount of his engagement; and at this time the Government are offering tracts of land to any foreigners who will choose to accept of them.

'It is not my intention to find fault with any arrangement, without proposing another, which will be more likely to answer the purpose intended.

'His Majesty's order, as recorded in the books of the Beerdyke, mentions the terms upon which he grants to Mr. Sarkies the exclusive privilege of purchasing the country produce to be:

1. That he (Mr. Sarkies) engages to make use of his influence with Sir Archibald Campbell to induce the British Government to put off the payment of the debt for one year upon interest; and that he will, from his own private funds, pay this interest.

'The Kee Woon Meu also informs me that Mr. Sarkies has guaranteed to the King that he will, without the assistance of Ambassadors from this Court, persuade the Bengal Government to allow the debt to remain at interest for one year. This, indeed, as the Kee Woon expresses it, "is a most complete thing; so much so, that if I was not certain of Mr. Sarkies's utter inability to fulfil this engagement, I would not presume to offer a single word upon the subject, but quietly ship off the remainder of my goods to some other country."

In the first place, I beg to observe, that there is a possibility of

his failing in the pecuniary part of his agreement : for, although I know very little of him, or his circumstances, except from common report, I should feel very insecure if I were dependent upon him for the payment of a quarter of the sum which he has there stipulated to pay.

'In the second place, his presuming to say that any British officer, much less the commander of the British forces in this country, would, by any act of his, assist in the destruction of the fortunes of his countrymen, appears to me so palpable a piece of effrontery, that I shall not be surprised if he promises the restoration of the ceded provinces.

'The treaty of Yandaboo expressly mentions a sum of money to be paid in a certain period. There is no article in that treaty that if the money cannot be procured at the time specified, an extension of credit will be given, by this Government paying the interest; therefore the opinion that has found its way into the Council Chamber, that 'interest is a legal tender for the principal,' is a fallacy: to effect this object the treaty must be altered; and as the framers of that treaty were the representatives of their respective Governments, it can only be effected by people vested with the same powers. It follows therefore that Mr. Sarkies's engagements to carry this point without Ambassadors is not to be depended upon.

'What I propose is, that I may be allowed to go to Rangoon, and lay the business before the merchants there; and if they agree to it (which I think they will,) a company may be formed for the purpose of paying the interest of the debt; by which plan the money may be raised without destruction to the commercial interests of the country and injury to individuals; and Government, instead of depending upon an individual whose circumstances, to say the least, are extremely doubtful, would have the security of a number of merchants of known property.'—*Bengal Harkaru.*

CAPE COMMISSIONERS AT THE MAURITIUS.

THE subjoined extract of a letter from the Mauritius of 12th October last, will interest and amuse our readers. We hope to keep them informed of the proceedings of the Commissioners sent to that island:

Mauritius, October 12, 1826.

'I am growing somewhat tired of the Mauritius, for to have decent air in it one is obliged to live in the country in solitude; though fortunately the town does not present any thing in the shape of society to make this very distressing. The climate is extremely agreeable, and perhaps the most healthy in the world. There is less disease in it, though a man is, no doubt, sooner worn out than in one colder. For some time nothing was talked or thought of here but the taking of the Portuguese ship by the Commodore, the change in the heads of departments, and the expectation of the Commis-

sioners from the Cape. These men had been figured in the imaginations of the people as altogether extraordinary, merely because their powers and duties were extraordinary or unknown. A man who got a clout in the head, or another who got his estate taken from him, a third who paid too much taxes, a fourth who could either not sell his sugar, or get the money for it when sold, all waited to have their injuries and grievances redressed by these extraordinary men. The man in the clouds, of course, not only saw the ship a couple of hundred of miles before she reached the island, but could distinguish the Commissioners; and when she came in, not only all the town, but all the island, assembled to see them land. The Israelites never expected more from the mountain with so much anxiety, and the slaves, running through the streets, cried out they were all free from the moment the soil was touched by a Commissioner's foot. No one of them could, of course, be less than seven feet high, or have an unblanched hair upon his head. What was the astonishment of this immense multitude, when a very little and very merry-looking young lad, of about twenty-two, jumped out of the boat, and was hailed as Mr. Commissioner Blair. *Parturiunt montes.* An avalanche from their mountain would not have astonished them so much. Was this the head that was to redress all grievances, and 'wipe the tears off all faces,' make men honest, and women virtuous, where honesty and virtue had been so long exploded from society? One man could not help saying, that if he were to administer the oath of office to the lad, he should feel obliged to ask him whether he had yet learned the nature of an oath or not. Of course, after this the people began to think the Commission a bug-bear; for if the British Government had meant it otherwise, older and longer men than this would have been sent out. Mr. Blair is, however, a fine lad, of pleasing manners and good talents, and if he has any thing to do, will probably do it as well as older and longer men.

'Major Colebrook came next, somewhat older and taller, though, of course, a boy and a dwarf to what the people had expected. He is said to be a man of talent, and he certainly looks it. Mr. Bigge is not to leave the Cape for some time, and, probably, the whole is intended to be nothing more than a quietus for the House of Commons, and a source of patronage to Ministers. If it is so, it ought not to be so: for there is in this little colony an immense deal to be done, that might be very easily done by men of abilities to see the evil and suggest the remedies. The Courts of Justice here are an abomination; and the laws themselves are a curse upon the people. But you have nothing to do with the laws and Commissioners of Mauritius; and unless you can send honest men, or, England send honest judges, you had perhaps better have nothing.

If the good folks at the Mauritius had heard of this same Commissioners' Report on the case of Mr. Bishop Burnet, their expectations would have been less sanguine. The fact is, the Commission is nothing more nor less than a clumsy contrivance to deceive the people, and screen the arbitrary acts of certain great men from inquiry.

MEDICO-BOTANICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

THE first meeting of the eighth session of the Medico-Botanical Society of London, was holden on Friday evening, the 12th of October, 1827, at the Society's apartments, No. 32, Sackville-street, Piccadilly; Sir James M'Grigor, M.D., F.R.S., K.G.S., President, in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting holden in July having been read, several presents to the Society were announced, amongst which were fifty-six pounds of the seed of *Argemone Mexicana*, a mild purgative, from Mr. Huggins, of Nevis; about thirty pounds of the seed of *Genista Tinctoria*, from the Rev. Mr. Smirnov, a plant used by the Russians as a cure for hydrophobia; Ainslie's *Materia Medica*, from the Court of Directors of the East India Company; a large collection of 'Dissertations,' from Professor Thunberg, f Upsal, &c. &c. Several Fellows were admitted by the President; the Marquis of Lansdowne was elected an Honorary Fellow, and the Marquis of Donegal, Admiral Earl of Northesk, the Viscount de Habayna, the Count Mendelsloh, Sir Gerard Noel, &c. were elected Fellows; Sir Anthony Carlisle, Sir Thomas Bowser, Dr. Burnett, Mr. Soane, &c. were proposed as Fellows.

The Director (Mr. Frost) then delivered the annual oration, which he commenced by showing the advantages derivable from the extended sphere of the Society, and its use to the medical officers of the army and navy. He then pointed out the salutary effects that would accrue from the regulations relative to the study of botany by them, instituted by Sir James M'Grigor, Director-General of the Army Medical Board. He condoled with the Society on the loss it had sustained in the death of the Duke of York, and congratulated the meeting on the Duke of Clarence's acceptance of the office of patron, and on the warm interest his royal highness was pleased to take in their welfare. He recalled to their memory the handsome expressions which the Duke of Wellington had made use of on being elected an Honorary Fellow, and, enumerating the various occurrences which had taken place during the past year, concluded by congratulating the Society on its steady and progressive increase.

On the motion of Sir John S. Lillie, seconded by M. C. Friend, lieutenant, R.N., F.R.S., it was proposed, that the oration should be printed and distributed amongst the members; and that the thanks of the meeting should be given to Mr. Frost for the same. A letter from the King of Bavaria, to Mr. Yosy, the secretary for foreign correspondence, couched in the most handsome terms, was read. Also a notice, offering a reward of 25*l.*, or a gold medal of equal value, for an accurate description of the plant yielding the myrrh, and which is merely supposed to be the produce of the

'Amyris Kataf.' After some remarks from the president, assuring the members of the constant interest he took in the welfare of the Society, and pointing out the steps he had taken and would take for the promotion of its objects, the meeting was adjourned to Friday evening, the 9th of November.

The room, which was crowded to excess, was decorated with a numerous collection of shrubs and flowers, amongst which were the sago, the fan, and date palms; the tea tree, the akce tree, *dracontium pertusum*, *licus religiosa*, *mimosa sensitiva*, a new species of cassia, *laurus benzoin*, &c. &c.

SUPERSTITION AMONG THE MALAYS.

THE following curious narrative, furnished us by a friend, we hope will be amusing to our readers, as it is illustrative of that superstition which is so prevalent among Malays:

'It was on a gloomy October afternoon, while riding at anchor in our little bark under shelter, among the Lada Islands, in consequence of the boisterous weather which we had experienced during several days, that, for want of sufficient recreation on board, I stepped into my boat, accompanied by four men of our crew, and a Malay of the neighbouring island of Langkawee, for the purpose of having a cruise among the many islets and rocks of which this group principally consists.

'Having the current mostly in our favour, we were carried rapidly round several rocky and perforated islets, the grotesque appearance of which was much increased by deep and dark caverns, formed in most of them, and in the recesses of which the waves broke their furious course like the roaring of distant thunder. My attention had been for sometime occupied by the scenery around, when I observed the Malay, who steered the boat, displaying marks of perplexity; with an unsteady and trembling hand he handled the tiller, and his else healthy brown complexion assumed an ashy colour. 'Are you ill?' inquired I, 'O no, tuan,' replied he, with a timid voice; 'but, tuan,' continued he, after a little pause, 'you are, perhaps, not aware that the place where we are at present is the abode of a mighty evil spirit, who, in the shape of a hideous monster, uniting the horrid compound of a man, a crocodile, and a large snake, seizes and devours all living beings, and particularly the Orang Malaias, who dare approach yonder dark caves.' Scarcely had my Malay friend uttered these words, when, unexpectedly and with great rapidity, our boat was carried into one of these dark gaping dens.

'Had I been born an Hellenian, and the time some thousand years back, no doubt I should have thought myself to be in a fair way of

paying a visit to Tartarus: the hissing of the black waters on which our bark floated at this moment was not unlike to that of Styx, and the farther we were carried into this gloomy abode, and the more it seemed like our approaching the throne of Pluto, the less hope did I entertain of seeing the sun again; and, in fact, I prepared myself to deliver over my shadow to the grave ferryman. Instead, however, of coming to an interview with master Charon, the ferocious Cerberus, or other of the inhabitants of the infernal region, we experienced some very unpleasant blows from long-winged animals flying round us.

'The *chevalier de la triste figure* would certainly have thought that the harpies had commenced their attack on him: a host of large bats, however, I soon discovered them to be, who, by their shrill chirping, it appeared, were as little disposed to be disturbed in their solitary dwelling, as we were to pay them a visit, and to be saluted in a manner so ungentle.

'The cracking of an oar, which accidentally broke, finally roused the long-winged inhabitants; their inharmonious sounds increased so much, that I was hardly able to distinguish the feeble voice of Ismael, my Malay companion, whom, poor fellow, it appeared our chirping adversaries made their select object of attack, with a groaning as if in agony of death, he called on the holy prophet in this emergency.

'After having struggled awhile against bats and rocks, the velocity of the current in this subterraneous canal abated. We were gently carried into a basin formed by perpendicular craggy rocks, which were all undermined to a great depth, apparently by the constant circular agitation of the water.

'Alla tuan,' said Ismael, sighing deeply, 'Alla tuan,' continued he, somewhat recovered from his panic, 'I entreat you, in the name of Mohammed the holy prophet, to leave this dreadful place without delay, as otherwise we shall fall a sacrifice to the voracity of the gigantic monster which, it is well known to all the people at Langkawee, inhabits the depth of this very basin; and, let me tell you, that many a worthy fisherman of our village has been carried off by the monster to this frightful abode, falling a victim to his insatiable appetite. If Alla (continued he) should grant us a safe return, I will relate to you what stratagem the vile wretch resorted to for the gratification of his cannibal propensity.' By this time large drops of sweat became visible on the poor fellow's face, evidently the production of his terror; and myself, tired with the lasting circumnavigation of our boat, we contrived, in the best possible manner, to work the boat back through the same passage through which we had made our entrance.

'Having come once more in close contact with our first trouble-some friends the bats, one of them, unfortunately this time, suspended itself from the hair of Ismael's forehead, flapping with its wings his

face with great indifference; from which inconvenience he was, however, soon disengaged by my assistance, which he implored on this occasion by calling out, in great distress, 'tolong tolong la sidikit tuan;' we reached the open sea again.

'Now, tuan,' resumed Ismael, when at some distance from the place of our adventure, turning his face, which by this time had resumed part of its natural hue, to that quarter, and casting back to it a look of defiance and suspicion; 'now, Sir, what means do you suppose the vile anthropophagus employed to induce my poor countrymen to resort to his den for the purpose of making them a prey to his insatiable stomach. 'To be always abundantly supplied with human flesh,' continued he, 'the wretch fixed on the hooks of the fishermen who frequented these quarters, a most delicious fish, with golden fins. This stratagem, as you may easily imagine, not only enticed a multitude of people to resort to the place with the view of catching that valuable aquatic animal, but it also possessed the peculiar quality of rendering those who used it for food enormously corpulent; a property well calculated to gratify both his ravenous hunger and palate.

'Whenever now there was a fair opportunity for the execution of his vile desire, the monster generally upset a boat which he knew contained two or three individuals of a bulky nature; and the fate of the poor wretches was soon decided. Long,' resumed my now talkative friend, after a little pause, 'had these depredations been carried on, when one of our Rajahs resolved to try whether it was practicable to annihilate the monster. He fabricated, for that purpose, a very large hook, which he suspended on a cable from the fore part of a prow, large enough to prevent it from being upset by the monster; for a bait he fixed a fat buffalo on it: but how strangely was the Rajah deceived; Satan himself could not have done it better. Instead of the monster being caught by the chief, the latter was caught by the monster! When the hook had been let down some fathoms deep into the water, the monster, instead of seizing the bait with his mouth, very cunningly took it into his arms, in a way that nothing might hurt him, and then slowly moving toward the dark cavern, where the nasty bats gave me this scratch, (of the effect of which certainly the poor fellow bore visible marks across his nasal organs,) the monster rushed suddenly into that dark abode, towing the prow after him with a loud and frightful laughter, and in a moment all disappeared.

'The Rajah's attendants, in two remaining boats, got so frightened that they hastened away with all possible speed from the spot, and never a human being ventured near the place since it happened. I am certain,' added Ismael, in conclusion of the story, 'that when I come home my friends won't believe me when I tell them our adventure of to-day, unless they are convinced by the evidence my nose bears, which by this time had increased considerably in size.—*Oriental Observer*.

CALCUTTA SCHOOL SOCIETY.

A MEETING was recently held, in Calcutta, at the house of Gopee Mohun Deb, in Sobha Bazar, for the distribution of the prizes awarded to the most meritorious pupils of the schools under the control of the School Society. The whole number of the scholars amounts to about two thousand; of these, fourteen hundred had been previously examined, and above two hundred had been selected for reward. These were assembled in a spacious apartment attached to the Baboo's dwelling. The Honourable Sir Charles Grey, the President of the Society, and several European ladies and gentlemen, were present, as were Maharaja Baidyanath Rai, and a number of Native gentlemen. The prizes, consisting of books, were distributed by Mr. Hare, the Secretary to the Society, and some of the classes were examined in Bengalee and English by different individuals present. Their progress in both afforded considerable satisfaction. The examination concluded with some specimens of English recitation, poetic and dramatic; in the latter, the quarrels between Edward and Warwick, and between Brutus and Cassius, were delivered with an energy and feeling, that showed the juvenile declaimers to be fully masters of the sentiments expressed. The progress that has been made in Calcutta, during the last three to four years, in the important business of Native education, is highly gratifying. Whilst feelings long cherished receive that attention to which they are entitled, and liberal facilities have been afforded for the prosecution of those studies which have been hitherto the objects of local veneration, the interest of the people has been awakened for the due cultivation of their vernacular language, and the acquirement of that of the ruling authority. The dialect of Bengal will not much longer be left in the rude and unsettled condition of an unwritten tongue, and a familiar knowledge of the best English writers, in every department, may be rendered the means of providing the Bengalee language with an invaluable store of literature and science. This power of enriching the one with the treasures of the other is now in the possession of many young men of great promise, and we are satisfied it will be not unprofitably enjoyed. The progress made in their studies by the youth of Calcutta, is, however, not more the subject of congratulation, than the enlightened interest taken by so many of their seniors in their education. The minds of the most respectable members of the Native community seem now fully alive to the importance of intellectual improvement; and individuals of distinguished rank, affluence, merit, and attainments, readily afford their countenance to occasions which, like the present, cannot fail to excite emulation, and must ensure success.—*Government Gazette.*

AMHERST TOWN, ON THE BURMAN COAST.

SIR,—The harbour of Amherst has been so fully described in your columns, and so ably laid down in the chart of Captain Spiers, that it calls for no further remark. I have the satisfaction, however, to state that, during my stay there, no less than nine ships rode safely at anchor, within two hundred yards of the shore, nor was any serious accident experienced by any of them, either in their entrance or departure. The greatest draught of water amongst them was seventeen and a half feet, and the smallest fifteen feet. One serious objection was early urged against the settlement, that the supply of water was not only inadequate, but of bad quality. The experience of nearly a whole year has fully proved that there is no foundation for such an apprehension: water is found every where, within six or seven feet of the surface, by any one who takes the trouble to dig a well. I believe that there are not less than a dozen now open. The water is just as fine as it is abundant, and is approved of both by natives and strangers. Every ship that has visited the place has been watered from them, and they have afforded a daily supply to the large flotilla of gun-boats. Such a spontaneous supply of good water is scarcely procurable at any other part of India that I know of.

An object of the first importance to the prosperity of the settlement, is its trade in timber. The existence of extensive forests of teak, on the Gaing, Attran, and Saluen rivers, equal or superior in size to the common run of teak usually exported from Rangoon, has been satisfactorily ascertained. There is reason also to believe, that it is superior in quality, since the teak brought from the forests of Shooeggin and Toungoo, and, indeed, those generally which are situated on the eastern extremity of the Burman dominions, and which, consequently, approximate nearest to those of our newly-acquired territory, is considered far superior to that cut from the forests of the Irrawaddy, and bears a proportionably larger price in the Rangoon market. It is reasonable to expect that the important discovery of these forests will, at no distant period, relieve us from our dependence upon the caprice of the Burmans for a supply of this commodity, and that it will furnish our Government, at a cheap rate, with the descriptions of timber required for ordnance and other purposes, which it was seldom, and with great difficulty, able to select from the cargoes brought from Rangoon.

The article next in importance to the trade in timber, is that in grain. The island of Bilu, and the whole of the province of Martaban, is so remarkably fertile in grain, that, when under the Burman Government, a large number of boats found employment in the exportation of rice to Rangoon, notwithstanding the very cheap rate at which this article of food was usually obtainable in the

vicinity of that place itself. During the lamentable scarcity of food which prevailed in Rangoon last year, the services of our new settlement were of the most important nature. Its large and seasonable exportations of rice alleviated the wants of thousands, before intelligence of the scarcity could be conveyed to Bengal, and a sufficient supply be received from thence. The island of Bilu, the most productive portion of the province, affords every facility for transportation by land and water, and its proximity to Amherst would render the shipment of its crops both cheap and easy. As the quantity of land in Martaban suitable to the growth of rice, and remaining yet uncultivated, is immense, the price, for many years to come, will be comparatively moderate, and this article will, no doubt, prove a profitable support to the Malay coast, Pinang, the Isle of France, and the coast of Coromandel.

After timber and rice, the articles of export which will probably be first available to the commerce of Amherst are indigo and cotton. The former is rudely manufactured in large jars, and precipitated, or rather mixed, with such enormous quantities of lime, as to render it useless, in its present form, to European commerce; but as the plant luxuriantly flourishes on the banks of all the rivers, when British capital and industry are employed in its cultivation, there is every reason to hope it will be prosecuted with success. The large and numerous islands, as well as the banks of the Saluen, are represented, by those well acquainted with this branch of agriculture, to be peculiarly well adapted to its cultivation.

Cardamums, in small quantities, sesamum, oil, ivory, and bees'-wax, have long been exports from Martaban.

As a depot, from which the Burmese, Lao, and probably the Siamese countries, may with facility be supplied with British and Indian manufactures, Amherst is a settlement of the first importance. The short run by water, between Amherst and Rangoon will secure the supply of that market to the former, by means of the Burmese trading boats and small coasting craft, while the extensive and populous track of Toungoe will be supplied with much greater facility than from Rangoon. The capital of Ava, and the northern and eastern provinces of the empire, were furnished, before the war, with British manufactured cotton goods and woollens, chiefly from Calcutta, by a long and difficult land-carriage through Arracan. It is ascertained that a much shorter and more practicable road is open through Toungoo, and there is little or no doubt existing that trade will be beneficially diverted from its former channel, and that the Ava market will, in future, be supplied by Native traders, who will cross from Martaban to Amherst to lay in their investments. An increased consumption will be the consequence.

It may safely be said, that every branch of trade in which European merchants were engaged in the Burman dominions, may be pursued with equal, and, in most cases, much greater prospect of

success at Amherst; and I consider it one of the most important advantages gained by the late war, that while, by the retention of that settlement, our commercial intercourse with the Burmans, and other neighbouring nations, bears every prospect of considerable extension, it is also placed in such a state of security as could not have been accomplished by any other means. Our commerce is thereby relieved from the numerous petty exactions and annoyances, and our merchants from the more serious oppression and degradation to which they were severally exposed by the haughtiness of the Burman government, and the cupidity of its officers.—*Government Gazette.*

ORGANIC REMAINS IN AVA.

SIR,—I have been much gratified by the interesting account of Organic Remains brought from Ava, which recently appeared in your Paper; although, I confess, I am not so sanguine as the describer, on the subject of their high antiquity, and differ with him on one or two general questions connected with their formation and locality. How, I should like to know, does he explain their conversion into the fossil state, if he do not admit the agency of water? I have always understood, that this element was essentially necessary to the change, whether the original material be derived from the animal or vegetable kingdom. But such an idea is scouted as an 'idle notion,' a mere phantasy unworthy of refutation, and scarcely deserving to be alluded to when descanting on such grave matters of research. I do not believe that the waters of the Irrawady, any more than those of the Ganges, possess the singular property of petrifying whatever substances may be immersed in them; but as the bones in question were not found far from the banks of the former, there is surely no great stretch of judgment in assuming, that its waters may have been instrumental in altering their structure to their present condition. Of what variety of earth does the stony portion of the fossils consist, siliceous, argillaceous, or calcareous? If the last, I should be still more inclined to doubt the alleged origin of these remains; and to deny their claim to antediluvian existence, and denizenship of a 'former' world. Your geologists are a mighty sweeping sect of philosophers, and think nothing of settling affairs 'before the flood,' and of expatiating on the condition of the 'world' antecedent to the present. Some of them are even daring enough to dispute the truths of scripture, and I should not be surprised if the whole Sanhedrim of Boodh were thrown into the greatest alarm and consternation, when they come to learn at Umerapoora, the discovery of these precious relics, and the important consequences likely to be deduced from them. Query, May not the bones belong to the white elephant! and their peculiarities be rather the effect of

disease than of natural structure? From the latest accounts I have read of this variety, it appears to be a sort of *lusus*, like the Albino in the human subject; and ricketty or tuberculated bones in such a frame, I infer, would be considered as nothing either very new or remarkable. At all events, it is highly desirable that the public should have an opportunity of judging for themselves in the matter. I would, therefore, beg to suggest, that your intelligent correspondent be solicited to use his influence in having the bones rendered accessible for the inspection of those concerned. They might be sent, for example, to lay on the table of the Asiatic Society, or exhibited at any of the public libraries in town. It would be curious to compare these fossils with the opposite, but no less extraordinary ones lately fished up from the depths of the ocean in the western world; and were a certain learned Doctor of antiquarian and analytic celebrity now present, I doubt not we should have explained to us more strange and striking points of resemblance than can be even imagined by, your obedient servant, ANTHROPOPHAGUS.—*Government Gazette*.

STANZAS.

Bright my fair! her radiant smile
Is like the sun in her own bright isle;
That sheds its beams from its throne above,
To fit the rose for a wreath of love.

Bright my fair! her breath as sweet
As southern gale when odours meet;
Or evening breezes that bear by
The violet's scent on its soften'd sigh.

Bright my fair! the bright Gazelle,
Though quick he bounds o'er hill and dell,
Less bright, less beautiful by far,
His footsteps fall, than my fair one's are.

Bright my fair! the lark on high
Will sing its sweetest melody;
But sweeter than yon soaring bird
My fair one's tuneful notes are heard.

Bright my fair! but why sing I
Of smiles that fade, and charms that fly?
When her pure heart would well atone
For the withering of each charm when done.

SUMMARY OF THE LATEST INTELLIGENCE CONNECTED WITH
THE EASTERN WORLD.

By a late arrival at Liverpool from Bengal, we have received letters and papers from Calcutta to the 23rd of May, the latest date, we believe, from that quarter in England. These are almost exclusively occupied by one great and all-absorbing subject—the Stamp Tax—on which we gave an article at some length in our last. We shall go through our files, however, in regular order of dates, to extract whatever other information they may contain, and give some of the most striking papers on this principal topic of discussion, as well.

Before we proceed to do this, however, we must advert to a subject of even still higher importance, in our estimation at least, and one respecting which we should have been glad to have witnessed more ample discussion in the Indian prints; we mean, the *arbitrary suspension of an Indian Judge*, by the Government of Bengal, for his venturing to offer an *opinion*, as to a matter judicially brought before him, which was not *agreeable* to the Government in question! This atrocious violation of the independence of the Bench—this infamous destruction of one of the first principles of justice—this tyrannical abolition of the sole guarantee for the upright administration of the laws,—to say nothing of the insulting degradation of an honourable individual for his honesty and virtue—ought to have called forth the indignation of every Englishman in India, and have led to as many meetings and petitions as the apprehension of any new tax that could be thought of. But it touched not the *pockets* of any class, and therefore seems scarcely to have been felt but by those few more enlightened individuals, whose minds can grasp causes and first principles, as well as observe effects and details. The three great questions, of freedom of the press—personal liberty—and independence of the judges—being in themselves causes, or guarantees, for every other sort of liberty in detail, are points on which the firmest stand should be made, because all subsequent matters might, with these securities, be more readily adjusted. But on these there has been a supineness of the most unworthy kind; while on the two great questions in which pecuniary interests have been apparently more at stake, namely, the Vestry Dispute of 1820, and the Stamp Tax of 1827, all India has been in a flame from one extremity to the other, and there have been public meetings, discussions, and petitions to the Local Government, to the Court of Directors, and even to Parliament, by the whole body of the community; while all similar measures, directed to an amendment of the law for restraining the Freedom of the Press, and of that for punishing individuals without trial—(two instruments of tyranny which include all other powers of arbitrary and despotic rule)—were

left to be carried through by half a dozen Natives in India, and one single individual in England. Surely the Stamp Regulation Abolitionists will think of this: and before their zeal or their funds are expended, get up other Meetings and Petitions for the abolition of revocable licenses on British and Native Presses, and on British-born individuals residing in India, as well as for the security of an independent Bench, and the introduction of independent Juries in civil as well as criminal cases. If they do not, it will be an inevitable conclusion, that they are blind to *causes*, and can see only *effects*, or that what immediately applies to their pockets is the only thing on which their public spirit is worth exercising. We hope, however, they will act so as to avoid this unworthy imputation. In the meantime, we proceed to the case adverted to.

In the 'Oriental Herald' for September last, (vol. xiv. p. 565,) we gave the opinion of Mr. Courtenay Smith, recorded on a question brought before him as a Judge of the Supreme Native Court in Bengal, and offered some remarks on the sensation created in India by its tenour and bearing. The following is a more detailed account of the case and opinion, as communicated to the Editor of the 'Calcutta Chronicle' by one of its subscribers:

A case in which Bebee Kaderuh, commonly called Bebee Ismut, was appellant, and Shah Ukburooddeen respondent, was, in the year 1824, decided by a majority of the Judges of the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut against the appellant, as far as her claim concerns lakhuraj, or free assessed lands. I first mention briefly the nature of her claim to those lands, and the substance of the defence on the part of the respondent. The appellant states, that the lands in question were at different periods granted to the ancestors of her husband, and to their successive heirs for ever, by the kings or Dehli, for charitable purposes; that the late husband of the appellant, who was the legal heir and the sole representative of those grantees, departed this life, leaving her, his widow, and a daughter; and that, previous to his death, he gave up to her such land as was in his possession, in consideration of a part of the sum of dower which he owed her; several portions of these lands having formerly been disposed of in a similar manner by his predecessors. She further states that the respondent is by no means entitled to any property given to the ancestors of her husband, and their successive heirs, since he can prefer no hereditary claim to such property. In his defence the respondent prefers no hereditary claim to those lands: he simply states that the husband of the appellant appointed him as his successor; and that the local agent in behalf of Government having approved of this nomination, he has therefore a just right to those lands, which were given for benevolent purposes, and not for the maintenance of the heirs of the grantees, or subject to their uncontrolled disposal. The deeds of gift by the former kings were produced before the Court, the validity of which was acknowledged by both the parties.

and admitted by all the Judges. In those documents two terms are specified: first, that those lands were given to the grantees and their heirs for ever; secondly, that they should employ the produce of those lands for benevolent purposes. Judges, perhaps in reference to the second term, decided the case in favour of the respondent; and he was consequently put in possession of them. The consequences were, that the appellant has appealed to the authorities in England against the decision of the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut; and that Court required of the respondent to produce securities to refund the sum which those lands may annually yield him until the final decision, should the King in Council reverse the decree passed by that Court. The pleader in behalf of Government, on receiving instructions conveyed in a purwanah to his address, offered that Government should stand as security for the respondent; and the following opinion and order were then pronounced by Courtenay Smith, Esq.

"*Beebee Kaderuh, commonly called Beebee Ismut, Appellant.*
Shah Ukburooddeen, Respondent.

"According to the orders of the 31st January of the current year, Moonshee Hussun Ulee, Government Pleader, delivered a purwanah to his address, dated the 7th February of this year, as well as English papers, which have been perused. As suits appealed to the authorities in England are decided by them after many years; and as the period of the Honourable Company's charter will shortly expire; and as, after the expiration of the term of the present charter, it is uncertain whether it will be renewed, or the government of the country will be assumed by his Majesty, or what other event may take place, in my opinion the security of the Government in such a case cannot be accepted. But, as this is an uncommon circumstance, it requires the concurrence of another Judge. It is, therefore, ordered that the papers be presented at the sitting of another Judge, for the final order as to whether the offer of the Government Pleader shall be rejected."

I have been subsequently informed, that two other Judges having differed from Mr. Courtenay Smith, his opinion has been overruled; and it is said that this opinion has subjected him to the severe displeasure of Government.

To this, the Editor of the 'Calcutta Chronicle' appends the following note:

"Our correspondent, in a part of his letter which we have taken the liberty to withdraw, solicits our opinion upon this case; but, we are sorry to say, it is one upon which we do not deem it safe to express our sentiments! We hope soon to take up the question, which he also starts, relating to the independence of the Judges. Here is a case that, if it had occurred in England, would have roused all the Newspapers in the country into action. Imagine the Ministry sending down to the King's Bench, or the Court of Common Pleas, to suspend Lord Tenterden, or Mr. Justice Best, for some opinion given by them in their judicial capacity! Why, there

would be meetings in every ward in the City, and in every parish of Westminster, to teach the Ministers of England their duty, and compel them to respect this sheet-anchor of public liberty, the integrity and independence of the Judges. And yet, in India, an Editor does not deem it safe to express his sentiments!! Can any thing more powerfully bespeak the tyranny of the Government, or the abject slavery of the people living under it, than this? And will no one take the lead in petitioning the legislature of England to raise up its own subjects in the East from the lowest depth of political degradation? They should remember the fable of the waggoner, who, being plunged into the mire, called on Jupiter for help; and the god's reply: 'First put thy own shoulder to the wheel; and then, if thou art disposed to help thyself, Jupiter may also aid thee.'

In the 'Bengal Hurkaru,' in which this letter to the Editor of the 'Calcutta Chronicle' was republished, there is a piece of excellent writing, so keen in its irony, and yet so powerful in its plainness, that we can imagine the Indian secretaries and counsellors biting their lips with shame and rage at reading it; and bursting with mortification at their being unable to lay hold of it as a substantive ground of censure or complaint. It is this: the Editor of the 'Hurkaru' says:

'A letter has been published, containing an order passed by one of the judges of the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, Mr. Courtenay Smith, expressing his opinion that certain security offered by the appellant was insufficient, but stating that, as the reasons which induced him to refuse it had never been assigned before, and the case was therefore a novel one, the opinions of the two other judges had better be taken, which it seems was done, and they proved to be contrary to that given by Mr. Smith: the security tendered was accordingly taken.'

'The writer of the letter which appeared in the 'Calcutta Chronicle' adds in his last paragraph, that this opinion has (it is said) subjected Mr. C. Smith to the severe displeasure of the Government! A more disrespectful insinuation than this against the Government we never recollect to have seen, and we think that the temerity with which the Editor of the paper in which it appeared has given publicity to such an attack, and has sanctioned it, too, by a note appended to the letter, deserves the HEAVIEST PUNISHMENT!! The complete independence of judges, except for misconduct and corruption, is so absolutely necessary to secure any thing like decent government, that it is in the eyes of the whole public a most intolerable imputation to assert that the displeasure of Government could be awakened by any thing but judicial corruption or misconduct, and from any thing of this sort it is pretty well known that no individual can be more free than the one in question. We regard the paragraph as one of the few examples of a really unwarrantable breach of the Press Regulations, of which we can remember any of our contemporaries to have been guilty!!!'

Notwithstanding this ironically pretended disbelief in the possibility of such an act as the suspension of a judge for an honest opinion, it is beyond all doubt that Mr. Smith has been so dealt with, notwithstanding even that his opinion (he being in the minority of the whole bench) was not even acted on, and therefore no evil could have happened in consequence of his entertaining it. On this subject, we present a short extract of a letter which we have seen from India on this subject. The writer says:

'Courtenay Smith's suspension, or dismissal from his Puisne Justiceship of the Sudder, (the Supreme Native Court,) is referred to the Governor-General, and Holt Mackenzie, his chief adviser, who are both still in the Upper Provinces. His crime is detailed in the enclosed scrap of to-day's 'Bengal Chronicle,' and the Editor's ironical horror at the "breach of the Press Regulations" will not escape your notice. Mr. Smith has replied, that he is sorry to offend the Government; but, acting under his oath, in the highest tribunal, and having certain legal doubts, he could not do otherwise than express them, leaving to his brother judges to add or take away from their official weight, by pronouncing their own opinions, and thus ascertaining the views of the majority. The Government is in a phrenzy about this, although it went out of its way to obtain the official knowledge of this judge's single opinion. Right or wrong, however, Mr. Smith's opinion had no practical result; and even had it been otherwise, it is surely better to endure one erroneous, or foolish, or even wicked judge, than to run the risk of intimidating or forcing consciences, or incurring the imputation of tampering with the integrity of the administrators of justice.'

Ay, truly! if the Government of India were interested in the good of its subjects, and wished to see liberty, prosperity, and justice advance under its sway. But they have no such wishes: and hence their utter disregard of all but the gratification of their own love of power and its accompanying passions.

We have said enough for the present on this topic, (to which we shall return again on some future occasion,) and now pass to the question of the Stamp Tax, and the proceedings arising out of it in India. It would be a hopeless task to attempt giving the fiftieth part of the general discussion that this measure has excited in India. The pages of every daily paper of the country, for March, April, and May, teem with articles on this question. We must content ourselves with giving what may be called the "official documents" only, and leaving the rest to be consulted by those to whom the originals are accessible: for our whole Number, of 200 pages, would not contain even a tithe of what has been written. In our last we gave (at page 7) the Petition of the Inhabitants of Calcutta to the Vice-President in Council of Bengal, against the Stamp Regulations (which was signed by about 500 Native and British residents of Calcutta.) The following is the reply of the same authority to the petitioners:

Reply to the Petition of the Merchants and Inhabitants of Calcutta against Regulation XII. 1826, for raising and levying Stamp Duties within the Town of Calcutta.

Territorial Dept. Revenue.

"The petitioners may rest assured that this Government, far from desiring to check or discourage the free expression of the sentiments of the public in the form adopted on the present occasion, is always ready to receive the representations of the community regarding any public measure affecting their interests, which may have been adopted, or may be in agitation, in order that their objections may be fully and candidly considered."

"2. The Vice-President in Council was prepared to expect from the intelligent and practical men, whose names are subscribed to the present petition, such a representation as might assist Government in judging of the probable effect of the Stamp Regulations on the various interests affected by it, and he looked naturally for a statement of the particular transactions on which the duty would bear with undue severity. Instead of this, however, the petition declares the general unwillingness of the subscribers, and of the community, to be subjected to any kind of taxation whatsoever, and relies mainly on an argument against the legality of any measures directed to this end.

"3. The argument is not substantial as applied to the enactment under consideration. If this were indeed illegal, the means of enforcing it would be wanting to the Government. It must in such case remain a dead letter, and the petitioners would not need to address a memorial to the Vice-President in Council soliciting its abolition.

"4. As stated in the petition, the Stamp Regulation has been passed under the authority, with the sanctions, and in the form prescribed in the 98th and 99th sections of the 53d Geo. III. cap. 155. But the petitioners argue, that the power conferred by these provisions has exclusive reference to Duties of Customs, and that the Act was passed merely to obviate difficulties, arising from the imposition of such Duties, within the jurisdiction of the King's Courts.

"5. A reference to the words of section XCVIII. will sufficiently show that this is not the case. The provisions in respect to Customs are contained in a different section (XXV.) which is specially referred to in the terms "in manners hereinbefore prescribed, respecting Duties and Taxes of export, import, and transit of goods, wares, or merchandise." The object of the further rules of section XCVIII. is, in the words of the Act, to confer authority "to impose all such Duties of Customs, and other Taxes to be raised, levied, and paid within the said towns of Calcutta, &c.; and upon and by all persons whomsoever, and in respect of all goods, wares, merchandise, commodities, and property whatsoever, being in any such country or place, in as full, large, and ample manner as such Governor-General in Council, or Governors in Council respectively, may now lawfully impose any Duties or Taxes to be levied, raised, or paid upon or by any persons whomsoever, or in any place whatsoever, within the authority of the said Governments respectively."

"This is beginning with a falsehood. The whole tenour of their conduct shows that they do desire to check the free expression of opinion in any form. But they may safely assert the contrary in a country where no man dares to contradict them.

"6. The fair, natural, and obvious interpretation of these words can only be, that any tax, which the necessities of this Government may compel it to levy on the inhabitants of the country generally, may similarly be imposed by a regulation passed, as directed, within the limits of the special jurisdiction of the King's Courts.

"7. In the eyes of the legislature of England, the inhabitants of the interior have equal claims to consideration with those of Calcutta, and it never could have been intended that the whole burthen of supporting the governments should be borne by the former, while the latter should live as a privileged class, protected from hostile aggression and internal commotion by establishments, to the support of which they contributed little or nothing. The distinction was invidious and unjust, and it was evidently the intention of the rules alluded to wholly to remove it; at the time the Act passed, Stamp Duties on deeds, receipts, and money obligations, had long been levied in the interior of the country, and therefore such duties must have been distinctly amongst the "duties and taxes," within the meaning of the rule cited.

"8. The petitioners proceed to remark, that they "cannot think that the legislature intended to give to the local Government the right of unlimited taxation;" for that, "if the legislature had intended to bestow any general power of taxation, such power would have been introduced by a suitable preamble."

"9. The section in question has a preamble, specially reciting that it is expedient that the local governments should have the power of levying duties in the presidencies, and it proceeds to place residents within the jurisdiction of the King's Courts on the same footing, in regard to taxation, as the population of the interior. So far only is the power conferred as the same may lawfully be exercised in the interior, and so far only was it obviously expedient, nay, just and necessary, that it should be possessed. It cannot surely be maintained that the expediency needed to be proved by argument, and that it was not enough simply to state what was so obvious. The petitioners, however, are in error, in speaking of the power in question as conferred on the local government. No regulation, imposing such duties, can be passed for Calcutta, or for any other of the presidencies, until it shall have been first submitted for the sanction of the Court of Directors, and for the approbation of his Majesty's Government, as represented by the Board of Commissioners in England. This is a wholesome restriction on the exercise of such a power, wisely imposed by the British Legislature. To these authorities the regulation, which the petitioners represent as, in their opinion, illegal, has been submitted, and by them it has been passed, with the aid of the professional talent, general intelligence, and acute discrimination, which the state of society in England places at their command. The petitioners have seen from the preamble, cited by themselves, that this has been the case, and, in the face of such evidence, they ought surely to have hesitated to join in a representation that an act, passed under such restrictions, and by such authorities, was illegal. This government, they must be sensible, could never recognise such a ground for annulling the measure, however willing it might be to admit its own liability to err in the construction of points of British Law.

"10. But the petitioners argue that, because this power has not hitherto been brought into exercise at this presidency, therefore it should not now. The necessities of this government have certainly not hitherto

called for any further direct taxation, and, although there have been periods of temporary embarrassment, the political exertions heretofore made have always been attended with advantages, which have soon replaced the finances of Government on a footing of prosperity, rendering it unnecessary to seek fresh resources.

11. This cannot, however, be said of the present condition of things. The public have evidence of the inefficiency of the existing resources, in the annual invitations to subscribe to loans; and the petitioners must be satisfied, from the uniform conduct of Government, and especially from the reductions in the rate of some, and the abandonment of other duties, made at a period when it deemed itself to possess a superfluity of income, that additional imposts would not now be resorted to, if an increase of income were not deemed indispensable to the proper conduct of affairs.

12. Some time doubtless has elapsed since the act was passed, before the necessity has arisen of calling it into action at this presidency; but if hitherto there has been no new tax or duty imposed in Calcutta, the same may be said of the interior, and the circumstance is only a proof of financial prosperity, and of fiscal moderation under it.

13. This Government has always known that the power existed, and could be applied whenever the necessity of using it might arise. Regulations, similar in form to that which is now the subject of complaint, have, at different times, been passed, in order to protect existing resources, or to change the objects, or the mode of taxation. Thus, in 1817, two regulations were issued for imposing heavy duties on salt and opium, and, in 1820, a similar law was passed for levying a general tax on tobacco. These may, doubtless, be looked upon as custom laws, though the scope and object of those first alluded to was protection to existing branches of revenue, rather than a mere tax on the import, export, or transit of the articles affected. As such, the rules were prepared, and, as such, they received the sanction of the authorities of England, prior to their enactment here, and these, with various other rules, similarly passed into laws, have been recognised and enforced without question, within the limits of Calcutta, as well as in the interior. That other objects have not been made the subject of similar taxation is ascribable to the fact that the necessity did not exist, not to any doubt as to the sufficiency of the power possessed by the local government of passing enactments for the purpose, under the condition of their being first sanctioned and approved in England.

14. At the other Presidencies, and particularly Bombay, where the resources at the command of the local governments are more circumscribed, several taxes have been imposed in this form, and added to the public revenues. Imposts are levied there on carriages and horses. Fees at the police and quarter-sessions, taxes on the use of native music in processions, and on sundry other articles of luxury, taste, and convenience. The enactments for imposing these taxes will be found in the Bombay Code for the years 1817 and 1818, and were passed, like the present Stamp Regulation, under the authority of the statute above cited, and with the sanction and approbation of the Court of Directors and Board of Commissioners in England.

15. But the petition proceeds to state, as a general objection to stamp duties, that they interfere with commercial dealings, and are likely to excite discontent. Unfortunately, these are consequences

inherent in the enforcement of any duty or tax intended to fall on the opulent classes of the community, who have hitherto contributed little or nothing to the support of Government. Customs, though paid in the first instance by the general merchant, fall ultimately on the consumer. But the banker, the money-lender, and the capitalist, of Calcutta, to whom, above all others, the stability of the Government, protection from external enemies, the preservation of internal tranquillity, and the strict administration of justice, are essential, at present contribute nothing in return for such inestimable benefits. There is no sufficient reason why their dealings should be exempt from the obligation of contributing to the maintenance of that order, under which they thrive. Nor is it just or proper that such dealings should be protected from taxation in Calcutta, when elsewhere throughout the country they are carried on subject to the disadvantage. Taxation is, at best, a choice of evils; but if additional revenue is necessary, and that is a point that must be taken on the credit of Government, a Stamp Duty on money transactions seems among the least exceptionable of the taxes to which a Government can have recourse. It is a tax which, as it falls chiefly on the wealthy, will, of course, give discontent to them; but this Government would but ill perform its duty, if, seeking the favour of the opulent classes, it consented to exonerate them, and confined its taxation to the poor.

16. The Vice-President in Council has not hesitated to enter into this explanation of the motives which have influenced the imposition of this tax, in the confidence that they will bear examination.

17. If he cannot satisfy the petitioners of the expediency of the measure, he yet trusts to reconcile them to the burthen by removing the impression that the act is an illegal exercise of power, and by showing that its main object is the fair and equal distribution of the public burthens; by the extension of them to classes who have hitherto enjoyed an inequitable exemption.

18. The petition does not require, nor will it admit of any further reply. The Vice-President in Council did not anticipate from the petitioners an application for the abolition of the enactment on the ground of its illegality, though he was prepared for an expression of dissatisfaction on the part of those affected, and for the exposition of some partial inconvenience from the operation of particular provisions of the law.

19. It will be the wish of Government to correct any inconvenience or hardship that may appear to be of sufficient magnitude to require amendment, but it cannot hold out to the petitioners any hope that the object of their present petition can be complied with.

By order of the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council,
H. T. PRINSEP,
Acting Secretary to the Government.
Council Chamber, the 12th of April, 1827.

The following are the comments of the Editor of the Calcutta Chronicle, by which this document is accompanied:

'We have to-day re-published the petition against the Stamp Tax, and the reply of Government. The signatures are attached to the former, with the exception of the Native inhabitants of Calcutta, which are very numerous, and have been omitted, except

about half a dozen of the names of those most known. As there will soon be a public meeting held to decide on the measures to be adopted to obtain relief from this imposition, we refrain from entering at large into the consideration of the reply to the petition. We shall confine ourselves, on this occasion, to a very brief comment upon this official document.

'The petitioners are assured, at the outset, that the Government have no desire to "restrain the due expression of the sentiments of the public, in the form of petition, regarding any measure affecting their interests, which may have been adopted, or may be in agitation." We are glad, at any rate, to see this official recognition of that PUBLIC, whose existence has so repeatedly been denied by the servile advocates of power. It is in vain, however, to talk of the right of petitioning against measures "in agitation," because we can never exercise it, for we never know of measures affecting our interests until they are decided on. In regard to regulations which require the sanction of the Supreme Court, indeed, we may appeal against them before they become law. But in the case of that unlimited power of taxation which is now first claimed by Government, we know nothing of the measures passed in virtue of it until they are promulgated as laws, having the sanction of the Court of Directors and the Board of Control; and it is an ungracious, if not a hopeless task, to call on the Government to stultify (to use the 'Bull's' phrase) their own acts. Indeed, this is one of the arguments in support of the doctrine, that the Legislature can never have contemplated confiding to the local governments of India the power of unlimited taxation. Every measure of this Government, however it may affect the interests of particular classes or of the whole community, is concocted and passed in secret, and the people know nothing of it, till they are called on to obey it as law. A very important distinction between British-born subjects and their descendants is entirely overlooked by Government, when it argues, that because taxation has all along existed in the Mofussil, it is therefore justifiable here; and that the imposition of taxes upon us is an equitable act, which removes the invidious distinction between us and the Natives. It seems to have entirely escaped those who drew up this reply of authority, that the Natives are a conquered people, over whom the conquerors, the Honourable Company, were left by the British Government to rule according to their own laws, under some certain limitations, indeed, which in no way interfered with their power to extract from them as much as they could; but British-born subjects are surely not in this condition. They bring with them every privilege of Britons not expressly taken from them by law; and there are few privileges of more importance than that of not being subjected to taxation without their consent. The Natives who reside within the Mahratta ditch participate, *ex necessitate rei*, in this privilege, and therefore support their European brethren in their appeal against the tax. The letter of

Government alludes to no such distinction as that we have stated, though, if their construction of the law of the case be correct, it would seem that the privilege contended for is one of those taken away. The power conferred is one, however, of such magnitude, that we cannot conceive, whatever may be the letter of the Act, that the construction of authority can be consistent with its spirit, and the intentions of the British Legislature. The reply, it will be seen, conveys something like a reproach to the petitioners for not having pointed out the "probable effect of the tax on the various interests affected by it, and the particular transactions on which it would bear with undue severity." It is needless to say, that the petitioners resting their appeal against it on broad constitutional principles, and calling for its entire abolition, as an illegal encroachment on their rights, could not conceive it consistent with the grounds or the objects of their appeal to go into the details of the injurious effects which the tax is likely to produce on the interests of the community.

'We have disclaimed the intention of fully discussing, on the present occasion, the merits of the reply of Government to the petition against the Stamp Tax; but there is one argument advanced in it, which appears to us so extraordinary, that we cannot refrain from noticing it now. Whatever may be the fact as to the operation of the stamp taxes in general, we are utterly at a loss to perceive with what show of reason it can be urged that the intended tax is one which affects only the rich, when no minimum whatever is fixed, and when, as the regulation now stands, the man who should take a receipt for eight annas, or even one anna, would be liable to a penalty if the receipt did not bear a one anna stamp!! It is the only instance we know of a tax of the kind without a minimum. At home, the minimum for stamps is, we believe, 2l. But to talk of a tax, without a minimum of any kind, affecting only the rich—is really so extraordinary, that we can only account for the argument being gravely advanced in an official letter, by the supposition, that it was in the contemplation of those who indited it, to remedy the extraordinary defect we have noticed. We hope better things, however; and that, instead of merely fixing a minimum, the authorities, since they will not abolish, will suspend the tax, pending an appeal to the legislature against it.

'The 'Bull' complains of the unsatisfactory brevity of the notice of the proceedings of the meeting held at Messrs. Palmer and Co.'s, on Wednesday last. It is equally a matter of regret to ourselves; but we should think that a paper, which so continually vaunts of its superior circulation, might employ a reporter, and then this cause of complaint would be removed. We do not at all vouch for the accuracy of the brief report we published. The writer in the 'Bull' disclaims all intention of raving: we are glad of this, though his remarks on the reply of Government to the petition, an extract from which we quoted in our last, were very suspicious.

'The Chairman of the Committee of the European and Native inhabitants of Calcutta, who have petitioned for the abolition of the Stamp Regulation, in conformity with the resolutions passed at the meeting, to take into consideration the answer of Government, sent in a reply on Thursday last. We hope to embrace an early opportunity of laying the Chairman's letter, of which we have been favoured with a copy, before our readers; and in the meantime we may remark, that it concludes with respectfully intimating to Government, the intention of the petitioners to apply to Parliament for a Declaratory Act; or, if necessary, for a new enactment respecting the powers vested in the local government, by the 98 and 99 sect. 53 Geo. III. cap. 155, and earnestly begging that the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council will be pleased to suspend the operation of the Regulation till the pleasure of Parliament shall be known. We consider this further communication with the local government as a mere form, which will be attended with no good effect; and we hope, therefore, that no time will be lost in preparing the application to Parliament, and in calling a public meeting, at which the community of Calcutta may give it their solemn and unanimous sanction. No adequate opportunity has yet been afforded to the inhabitants of Calcutta to express their sentiments, but we hope that the petition to Parliament will not be allowed to leave the shores of India without carrying with it such a deep and general impression of public opinion as will make a lasting impression upon the minds of our legislators at home of the impolicy at least, if not of the illegality, of the proposed impost.'

In the Paper of May 1, 1827, is the following further correspondence between the Petitioners and the Bengal Government:

'To H. T. Prinsep, Esq., Acting Secretary to Government.'

'SIR,—I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter dated the 12th, and received the 23d instant, transmitting to me, as Chairman of the Committee of the European and Native inhabitants of Calcutta, who presented a petition praying the abolition of the Stamp Regulation, the reply of Government, which I yesterday submitted to a meeting of the petitioners convened for the purpose.

'2. I have been authorized and directed by the meeting to express their best thanks to the Government for their ready attention to the petition, and for their consideration in stating the reasons which induced them to frame the regulation. The petitioners feel that it would be unbecoming in them to comment on the reply of Government, but they are bound in candour to add, that they cannot acquiesce in the reasoning and inferences which it contains, and feel deeply disappointed that the prayer of the petition has been rejected.

'3. The petitioners respectfully urge, that the inhabitants of Calcutta have never been and are not exempted from bearing any part of the public burdens, but contribute directly or indirectly their full proportion to the support of the state. The revenues of this country are not raised, as in England, by taxation, but they are chiefly drawn from the rent of land and

great commercial monopolies, affecting every individual within or without Calcutta, and to the resources drawn from which all contribute.

'4. The petitioners beg to assure Government, that they have not stated their opinion as to the legality of the measure without the maturest consideration; and although apprized from the preamble, that the regulation has had the sanction of the Court of Directors, and the approbation of the Board of Control, they have no means of knowing whether it passed *sub silentio*, or was debated and submitted to the law-officers of the Crown. The regulation was sent home for approval, without the knowledge of those to be affected by it, and the public had no notice that such a measure was even in contemplation, until it had gone through the formal stages, and was announced as law.

'5. Government having stated that they cannot hold out any hope that the object of the petition can be complied with, the petitioners wish most respectfully to intimate to Government their intention to apply to Parliament for a declaratory act, or, if necessary, a new enactment respecting the powers vested in the local government by the 98th and 99th sec. 53 Geo. III. cap. 155; and they earnestly beg that the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council will be pleased to suspend the operation of the regulation till the pleasure of Parliament shall be known. I have the honour to be, &c.

'April 26, 1827.'

(Signed) J. PALMER, Chairman, &c.

'To J. Palmer, Esq., Chairman, &c.'

'SIR,—I am directed by His Excellency the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council to acknowledge the receipt of your letter, dated the 26th inst., stating that the reply of Government to the petition regarding Regulation XII. of 1826, had been communicated to those who signed it, and soliciting that the Vice-President in Council will be pleased to suspend the operation of the enactment until the result of an application to the Parliament of England on the subject of the authority under which it has been passed shall be made known.

'2. In reply, I am directed to state, that, although His Lordship in Council sees no objection to the petitioners exercising the right that every one possesses of applying to the British legislature, the application for a suspension of the enactment in the interval cannot be complied with. I am desired to add, that all correspondence in respect to matters connected with the Stamp Regulation should hereafter be addressed to Government, directly or through the Collector of Stamp Duties, by the individuals making the representation. I am, &c.

'(Signed) H. T. PRINSEP, Acting Secretary to Government.'

'April 27, 1827.'

In the same Paper is the following editorial introduction, and the official document to which it refers:

'Since our last, a minimum of 50 rupees has been fixed for the operation of the Stamp Tax, as our readers will see by a Government Gazette Extraordinary, republished in another page. This minimum, however, is only to exist during pleasure, until otherwise specially ordered, and may be revoked to-morrow, with exception with regard to bills of exchange, is, as observed by the

'Hukaru,' not very intelligible. We disclaim all ideas, however, of discussing the details of the tax. We do not see that one single objection to its principle has been removed, though we reserve the full consideration of the reply of Government till a future opportunity. In stating this, however, we beg to join in the opinion expressed by our contemporaries, that the liberal and candid manner in which the Government has replied to the petition is extremely gratifying, and calculated to conciliate the British inhabitants, though it cannot remove the dissatisfaction at the measure which it refuses to revoke.

We stated in our last, that the Chairman of the Committee of Petitioners had addressed the Government, soliciting, on their behalf, the suspension of the Stamp Regulation, pending an appeal to the Legislature; and the 'John Bull' of yesterday announces that this prayer also has been refused. This is what we expected; but we confess we do not understand the language in which it is stated that the refusal was conveyed, or rather by which it was accompanied. "The Government," it is said by our contemporary, "took the opportunity of conveying to the mercantile community, that they have no objections, in the present instance, that a petition to the Legislature should be forwarded to Parliament." Do the Government then assert the right of stopping an appeal to Parliament, if they choose! And is it by an act of grace and forbearance on the part of the Government, that we are permitted, in the present instance, to avail ourselves of this privilege, which may hereafter, in all other instances, be denied to the community of Calcutta? We are persuaded that there is some misapprehension, and that the Government could not mean to claim the right of preventing any class of his Majesty's subjects from the freest access to the different branches of the Legislature, in the way of petition, appeal, or memorial. Whatever other rights may have been left to us, the right of remonstrance, at least, against any act supposed to be illegal, unjust, or oppressive, has not and cannot be denied; and we have at least the consolation to reflect, that however deaf the local Government, the Court of Directors, and the Board of Control may be to the arguments which show either the impolicy or the illegality of the new impost, another and a higher court of appeal is still open, in which the just claims of the Indian community may be urged with a greater prospect of success. Even there, however, the interest of ministers too nearly coincides with that of our immediate rulers, to allow us to hope for a favourable result. Yet, whatever the immediate effects of an application to Parliament may be, the ultimate effects must be beneficial. It will bring the affairs of India under review, and it will teach the Government at home that there is a public here, who are not disposed to submit passively to every dictum of authority, but who are determined to employ every legal and constitutional means in the defence and preservation of their rights. The sooner this lesson is taught the better; for if duly

learned, it may have the effect of preventing many a future encroachment upon our liberties and our purses.

Territorial Department, 27th April 1827.

With reference to the provisions of Regulation XII. 1826, for raising and levying Stamp Duties within the town of Calcutta, and to the schedule of duties thereunto annexed, the Vice-President in Council notifies to the public, that the fines, forfeitures, and penalties, prescribed for the due enforcement of that Regulation, will not be demanded, levied, or sued for, on the part of Government, in respect to deeds and writings of the descriptions herein-under-mentioned; and the same will be allowed to be executed and used as heretofore, exempt from stamp duty, with the condition stated, until otherwise specially ordered, and duly notified to the public in the 'Government Gazette,' or by special regulation.

Deeds and writings exempt from stamp duty.

Receipts for any sum of money not exceeding 50 rupees.

Bills of exchange or hoondees for any sum of money, if drawn, *bona fide*, from any place distant more than a hundred miles from the place where the same are made payable, and not negotiated in Calcutta. Also foreign bills of exchange drawn in sets.

Provided, however, that if any bill or bills of exchange drawn in any part of the continent of India, and made payable in Calcutta, shall be negotiated therein, after acceptance, or in any way transferred after such acceptance, to a third party other than the acceptor, and the payee of such bill or bills, the exemption shall not hold in respect to any such negotiated bill or bills, unless the same shall be taken to be stamped prior to such negotiations, or unless there be affixed to each bill a copy of the same, executed on paper stamped with the stamp to which such bill is declared liable, in the schedule annexed to Regulation XII. 1826, above cited.

By order of the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council,

H. T. PRINSEP, Acting Secretary to the Government.

The celebrated PETER GORDON has also again appeared in the Madras Courier; and although we cannot find room for his letter at length, we extract two or three of his many pithy paragraphs for the information of our English readers. He says:

'Mr. Wynn says, we are not represented. Here is a more popular prerogative. Every one has a right to urge his objection to an enactment. Has it been given then only to mock us. Certainly from some cause or other it has been sadly neglected. His office was created for our protection; he ought to know that the press alone can represent any extensive country. That India cannot possibly be represented effectually in England without a very free press. Without it, her wants cannot now be known, even to her local rulers.

William Pitt was not ashamed to say he could not know if there was any thing new, until he saw the papers of the day. The Madras code commences with 1809. The preamble to the first regulation avows as its object, to enable individuals to ren-

der themselves acquainted with the laws upon which the security of the many inestimable privileges and immunities granted to them by the British government depends."

"In the same year, Regulation XXV., the landed interest is reminded of the practice of Asiatic governments, whether Hindoo or Mohammedan, in augmenting from time to time the assessment of the land-revenue and dispossessing landholders. "Wherefore the British Government, impressed with a deep sense of the injuries arising to the state, and to its subjects, from the operation of such principles, has resolved to remove from its administration so fruitful a source of uncertainty and disquietude; to grant to landholders a permanent property in their land in all times to come; and to fix for ever a moderate assessment of public revenues on such lands, the amount of which shall never be liable to be increased under any circumstances."

"Now, in 1827, we daily expect to hear, whereas Stamp Duties have long been raised, levied, and paid within the provinces subordinate to this Presidency, and whereas it appears expedient, with a view to the improvement of the revenue derived from the said duties, and is otherwise just and proper, that a similar tax should be levied and paid within the town of Madras.

"By the same rule, 16 per cent. becomes just and proper for the interior; and a new impost for the town, on account of its greater wealth and light taxation.

"Mr. Editor, Have you never seen a nominated cadet contemplating, as just and necessary, the conquest of little states which used to disfigure the map of British India, and then of larger, because they disconnected portions of our empire?

"Equally just, equally necessary is it, that they be bothered with stamps.

"We reprobate the Mogul's tax on rupees, as batta for recoinage annually; compared with our stamp, it was mild and useful. The stamp in itself is not proper for so poor a country. The purchaser must often go ten, twenty, thirty miles, always dance attendance for its purchase on a servant of government, and often return home without it. It is a tax much fitter for the town than for the interior, but is it wise to choose a tax so English? should we not rather import blessings? It certainly has not been brought in handsomely: it seems palmed upon us as a punishment for some offence of the Presidencies, ordered in a pet.

"The effect I hope is, that we resume the good old English habit of canvassing strictly every measure of government; for we see, though it does not affect us at the moment, it may be made to do so after some time.

"The prosperity of the Presidencies being so marked as to require

a tax, is that *all* that they require? Have they not become fitted for greater privileges than they enjoy?

"Desirable as such immunities are for the town or city, far more so is some greater degree of self-government for the towns and villages of the interior."

The next public step was a requisition to the Sheriff to call a meeting of the inhabitants of Calcutta, to be held at the Town Hall, to which requisition it appears the Sheriff paid due attention, and summoned the meeting accordingly. His authority was, however, overruled by the Government, of which the Sheriff is a servant—such are the securities for municipal independence in India!—and the meeting was countermanded. This fact is announced in the 'Bengal Chronicle' of the 15th of May, in the following manner:

'Meeting at the Town Hall.'

"The notice of the Sheriff intimating that the meeting on Thursday will not take place, was sent to us on Saturday for insertion. It is so worded, that it might convey the idea, that the intimation originated in a change of purpose on the part of the requisitionists, instead of being an act of the Government to prevent the exercise of a right, which is the birthright of every Briton, which is not taken from him by any clause of the Charter, and which seemed to us expressly recognised in Mr. Acting Secretary Prinsep's letter to the Chairman of the Committee of the British inhabitants. The following letter, however, which has appeared in the pages of our contemporaries of yesterday, sets this matter at rest; showing the prevention of the meeting to be the act of the Government, exercising what we conceive to be an extra-judicial authority over the High Sheriff.

'To John Palmer, Esq., and other Requisitionists.'

"Gentlemen,—The notice of the meeting advertised to take place at the Town Hall on the 17th instant, having from inadvertence been published in the papers without previous reference to the authority of Government, as required by a notification issued in the 'Calcutta Gazette' of the 9th of April, 1807; I have been called upon to explain the omission, and the result has been, that the meeting has been disallowed by the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council. I have accordingly issued a notice stating it cannot take place at the Town Hall on that day.

"2. Mr. Chief Secretary Lushington, in communicating the order of Government, informs me that the Government consider themselves precluded, by the positive orders of the Honourable Court of Directors, from sanctioning any general meeting of the inhabitants of Calcutta, having for its object the discussion of topics of the nature of those comprised in the first clause of your requisition.

"I am, however, permitted to add, that although the meeting cannot take place, as advertised, any petition to Parliament against the Stamp Regulation prepared elsewhere, may lie at the Town Hall for signature.

'4. I am further authorized to state, that the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council will be prepared, on specific application made through me, to sanction a meeting to consider the subjects stated in the three last clauses of your requisition.—I have the honour to be, Gentlemen, your most obedient servant,

' Calcutta, May 12, 1827.

T. PLOWDEN, Sheriff.'

'The Government has thought proper to order the Sheriff of Calcutta not to comply with the request of the inhabitants to convene a public meeting, and the Sheriff of Calcutta has thought proper to comply with the orders of the Government. The Government has thought fit to assert its power of preventing all public meetings of British subjects, within the town of Calcutta, and founds this power on an order of the Court of Directors, sent out in 1807. Solemn questions arise on these facts, and we shall be mistaken if the discussion that they must perforce occasion be not carried before other tribunals, over which the Government has no influence, and does not obtain an ultimate decision before the legislature of Great Britain, which will decide for ever whether the local government of the United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies does indeed possess, within the limits of Calcutta, and the pale of English law, a power which the Sovereign of Great Britain could not and dare not exercise. In arguing matters of such deep import, nothing shall tempt us to deviate from that language of respect which we owe to those who possess, by the authority of Parliament, the powers of government; but, in examining how far they extend, we are exercising a sacred right, and no fear of consequences shall deter us from endeavouring to enforce upon the public mind our own deep and settled conviction, that the Government of the East India Company does not possess within the limits of Calcutta an undefined power, and that it possesses no powers beyond those which have been expressly conferred upon it by acts of Parliament, and by local registered ordinances. In 1807, the sovereignty of the Crown of Great Britain might have been disputed by those ignorant of the first principles of English law, on the mere ground that it had never been expressly asserted. Since 1813 it admits of no dispute. We fully acknowledge that throughout India the local government possesses, to a certain extent, a delegated sovereign power. In the interior, the prerogatives of the Crown and the rights of the Natives, may be questions involved in the greatest uncertainty and doubt; the English law is not their birth-right, and its benefits have never been extended to them: they are a conquered people, the government may be despotic. In Calcutta, to which the law of England does extend, we lay it down as a fundamental principle that the government cannot be despotic, and that British subjects possess, in the fullest degree, every right which they enjoy in England, except those which, for reasons of supposed policy, have been taken away. To create a despotism here, the

Crown must assume prerogatives, and Parliament exercise power which they neither possess, and which are abhorrent to the constitution, and destructive of the first principles of that law by which the corporation of the East India Company itself exists.

'If these principles be just, then it remains for us to consider whether the right of petitioning, and the right of meeting to petition have been either restrained or taken away by acts of Parliament, or by local registered ordinances, made under the authority given, and the forms required by Parliament. We shall not pause to consider the question of right, whether such privilege could be taken away even by Parliament; we hasten to the fact—we find that they are not; and we affirm, with full conviction, the British subject within Calcutta possess as full a right to petition, and to meet for the purpose of petitioning Parliament, as the inhabitants of London themselves, and that there is no legal authority existing on the face of the earth by which they can be prevented. It is true that the Governor-General of the East India Company is permitted to send out of the country native-born subjects of Great Britain, when he thinks their conduct is calculated to endanger the Government, and, under that peril, every meeting of British subjects must exercise their right. This power is amply sufficient to prevent an abuse of the right of petitioning, but it does not, it cannot, take away the right. The manner of exercising the right is governed by the Statute Law, such as it existed after the Bill of Rights, and in the last year of George I. British subjects within Calcutta may meet when and how they please, and have no need of the sanction of the Sheriff. When they meet, let them avoid tumult and disturbance, and they can be prevented by no lawful power.

'The Sheriff is a high-magistrate of the King within Calcutta; and it is one of his duties, and his highest duties, according to Blackstone, to see that the rights of the Crown are not impeached within his jurisdiction. He is subject to no power but the law of England, and while he observes the law in the exercise of his functions, there exists not an authority that is above him. Submission to any authority but that of the Crown is a surrender of its rights. The right to censure him nowhere exists but in the Courts of the Crown; the exercise of the power to censure elsewhere is an assumption without right. Within his jurisdiction, the Sheriff can legally and constitutionally convene meetings of the people for the purpose of petitioning, without the permission of any one.

'We lay no stress on precedents, good or bad; they matter nothing. We argue on the broadest principles of constitutional law. If the practice of fifty years had been contrary to the law, it would be of no importance; if it had accorded with it, it could add nothing to its force. But, in fact, during half a century, the British inhabitants of Calcutta have met on many occasions as Englishmen have a right to meet, and have laid their grievances before Parliament

without any other authority than that of the constitution which is their inheritance. If that constitution be infringed in their persons, let us hope that there yet remains a power which can apply a remedy, and a degree of public spirit among them which will not be content until it is obtained.—*Bengal Chronicle*.

‘We have been forestalled in some of our intended remarks on this momentous subject, by an article in the ‘*Bengal Chronicle*’ of Sunday, which we have extracted, and to which we earnestly recommend the attention of our readers. We fully concur with the writer of that article; and are satisfied, that when he asserts that there is no legal authority vested in this Government to interfere with the exercise of the right of petition, he speaks advisedly, or, as a contemporary would say, “from the book.” The Sheriff, in his mere capacity of Sheriff, would, in the performance of his duty, “as a high magistrate of the King within Calcutta, to see that the rights of the Crown are not impeached within his jurisdiction,” have refused to acknowledge the authority to which he has bowed himself: but the Sheriff is also unfortunately a civil servant of the Honourable Company! *Hinc illæ lachrymæ!* In that capacity, he feels that he has no other resource but to kiss the rod that chastens himself, and, in humiliating himself, to sacrifice the rights of hundreds, in so far as respects the official recognition of their privilege to meet for the lawful purpose of petitioning the Legislature of Britain. But what have the British inhabitants to do with this? They are not bound to suffer a deprivation of right, that the Sheriff may retrieve his error in forgetting that he was subject to a two-fold jurisdiction, that he was filling an office under the King, the duties of which might clash with those he owed to this Government as a servant of the Company. There is no law to prevent the British inhabitants from meeting; and, without the smallest intention of disrespect towards the Government, we hope they will still meet at the Exchange on Thursday next, for all the purposes stated in the requisition. When we say there is no law, we do not at all overlook the letter of the Court of Directors of 1806, which is referred to in the Sheriff’s letter, and which was published, it appears, in 1807; but, we say, that is no authority at all binding on the British inhabitants. It proceeds from a source which can neither confer, nor take away from them, a great constitutional privilege. As the Government have acted upon it in “disallowing” the meeting, it would be presumptuous in us to affirm, that it is not an authority for them, though we hope we may be forgiven for stating it as our opinion, that a mere letter of the Court of Directors intended to abrogate an important right of British subjects, dated seven years prior to the existing charter, could not sanction any such deprivation of right as that which is implied in Mr. Plowden’s letter. The right of meeting for the purpose of petition had been previously exercised in India, without, in so far as we know, any interruption. If it had been deemed essential to deprive Britons

of a right so important, such a measure would have formed a subject of specific legislation, and been provided for in the Charter. Indeed, a reference to the consequences of such a doctrine as that now laid down, viz. that a letter of the Court of Directors is sufficient authority to the local governments to supersede, at any time, the exercise of a legal right, is of itself sufficient, we think, to justify our conclusion, that such a doctrine cannot be maintained. If, for example, the Government may go back to a letter of the Court of 1806, there is no law of reason why they may not go back to the darker periods of the history of our progress to dominion in the East. If the Government is bound to go back twenty years in such a case, they may go back an hundred, and rake up against us the memorable orders of former Courts of Directors, which authorized not merely the deprivation of our privileges, but of our liberties, and even lives. But whatever may be its weight with the local government, we respectfully maintain that a letter of the Court of Directors conveys no legal power to deprive British subjects of their rights, and that, therefore, the inhabitants may still meet, if they are resolved to do so. Nay more; the Government has not issued a prohibition of their meeting to petition against the Stamp Tax: it has only announced, that in reference to a certain letter of the Court of Directors, it feels itself bound to “disallow” such a meeting, for such a purpose. Let the meeting, then, be “one disallowed,” but let there, nevertheless, be a meeting which will be legal, though, of course, its proceedings will not go forth with the sanction of this Government, to increase their influence.

‘As the Town Hall would seem to be considered in some way the property of Government, since permission is deemed necessary even for a petition to lie there for signature, the meeting should be held at the Exchange, over which, we apprehend, no such control can be claimed.

‘We have yet a suggestion to offer to the consideration of the British inhabitants, which may be, and we hope is indeed superfluous, but which we deem it still our duty to offer. It is this: that if they are not allowed to meet to petition against the Stamp Tax, they will never degrade themselves by asking permission to meet for any minor object. This would reflect eternal disgrace upon them! They may be deprived of their rights, but they may still preserve their dignity.

‘After writing the above, we saw the ‘*Government Gazette*,’ of last night, which contains the order of the Court of Directors referred to, prohibiting public meetings without the sanction of Government. It consists of an extract from a General Letter from the Court, dated the 23d. July 1806; and is now re-published, for general information, by the Chief Secretary, by order of the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council. It is as follows:—
‘We direct, on the receipt of this dispatch, that public notice be

issued, forbidding, under pain of our high displeasure, any public assemblage, either of our own servants, or of private merchants, traders, or other inhabitants whatsoever, without first obtaining the sanction of the Government, through the medium of the Sheriff for the time being; and we further direct, that, with the application for holding such meetings, the subjects intended to be taken into consideration be also submitted to your previous consideration, in order that you may have it in your power to judge of the propriety of allowing the questions that may be proposed, to be agitated; and on no consideration whatever is the Sheriff, or the officer presiding at such meetings, to allow any subject to be considered that has not been previously submitted for your consideration. We have full confidence, however, that our Governments in India will not preclude our servants, or other European inhabitants, from meeting for the purpose of expressing their sentiments, whenever proper subjects are submitted for their deliberation."

'Whenever proper subjects are submitted for their deliberation! Private merchants, traders, or other inhabitants whatsoever!! Under pain of our high displeasure!!! Ohe, jam satis!!!!' —*Calcutta Chronicle*.

The following article on the same subject, from the 'Bengal Hurkaru' of the 14th of May, deserves to be added to the two preceding:

'The meeting of the inhabitants of Calcutta, at the Town-hall, has been disallowed by the Right Honourable the Vice-President in Council, because a previous reference had not been made to the authority of Government, and because the local government have received positive orders from the Court of Directors not to sanction any meeting of the inhabitants to consider about taxation. We do not know that the sanction of Government, or the authority of the Sheriff, are at all necessary to be obtained, as we know of no law which prohibits public meetings.

'If the authority of the Court of Directors is considered sufficient to take away an acknowledged right, an additional and important subject is presented for the consideration of the petitioners.'

In consequence of this prohibition or 'disallowance,' as it is called, of the meeting summoned at the Town Hall, the same parties who signed the requisition for that, announced their intention of meeting at the Exchange in Calcutta, as merchants, without the sanction either of the Sheriff or his masters. This meeting was to take place on the 23d of May, and as our files of papers extend only to the 22d, we do not know what transpired there. We give the following articles on this subject, however, from the 'Calcutta Chronicle' of the 17th and 22d of May, the last being the latest Bengal paper we have seen:

Meeting at the Exchange.

'Our readers will see, by a notification in another page, that there will be a meeting at the Exchange on Wednesday the 23d instant, and we need not say, it is likely to be numerous and respectably attended. Its proceedings, as we have before stated, will want that formality which the presence of the Sheriff would have given to them; but we nevertheless

less hope and believe, that the measures adopted will not on that account carry the less weight with them at home, but that a petition of the "undersigned British inhabitants," numerous as it will be signed, will receive as much attention from the legislature as if it came in a more technical shape, having the formality which the act of Government has prevented its receiving. Our own view of the case is, that it is not the wish or the expectation of the Government that the British inhabitants of Calcutta should surrender the exercise of an important right merely on the authority of an old letter of the Court of Directors, which they are no more bound to obey than if it were an old song. The Government considering this letter as demanding their obedience, have already performed their duty in declining to sanction the meeting, and the inhabitants now owe it to themselves to perform theirs. It is very important, however, that those who attend the meeting should bear in mind the necessity of observing a stricter decorum than if the High Sheriff, in the performance of his duty, had taken upon himself the regulation of its proceedings and the preservation of order; because there will be at that meeting enemies of the rights of the people, who will gladly seize on any pretext that may justify their own shameful tergiversation and abandoned servility.

'We shall not stoop to argue with those who, boasting that they are Britons, openly advocate the doctrine of passive obedience, and tell us, that the persistence of the Government in any measure ought to be a sufficient proof to us of its wisdom, and put an end to any appeal against it. Hitherto the servile advocates of power have justified their shameful desertion of those principles, which Englishmen of all parties at home profess to maintain, on the ground of expediency, making India an exception to the whole of the British dominions. They have never dared to deny that freedom was a blessing in the abstract, and that in England its existence was not incompatible with the safety of the state and the happiness of the people; but they have maintained, that here it would be destructive of both. This reasoning has been over and over again refuted, and, in fact, those who employ it are divided amongst themselves; the one party contending, with regard to the press in particular, that it is dangerous; the other party that it is merely preposterous and perfectly useless. We shall not go over this beaten ground again. There is at least some palliation in this ingenious sophistry, for the hostility to freedom, for which every Briton should cherish a natural affection, but there is no excuse for the abject servility of the doctrine to which we have been alluding. It cannot even be meant as an exception, unless it be intended ironically, or as a piece of adulation, the oversweetening of which only renders its fulsomeness the more nauseating. If it be true of this Government, that a refusal to revoke any measure is a proof of the wisdom, the policy, and the justice of that measure, we presume it is equally true of any other British Government, unless it is meant to be argued that the Company have a monopoly of wisdom too, as well as of trade. To such a doctrine, then, we shall not stoop to reply; it carries with it its own refutation; nor shall we descend to expose the miserable policy of those, who blow hot and cold, just as it may suit the ends of servile adulation; who, while an appeal of the whole community against a measure of Government is likely to succeed, court popularity by upholding it; but who, the moment they find that it is rejected, begin gradually to veer round, and at length unblushingly proclaim the doctrine of passive obedience. With such would-be supporters of authority, we will not condescend to argue; for those they could defend, must be full-

ciently ashamed of them; and their ill-disguised sycofaney, and their political trimming, have already disgusted the public. But it is argued, that Englishmen coming out to this country, voluntarily submit themselves to such rules, as the Court of Directors or the local Governments may from time to time 'enact.' And, strange to say, the Press Regulation is referred to as a case in point! The Press Regulation was made law here by its registry in the Supreme Court. When the letter of the Court of Directors of 1806, which the local Government consider as enjoining on them the prohibition of a public meeting of the inhabitants of Calcutta to petition to Parliament, is in the same manner made law, however we may condemn, no doubt we must obey it, but until then, we maintain it is no law. If the Court of Directors could, by a mere letter to the local Government, make laws for us, what necessity, we ask, could there be for a clause in the charter, empowering the Governor-General to transmit British-born subjects? Why is not a simple letter, either old or new, sufficient authority—or was this clause in the charter merely to 'make assurance doubly sure?' It is a waste of time, however, to argue against a doctrine which is equally servile and absurd.

An Englishman, in coming out to this country, does not bind himself to obey any law which is repugnant to the laws of his own country, and the power which the local authorities possess, to make laws, if it be not exactly defined, is at least regulated by certain forms, the observance of which cannot be dispensed with. We do not contend, that a regulation, virtually depriving British subjects of the right of petition, could not be registered in the Supreme Court, because we cannot perceive that such a regulation is any more repugnant to British law than that which has deprived his Majesty's subjects of the liberty of the press; and because, if the subtilty maintained by the Company's lawyers, that the local governments may make regulations "beside the law," is the true interpretation of the statute, we do not see how any regulation whatever could be refused registry; but at least, until the Court's letter has received this form of enactment, it cannot deprive the inhabitants of Calcutta of the right of meeting to petition Parliament, or for any other legal and constitutional purpose. The position that we are not a political public, that we have no political rights, it would be a waste of words to oppose, for, as a contemporary asserts, a public cannot exist without political rights.

Another argument advanced against the intended meeting is, that some of those who were most forward in promoting the petition, have now deserted the cause, when they have discovered that the Government will not accede to the prayer of the petition. We are sorry for this on their own account; because it is clear, from the opinions they now express, they ought never to have placed themselves in the position in which they did; but their defection is no reason why a large majority of less pliable individuals should sacrifice their rights. Their motives we do not question, but the validity of their reasoning we utterly deny; and we think it would be infinitely more consistent in those who advance it, to subscribe at once to the doctrine of passive obedience, and never enroll themselves amongst those who deem it their right to appeal against the measures of Government.

We understand that the meeting which we have announced would have been held on the day originally fixed in the requisition, but that it was deemed more dignified and respectful to Government, to allow a Council day to intervene, that it might not be supposed there is any design

on the part of the inhabitants of stealing a march upon authority. The Government has refused to allow the usual formality of a meeting convened by the Sheriff, and the Court will be satisfied that their orders have not been neglected by their servants. Beyond this, we imagine, it is not the intention of the local Government to go; they cannot countenance, but they will not prevent a meeting. Indeed, this is made evident by the expression of the Sheriff's letter, of the regret felt by the Government in being obliged, in compliance with the Court's letter referred to, to "disallow" the meeting. Of course it must be a matter of regret also to the public; for it would have been gratifying to have had all the sanctions of form, to give weight to the intended appeal to the Legislature.

Meeting at the Exchange To-morrow Noon.

It is perfectly unnecessary, we feel assured, to urge any thing by way of inducement to our readers to attend the meeting at the Exchange to-morrow. The objects of the intended appeal to the legislature are the most important that ever engaged the attention of this community. We have seen the town-hall filled with inhabitants, to vote an address or a picture to individuals, whose claims to their approbation were of a very equivocal character. When, therefore, their own most sacred rights as British subjects are at stake, it would be an insult to them to doubt, that they will be less ready to assemble and vote in questions of so much more moment to themselves and to mankind. It is possible, however, that some few may be deterred from attending the meeting to-morrow by a fear of offending people in authority; but if there be any who entertain such an opinion, we should hope that they will be satisfied that any such fear is perfectly groundless when they reflect that, although the meeting has not the sanction of Government, it has not been prohibited; but that, on the contrary, the Government has expressed its regret that it cannot, consistently with its views of the deference due to a certain letter of the Court of Directors, countenance a meeting convened by the Sheriff, for the constitutional purpose of petitioning the legislature. The very expression of that regret is sufficient to show, that there is no desire on the part of Government to impede the exercise of the right of meeting to appeal to Parliament; and, therefore, the idea of there being any hazard of giving offence in attending the meeting, is entirely out of the question. It is much to be lamented, both for the sake of Government and the community, that the circumstance of the office of Sheriff being filled by a servant of the Company should have produced such a consequence as that to which we have adverted; but, in future, we trust the recurrence of it will be prevented, and that one of the objects of the petition will be to obtain the interference of the legislature, to prevent the assumption, by the Court of Directors, of a power superseding the statute law, and to prohibit their servants from obeying any order to employ such extraordinary judicial interference with our rights. We have only to add, that the meeting at the Exchange will not be bound by the precise terms of the requisition to the Sheriff. We should hope, therefore, that while they are praying for declaratory acts to prevent the infringement of their rights, the petitioners will also appeal against that most unconstitutional law, the Licensing Regulation of the Press.

Out of the interruption to the meeting of the inhabitants had arisen a controversy as to the right of British subjects in India to meet, reassemble, and petition, in the way intended; in the course of which, the recent absurdity of Mr. John Adam and Sir John Mordaunt

colm—that there was no Public in India—was re-asserted by the advocates of existing powers. To this a very happy reply was made, by the re-publication from the 'Annual Register' of 1786, of certain resolutions passed at a public meeting of the British inhabitants of Calcutta, on the 25th of July in that year, relative to Mr. Pitt's India Bill. At that period, Sir John Macpherson was Governor-General, just before Lord Cornwallis's arrival. Sir Elijah Impey and Sir William Jones were the King's Judges; and the members of Council were General Sloper, Commander-in-Chief, John Stables, Esq., and the Hon. Charles Stuart. We copy four of their principal resolutions:

'1. Resolved, that his Majesty's subjects in the East Indies are entitled to the protection and support of the laws of England in common with the other subjects of the realm.'

'3. Resolved, that the erection of a new tribunal by the said Act, (Mr. Pitt's Bill,) for the special purpose of trying offences, charged to have been committed in the East Indies; a tribunal unrestrained by the settled rules of law, and subject to no appeal, and the depriving them of their undoubted birthright, the trial by Jury, are violations of the great charter of our liberties, and infringements of the most sacred principles of the British constitution.'

'9. Resolved, that as considerable expense must be unavoidably incurred by our endeavours to obtain redress of our grievances, a subscription shall be opened by the committee who shall be elected by this assembly; and that, as soon as the petition shall be ready for signature, a book shall be produced for the said subscription, to the end that every man may have the opportunity of promoting, by a voluntary sacrifice of a small share of his property, that security of the whole which is the grand object of our petitions.'

'15. Resolved, that the thanks of the meeting be given to the Grand Jury, for having convened a legal and constitutional meeting of the British subjects in this settlement, for the purpose of petitioning his Majesty and the two Houses of Parliament, for redress of those heavy grievances imposed on them by the before-mentioned Act of the Legislature.'

To these resolutions (which the 'Bengal Chronicle' has published at length, but of which we content ourselves with giving four of the most striking only) the Editor appends the following observations:

'A correspondent having kindly extracted for us, from the 'Annual Register' of 1786, an account of the proceedings of a meeting of the British inhabitants of Calcutta held in that year, for objects precisely similar to those to be discussed at the approaching meeting, to be held at the Town Hall, on Thursday next, we have deemed it of sufficient importance to give it a conspicuous place in our columns; and, with reference to the occasion, we conceive that in so doing we are rendering an essential service to our fellow-subjects, whose attention to this invaluable precedent we earnestly solicit. While it may serve as a guide to the proceedings on Thursday next, it furnishes a practical reply to some of the arguments of our Indian alarmists, with Sir John Malcolm at their head. It has been so much the fashion here to argue, that British subjects coming out to this country never pretended to any of the rights of free men, till Buckingham and the 'Journal' appeared to awaken them from the dream of passive obedience, that too many have indolently yielded

up their belief to what was so earnestly insisted on, without taking the trouble to ascertain how far it was founded in fact. The very existence of a public, even in 1826, except for purposes of adulation, has been denied! and the idea of the Company's servants forming part of that public remonstrating against the acts of the Government, has been ridiculed as a monstrous absurdity, or denounced as a dangerous heresy to the orthodox doctrine of non-resistance. Yet we find that forty years ago meetings were held, at which the very claims now denied were insisted on and proclaimed with all the manliness of British feeling, and the fearlessness of British independence. Here we find the British inhabitants, in the very infancy of our power in India, asserting their rights in language worthy of free men, claiming *trial by Jury* as their BIRTHRIGHT, and denouncing the power of transmission, now so much belauded, as dangerous to the security of their persons and fortunes. And who were those who thus dared to claim, in public meetings, privileges which it is now argued that the very act of a Briton's coming to India deprives him of? Radicals and incendiaries of course! No: the leading members of the assembly were civil and military servants of the Honourable Company, some of them who afterwards filled the highest offices in the government of the country, as the names of Duncan, Vansittart, Bristow, may vouch. And yet, in 1827, we are to be told, when British power is predominant over the whole continent of India—when our resources are multiplied to a degree that surpasses calculation—our population of British-born and Anglo-Indian subjects increased in an almost equal proportion—under such altered circumstances we are told that the privilege of meeting for constitutional purposes, or for any other purpose but that of servility, is not ours, and that the liberty of the Press, and trial by Jury, are amongst those rights, the discussion of which is pregnant with danger to British supremacy. Nay more, the very existence of a public for such purposes is denied. We say that the proceedings at the meeting of 1786, furnish a triumphant reply to such servile drivelling.

'Some of the resolutions of that meeting are so applicable to the one about to be held, that we hope to see them adopted, with merely the trifling alterations necessary of titles of Acts of Parliament to be repealed, &c. The measure of appointing a standing committee to watch over our rights and interests, and of a general subscription to defray the expenses of petitions to Parliament and the King, will, we are satisfied, meet the general approbation.

'The objects of the meeting, as declared in the requisition, are scarcely, we think, sufficiently comprehensive. There are laws already in force, which it is as essential to our rights, and the rapidly advancing condition of this community, to have repealed, as it is to have certain statutes extended to us, or others modified, in their application; and we hope, therefore, that no resolution, which may have such an object in view, will be deemed foreign to the objects of the meeting.'

The most important, and, we may add, most gratifying intelligence of all that has yet reached us on the subject of this Regulation, is, however, that contained in a private letter of a late date in May, which says that the Bengal Government had at length discovered that they could not enforce their Stamp Regulation in Calcutta without its being registered in the Supreme Court, and there was every reason to believe that the Chief Justice, Sir Charles

Grey, would not give it his sanction, without which it cannot become a law!

This would be, indeed, a death-blow to the whole scheme; and one which we sincerely hope it will receive.

The extreme length to which our extracts and remarks on the great Question of Taxation without Representation in India has extended, has left us no room for other subjects: though, indeed, it must be confessed that scarcely any other than this all-absorbing one is even adverted to in the Bengal Papers that we have received. A few short extracts, therefore, of miscellaneous matters, from the Papers of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, to which we shall return again for fuller details in our next, must suffice for the present.

BENGAL.

'We understand that a report is in town of disturbances in the Upper Provinces, on the alleged authority of private letters recently received. It is stated, that the death of Dowlut Rao Scindia has not been followed by those pacific arrangements which were anticipated, in consequence of a position made to her authority by the Sardars; and it is added, that the unsettled state of affairs at Gwalior has rendered it necessary to move out the troops stationed at Agra, Kurnaul, and Sangor, with a view to support the measures which the British Government may deem necessary to be taken. The refractory party will, no doubt, be compelled immediately to succumb to the paramount authority.

'The following has been handed to us, by a subscriber, as an extract of a letter from Sylhet, under date 27th ultimo (April):

"Some days since two wretches were detected endeavouring to kidnap two men, for the purpose of carrying them away to be offered up as sacrifices to the tutelary goddess of the Jyntua mountains. She goes by the name of Jyntee Thakooranee. It appears that the Raja of that country has many of these smugglers of human beings in his employ, who dare not return from their hunt without some game, under the dread of being sacrificed themselves; which is, indeed, the case if they are unsuccessful. It is hoped, that the above-mentioned miscreants will be transported for life, as two others were upon a former occasion. The commissioner, it is understood, has expressed his displeasure at the circumstance to the Raja, who is, at present, independent on the British government, and has threatened to take severe measures on the recurrence of a similar case."

'The Government Gazette of last night (May 7) states, that the hills of Pundnah, in the neighbourhood of Sylhet, have lately been surveyed, and that, the result being favourable, it is proposed to form a convalescent establishment in that quarter, the Pundnah hills being equally salubrious with the Nilgherries, and more accessible. The elevation, climate, and natural productions, combine to render them eligible for such a purpose. The same paper mentions, that the commissioners in Arracan intend to establish regular marts at Tatak and Aeng, exempt from any duty, and it is expected that they will be very much frequented by native traders. Both of these projects reflect credit on the individuals who have suggested them, and on the government by which they are promoted.

'It is added, also, that the salt-works and revenue-settlement of Arracan will leave a large surplus over the expenses of civil and military establishments. We mention this here, merely for the purpose of recording the fact, without meaning to draw from it those inferences respecting the alleged necessities of the state, which we have lately heard urged as a justification of an unpopular measure (the Stamp Tax).

'We learn, from the 'India Gazette,' that the river between Calcutta and Chinsurah has been surveyed in order to ascertain whether it would be at all times practicable for the Honourable Company's Steamers to convey troops to that dépôt. The result is stated to be highly satisfactory, there being plenty of water the whole way at any time of tide, except over the Chumnuk and Gorettee Flat, above Poltah Ghaut, which must be crossed on a flood-tide. In the freshes, when this mode of conveyance up the river will probably be most important, we imagine there will be water enough over the flats mentioned, at all times.

'The same paper states, that the reverend Mr. Henderson, in his sermon at the Cathedral on Sunday, noticed, in a most feeling manner, the death of the venerable Marquis of Hastings, and did justice, as far as the occasion admitted, to the public merits and private virtues of this lamented nobleman. The text was admirably adapted to the subject, being taken from the 37th Psalm, verse 37, "Mark the perfect man and behold the upright, for the end of that man is peace."

MADRAS.

'On Saturday we received a 'Madras Gazette Extraordinary,' which merely contained the heads of intelligence received *via* Bombay, which have been already communicated to our readers. We refer to it at present, therefore, merely for the purpose of noticing the way in which Mr. Lushington's appointment to the Governorship of Madras is mentioned. The following is the passage to which we allude:

"Mr. Lushington retired from the Treasury Bench in consequence of his appointment to an exalted situation in India; succeeded in the Treasury by Mr. Planta."

'Whence the delicacy of the Madras Editor, in describing by such a periphrasis that Mr. Lushington has been appointed to succeed Sir Thomas Munro as Governor of that Presidency? Is it that the public announcement, in direct terms, of the intended removal of Sir Thomas Munro, would be displeasing to that distinguished personage? Or is it, that the appointment of Mr. Lushington, who is not unknown at Madras, is so unacceptable, that they are desirous of concealing the fact even from themselves as long as possible? Or to what other cause is this obscure phraseology to be attributed? The appointment of Mr. Lushington is one other instance, we believe, of the elevation of the Company's Servants to the Governorships of India, to which it has been understood that a strong objection has existed; but in the present case, this objection may have been overcome by the fact that Mr. Lushington, although formerly in the service of the Company, has long ceased to be so.

'We understand that the Kolapore Rajah, having broken the treaty made with him at Kittore, occasioned the field force in the Doab to move out. This force, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Welsh, is encamped at Kitabages, in two brigades. The right or cavalry brigade, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Dickson, C. B., consists of the 23d regiment, or W. L. infantry, under Major Henry, on the right flank;

the horse artillery, under Captain Ley; the 4th regiment light cavalry, commanded by Captain Meredith; and the 7th regiment light cavalry, by Major Riddell. The left or infantry brigade, is commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Martin, and consists of his Majesty's 41st regiment, under Lieutenant-Colonel Chambers; the park of artillery, under Captain Wallace; the 1st Bombay European regiment, commanded by Captain Robson; and the 49th regiment Native infantry, by Lieutenant-Colonel Trewman, with a detachment of pioneers, under Lieutenant Pickering.

'The Staff attached to Lieutenant-Colonel Welsh, commanding the Dooab field force, is as follows:—Captain Barclay, Assistant Commissary-General; Captain Lawe, Superintending Engineer; Captain O'Brien, Deputy Judge-Advocate-General; Captain O'Donnoghue, Assistant Quarter-Master-General; Captain Cunningham, Deputy Assistant Quarter-Master-General; Captain Wallace, A. A. A. General; Captain Wallace, Post-Master-General; Captain Watts, in charge of Bombay Commissariat; Captain Grafton, Surveyor; Lieutenant Roberts, Acting Military Paymaster.

On the appearance of this gallant force, the Rajah returned to Kolar, and promised to perform all that was required of him. The conditions now proposed, we understand, are, that he should remain quiet, and disband his new levies, which amounted, it is said, to 10,000 men. The Rajah, however, appears to be of such an unsettled disposition, that little faith is to be put in his promises. He has also agreed to restore the villages he had taken, and to pay the damage done by his followers. Awed by such a force in his neighbourhood, and from former experience, it is expected he will see the necessity of adhering to the conditions now entered upon.

'The heat in camp was very great; the thermometer at 99 degrees in a tent; but we are happy to add, that the force was very healthy, and that not a single case of cholera had occurred up to the 27th ultimo.

'Letters have been received from Nagpoor, stating that the murderers of the unfortunate Lieutenant Dallas have been apprehended.

'We understand that the greater part of the flotilla are on their way, coastways, from Martaban to Calcutta.—April 5.'

BOMBAY.

'His Majesty's ships the *Tamar* and *Pandora* dropped anchor in our harbour on the 13th instant. They comprised part of a naval force sent down to the Red Sea in December last. Several objects were to have been effected by it; and we understand that the most of them have been in whole or in part accomplished.

'One of the most interesting, if not the most important of these objects, was to obtain satisfaction from the people of Barbara, a seaport town, situated on the African coast, about one degree outside the Straits of Babelmandel, for the most barbarous attack and seizure of the brig *Marianne* and cargo some two years ago.

'It appears that Mr. William Lingard, in command of that brig, visited Barbara, which is the entrepôt to the kingdom of Adel, and carries on a trade in gums and coffee with the Arabian Coast.

'He made considerable purchases there, and from the apparent friendly disposition of the Natives was entirely off his guard.

'Certain Arab traders, however, jealous of the interference of Europeans in a trade which had been exclusively confined to themselves from time immemorial, incited the Natives to seize the *Marianne*, which was

accomplished whilst the captain and his brother, the chief officer, were on shore, receiving over part of their purchases. They attacked the crew, wounded the second officer severely in the head and in the side, killed the serang and a Native passenger, and drove every soul belonging to her into the sea, from which they with difficulty escaped; having been savagely refused to be received on board by several dows lying in the harbour.

'The two brothers on shore, hearing of this, endeavoured to make their escape, but were surrounded and detained prisoners. In the meanwhile, a party of boatmen belonging to the port generously formed for their defence; and, after a scuffle with their enemies, succeeded in rescuing the two Lingards from the jaws of destruction. They transported them on board a small vessel which conveyed them to Mocha.

'The officer in command of the naval force sent against Barbara was instructed to exact ample compensation, both on account of the lives and property lost.

'No sooner did the fleet appear off that port, than the inhabitants set fire to the town and fled to the interior. It is said that there was very considerable property consumed. Finding, however, that the British were determined to blockade the port and destroy their trade, they at length commenced a negotiation, and agreed to the demands made against them; paying a portion of the amount then, and promising to discharge the whole by instalments within two years.

'While these events were passing at Barbara, and in the absence of the Resident who accompanied the expedition, a serious disturbance took place at our Residency at Mocha.

'Some Arabs had quarrelled with the sepoys attached to the Residency, and pursued them to the gates at the factory, which were instantly shut on them, and the British flag hoisted in token of danger.

'The surgeon of the Residency, left in charge, was apprised of this disturbance, and that the Arabs were attempting to clamber over the factory wall.

'He came out and found it on the eve of being taken; several Arabs having nearly succeeded in getting into the factory. At this alarming crisis, he shot the first man that advanced dead on the spot, and the others immediately fled.

'But they breathed vengeance against him, and, it is said, dug a grave, and swore on the Koran they would bury him in it. On the return of the Resident it was deemed prudent that the doctor should go on board a ship; and it is imagined he will be compelled to quit Mocha altogether.

'Two ships of war are still at Mocha, as a protection to the Residency; but we have not learned that any general disturbance has arisen from the affair in question.—April 18.

BRITISH COLONIES.

In New South Wales, and at the Cape of Good Hope, we are glad to see the same spirit that is now agitating British India, developing itself in meetings, and petitions to the Legislature, for an extension of their privileges, and for giving them a share in their own government. The folly, as well as injustice, of pretending to govern well such distant countries as these, by power originating

here, and delegated in its exercise to servants sent there to replenish their broken fortunes, and be successively replaced by others as needy as themselves, is too glaring not to be perceived by every reflecting person. The only cure for the evil of such a state of things is, the granting local Legislatures, chosen by the people themselves, or making them wholly independent: a measure which would be as beneficial to the mother country as to the dependency; but one which the former will never originate, nor even concede, till the latter force it from the parent state, as the two Americas have done. It is just as preposterous to keep Colonies for ever colonies, as it would be to keep children for ever children. The very terms of parent state and mother country, imply only nursing and protection of the infant settlements till they are of mature age, and fit to regulate their own affairs, when separation and self-control is as natural and proper as the independence of sons and daughters, when they are old enough to form alliances of their own, to which they do not, however desirable, make the consent of their parents indispensable. And it may be added, that all just minds must approve of such separations rather than see nations or individuals remain for ever in the infantile weakness, if not imbecility, of everlasting tutelage and dependence.

ST. HELENA.

In our Number for September (vol. xiv. p. 594) appeared the substance of some communications addressed to us respecting St. Helena, and the state of affairs there. The paragraph contained a very modified and softened abstract of written communications, given with all the assurance of perfect accuracy, and from quarters not liable to any suspicion of exaggeration. We have since, however, had occasion to learn, from the concurrent testimony of most competent and impartial evidences, that such a representation as there given, cannot, by any means, apply to the existing government of General Walker, whose public conduct has been, throughout his administration, as humane and upright as his private character is universally admitted to be. We deem it an act of justice, therefore, to state this as our conviction; and, as we have had an opportunity of seeing authentic letters written from St. Helena, as late as the 14th of August last, and consequently of more recent date than the previous communications adverted to, we shall give the substance of these also.

It is now nearly five years since Governor Walker was appointed to St. Helena, and during the whole of his residence there, his efforts are said to have been directed to raise the tone and character of both the government and society of that island to a standard more nearly approaching our own; in which those who have the best means of judging think he has eminently succeeded.

The establishment of an Agricultural Society and a public market have benefited the condition of the farmers. A Military Institu-

tion has been of similar use to the young Officers of the island, giving them occupation and instruction in place of the indolence and vacancy which existed before its establishment. Weekly lectures by Dr. Arnott, which had also been undertaken by desire of the Governor, had pleased all the higher classes—and a Savings' Bank and Benefit Society, both of which had been recently established, were as acceptable to the lower classes of the community.

The introduction of the silk-worm, and the manufacture of silk, had already given occupation to many previously unoccupied hands. There were already thirty acres planted with mulberries, and about the same space preparing for plants. The trees were in the most flourishing condition, and some of the young plants, of only twelve months' growth, were already ten and twelve feet high. The silk-worms were also thriving, and the whole of the culture wearing the most promising appearance.

The abolition of slavery was in active progress; and to this, the utmost energies of the worthy Governor were now directed, as they had been before to the abolition of female infanticide in Guzerat. It is this, indeed, which has rendered him in some degree unpopular with slave-owners, and the abettors of the system he wishes to destroy. This may form a clue, therefore, to the interpretation of what might be otherwise inexplicable. But the dissatisfaction of such individuals is only a testimony to the philanthropy and general excellence of the character that excites it.

POSTSCRIPT.

Since our sheets were closed for the press, we received a copy of the 'Calcutta Government Gazette,' of the 31st of May (in deep mourning for the Duke of York). It conveys, however, no intelligence of great public importance. By it we perceive, that the exchange on London, at six months' sight, was 1s. 11½d. per sicca rupee; and that the rate of discount on private bills, by the Bank of Bengal, was eight per cent. The Governor-General was still on his tour in the Upper Provinces, as stated in the following paragraph:

By letters received from Simlah, of the 1st instant (May), we learn that the party continued to enjoy weather delightfully temperate, and to be highly pleased with their quarters. On the 2d, the Right Honourable the Governor-General, and Lady Amherst, were to go upon a visit to a place in the vicinity of Simlah, called Massoo. The deputation to Maha Rajah Runjit Singh, consisting of Captain Wade, Dr. Gerard, and Captain Pearson, had set out on their visit to Lahore some days before the date of our letters.

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DEBATE AT THE EAST INDIA HOUSE.

Wednesday, October 10, 1827.

The minutes of last Court having been read,

THE CHAIRMAN informed the Court that it was specially summoned for the purpose of submitting for confirmation the Resolution of the last General Court, approving the recommendation of the Court of Directors, of the 20th June last, for the appointment of a Staff Captain to be attached to the Military Seminary at Addiscombe, with an allowance of £15s. per diem as pay, and a further allowance of 26l. 5s. per annum, in lieu of diet.

MR. RANDAL JACKSON stated, that perhaps he might be accused of partiality towards the College at Addiscombe, if he entertained a feeling of approbation for an Institution which, from the day of its commencement to the present period, had fully answered all the purposes for which it had been established. It would, however, be a great blessing if all the military gentlemen going out to India should receive a suitable education, which at present was confined to the artillery and engineer officers. No person denied that officers ought to receive a proper education, and he understood that one of the reasons which prevented so desirable an object was the want of room at Addiscombe. Now he begged to remind the Court, that on a former occasion a motion had been brought forward, recommending to the Directors to take into consideration certain circumstances respecting the College at Addiscombe, with the view that that Institution might be dispensed with, and the expenses of that establishment saved to the Company, and that gentlemen, instead of sending their sons to Addiscombe, for the purpose of acquiring such sciences as were necessary, might be allowed to send them to any place, provided that they acquired a sufficient knowledge of their art. This question occupied the Court three days of earnest debate, and he had no doubt that if the question had been put in any reasonable time on any of those days, the motion would have been carried in the affirmative; but the question not having been put till about half-past seven o'clock in the evening, at which time many gentlemen had left the Court, some from fatigue, others from love of their dinners, the previous question was carried. He would, however, take the liberty of suggesting, for the consideration of the Directors, though he stood on that obscure side of the Court, that if confirmed experience proved that gentlemen could be as fairly educated for all needful purposes privately as publicly, not to think it beneath them to consider, whether it would not be a great public benefit, both as regarded purse and policy, to do away with the College at Addiscombe, and to open that spacious and magnificent place, Haileybury, for the education of the infantry and artillery.

THE CHAIRMAN thought it necessary, before he answered the hon. Proprietor, to assure him that the Directors did not consider that side of the House, on which the hon. Proprietor stood, as obscure. With respect to the subject which the hon. Proprietor had mentioned, he could state to him, that it would in due time come under the consideration of the Court of Directors.

GRANT TO THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS.

THE CHAIRMAN informed the Court, that it was made further special for the purpose of submitting to it for confirmation the Resolution of the last General Court, approving of the Resolution of the Court of the 3d of August, granting to the present Marquis of Hastings the sum of 20,000l. on the grounds therein stated.

MR. R. JACKSON requested that the resolution of thanks to the late Marquis of Hastings, of the 11th of December, 1816, respecting the Nepal war—the resolution of the Court of Directors of the 20th of April, 1819, recommending a grant of 60,000l. to the late Marquis—the resolution of the Court of Proprietors of the 10th of June, 1819, approving of that grant—the resolution of thanks of the Court of Proprietors, of the 29th of May, 1822—the resolution of the Court of Directors of the 3rd of August, 1822, and lastly, the resolution immediately before the Court, which was consequent on that of the 3rd of August, should be read.

The whole of these resolutions were accordingly read by the clerk. The last resolution stated in substance that the Court, having taken into consideration the distressed situation of the present Marquis of Hastings, the Marchioness, and the other members of the family, and believing it conducive to the high character which had always been maintained by the East India Company, not to suffer the immediate successor of one of its most distinguished Governors-General to remain subject to the continual pressure of pecuniary difficulties, recommend to the General Court a grant of 20,000l. to the present Marquis of Hastings, in order to enable him to take possession of his paternal mansion.

MR. JACKSON adverted to the resolution of the Court, granting 60,000l. to the late Marquis of Hastings. The object of the Court in making that grant, was that it should be for the benefit of the Marquis, the Marchioness, and their issue. He wished therefore to know the proportions in which it had pleased the Directors to settle that grant.

THE CHAIRMAN stated that the 60,000l. had been put into the hands of Trustees, and the proportions in which it had been settled, were, one moiety to the present Marquis of Hastings, and the other moiety to the four daughters of the late Marquis.

MR. WIGRAM said, that if he recollected rightly, the property had been invested in land, during the lives of the Marquis and Marchioness of Hastings, and that on their demise it would fall to the present Marquis, upon his paying 30,000l. to his sister.

THE CHAIRMAN observed, that that was just the proportion he had stated.

MR. R. JACKSON stated that a practice, which was quite consistent with the constitution of the Court, had, of late years, been discontinued—that of originating motions for grants of money in the General Court. Now, the General Court, however, was called together merely to confirm the Resolution of the Court of Directors. It was quite impossible for persons out of doors, who read these things, not to be led into the belief that the Court of Directors had nothing else to do but to read certain papers, and to call upon the Proprietors for their approbation. It was, however, of the last consequence to the Proprietors, as a body, that the public of England should believe that they continued to possess and to exercise those deliberative functions which the Legislature had assigned to them, and which they would renounce if they

sunk into the perpetual habit of passively approving of the Resolutions of the Court of Directors. He did not make these observations with the slightest feeling of disrespect to the hon. gentlemen within the bar, but but he had stated thus much, because he had come down to the Court with a substantive motion, which he did not mean to move, in terms which would require a second meeting of the Court for its approbation, nor would offend the feelings of any one. He could not consent to record pauperism against the family of Marquis of Hastings, as was done in the Resolution as it stood at present. He did not mean to disparage that Resolution. He dared to say that the framers of it might have had wise reasons for wording it as they had, but the Proprietors were only to consider that paper as it stood before them. He would assume that the Directors were satisfied of that which they had withheld from the Proprietors; they were satisfied of "the continued pressure of pecuniary circumstances on a boy of nineteen;" that they were satisfied of the extreme distress of the family—the proof of all which, nevertheless however satisfactory to themselves, they had withheld from the Proprietors, and that, instead of it, there came, for the edification of future General Courts, one of the most meagre reports ever heard, as forming the ground of the General Court's proceedings. The Report stated that the 20,000*l.* was given to the Marquis of Hastings on account of his pauperism and known distress; and who, it had been stated at the last Court, without such assistance, would be obliged to lie on bare boards. He intended to make a motion to alter the phraseology of the Resolution, as he would prove to the Court that the Resolution contradicted its own preamble. It sets out with a declaration of great regard to the Marquis of Hastings, the Marchioness, and the rest of the family, and concludes with providing for only one of them. He remembered that, in the year 1819, when it was proposed to give 60,000*l.* to the Marquis of Hastings, it was asked how it would operate on the Marchioness and her family, in the event of the decease of the Marquis. And what was the answer? Why, that the Marchioness would find both a husband and a father, in the General Court; which expression was received with universal acclamation. And was it thus that they showed their consistency with their professions, by declaring that they gave assistance to the family of the late Marquis of Hastings, not from a regard to his memory, nor from friendship to his family, but on the naked and disgraceful ground of pauperism, which, if it really existed, delicacy should have concealed. He was sorry he could not, without causing delay, make a motion to double the amount of the grant, and he regretted that the Directors had not taken the precaution of naming the separate individuals of the family of the late Marquis, in the resolution. He could, however, without inconvenience, move an amendment of the terms of the resolution, so that no insidious friend of the present Marquis of Hastings should be able to say to him, that he had no obligation to give a single farthing to his family. He denied that the Court of Proprietors had any proof of the poverty of the family, without which they ought not to presume to pronounce the sentence of pauperism against it. Could any man hear the resolutions, which had been read that day in Court, and see no grounds to give the Marquis of Hastings money, without the excuse of bare boards, and the pecuniary obligations of a youth of nineteen, who, he would venture so say, had never been called upon to pay away a single farthing, except for cricket-bats and riding horses. The honourable Chairman had informed the Court of the generous disposition of this young man, and that there was no fear but that he would provide for his

mother and sisters; but would not the Honourable Chairman laugh, if a solicitor should recommend him to leave out an important clause in a family settlement, in order to rely on the good disposition of a youth of nineteen. He (Mr. R.) must say that he heard the very best account of the Marquis of Hastings, but was any reliance to be placed on the amiability of a youth of nineteen. He never could agree, that the Marquis of Hastings' services had been fully requited. In 1819, 60,000*l.* was granted to him for his military abilities, as the Proprietors had no documents to justify them in rewarding him as a statesman. Three years elapsed from that time, and during the whole time very splendid talents as a statesman were added to the abilities of a soldier. When he first went to India, the paper of the Company was at a discount, but before he came back, he raised it above par, and ended by leaving the Treasury overflowing, which he had found empty. He then requested leave to return home, but when he received the intimation of the desire of the Directors for him to stay until his successor arrived, he answered that he was bound to obey their wishes, and to stay. To judge of the merits of the late Marquis of Hastings, the Court had only to recollect the contents of the Resolution of the General Court of 1822, expressing, upon his application to return home, deep regret at that circumstance, reviewing his whole administration, and then pronouncing in terms the most gratifying to himself, and to the public, that administration to be one uninterrupted series of statesman-like talent. Then how was it proposed to make a return for those services? By placing a record of pauperism against his family, which must and would, as long as there was a malignant person in existence, put it in the power of such persons to taint this excellent woman, her children, and her children's children, by referring to the records of that Court, and showing that 20,000*l.* had been given to them on account of their lying on bare boards. He believed that there was not a nobleman in the land but would regard as an honour to be allowed to enjoy the hand of any of the young daughters of the Marchioness of Hastings, however trifling their fortune might be. He believed their fortune was not more than 100*l.* per annum; yet their names had not been mentioned in the Resolution at all, but the whole of the grant was confined to the young gentleman. It was his object, in the amendment he intended to move, to enhance the material part of the Resolution. He rested nothing on the late Marquis's services, because they had been acknowledged by repeated and crowded Courts, which had already given full and ample testimony to the Noble Marquis's merits. Again he urged that the General Court was entitled to be treated with more ceremony in the Reports, which the Court of Directors were compelled, by Act of Parliament, and the Company's by-laws, to lay before them. In the present instance, the Court of Directors had recommended this grant; on what grounds? No documents whatever were there to show how this illustrious family had become involved in distress—illustrious he said, for it was no disparagement to their lustre that they had felt that pecuniary pressure which had visited the greatest and best of mankind. The late Marquis, with all his faults, was no gambler; he was no profligate; he was idolatrously attached to his wife and children. The dispersion of his fortune was mainly to be ascribed to an inconsiderate spirit of generosity. Why, then, should that Company hand it down to posterity, in their own praise, that they came forward and bestowed a sum of money on the desperate distresses of this noble family? This parade of liberality would not prove economical to the Company in the end. He had read a great number of the petitions presented to the Directors, and every one of

them commenced with lauding the accustomed liberality of the Court. Petitioners would, however, henceforth commence with stating that, having learned that the Company extends its munificence—to what? Not as a reward to eminent services, for there was a distinct consideration of necessity made in the Resolution; namely, to enable a young gentleman to furnish two houses, but the Company extended its munificence to any one not connected with it, who might be under the pressure of pecuniary obligations.

The learned Proprietor concluded by moving, as his amendment, that the words following be submitted for the original Resolution: 'That this Court, referring to its former Resolutions respecting the late Marquis of Hastings, his Marchioness and family, resolve, that a further sum of 20,000*l.* be granted to trustees, for the express purpose of enabling the present Marquis, when of age, to take possession of his paternal mansion, and more effectually consult the honour and happiness of the Dowager Marchioness and the rest of the family.' By adopting this amendment, the Court would put it out of the power of any artful admirer to persuade the Marquis that the grant was intended solely for himself. Reliance ought never to be placed unnecessarily on the good qualities of any individual. The learned Proprietor, in illustration of this principle, related an anecdote which had happened within his knowledge, respecting a young man of rank, whom his mother had loved with a fondness akin to idolatry. She had even taken him in her carriage to one of the Bishops, and entreated a blessing on his head; yet this young man having unfortunately mixed in bad company, his father had been dead only a few hours, when the fond mother received notice to quit the family mansion for ever. It was to guard against the possibility of such consequences as these with that ordinary degree of prudence with which family settlements were made, that the Learned Proprietor moved his Amendment.

The Chairman did not feel competent to follow the learned proprietor through all the details of his speech. The honourable Gentleman stated, that there was no ground before the Court for granting the sum of 20,000*l.* to the Marquis of Hastings; but he must recollect, that the necessities of the late Marquis had been laid before the Court, when it was proposed to give him the sum of 60,000*l.* The honourable gentleman did not think my declaration sufficient, of the unfortunate position of the family, nor did he wish a record of pauperism to be handed down to posterity, though he would have no objection to my laying before the Court a creditor and debtor account of the property of the present Marquis. He had felt deeply gratified, when the proprietors, on the last general Court, took his word for these matters. Some observations had been made at last Court, that it would be worse than nothing to put a man into one of these houses, with only an income of 4,000*l.* a year. But it must be remembered, that this grant would enable the family to live together, and thereby to join their resources, to maintain, in some degree, that rank to which they were entitled. He was as great a friend to the Marquis of Hastings, on public grounds, as the honourable proprietor himself, and it was on that account that he at first proposed to give the sum of 40,000*l.*, but that proposition was abandoned, because the sum was thought too great. He, therefore, thought the observation of the honourable Proprietor, on the meagreness of the report, unequalled for, and he believed it was not the intention of the Court, when they agreed to relieve the necessities of the Marquis of Hastings, to compel him to sign a deed to give protection to his family. Under all these circum-

stances, he lamented the course which the learned Proprietor had pursued; and he would stick to the resolution to which he had put his name, be it good or be it bad.

The Deputy-Chairman (J. PATTISON, Esq.) hoped the learned Proprietor would see the expediency of withdrawing his amendment. The Resolution did not state that the grant was made to him, 'in order to consult the dignity of the Dowager Marchioness of Hastings,' than whom a more noble woman never existed; because the Court thought the young Marquis needed no injunction to lead him to the performance of an absolute duty; and therefore it was more gracious to leave the performance of that duty to his own spontaneous acts. Was there any occasion for them to enjoin the young man to obey the Fifth Commandment. It appeared to him, that the learned Proprietor had come a day after the fair, and he hoped the Court would abide by its first resolution.

General THORNTON hoped the learned Proprietor would attend to the recommendation of the Chair, and withdraw his amendment. Though he disliked the wording of the original resolution, yet to avoid danger he would vote for it. The virtues of the late Marquis of Hastings every one knew, and few men united so many good qualities as he did. He wished that regard to his memory had induced the Court to grant the sum of 40,000*l.* to his family; for how short a way would 20,000*l.* go to relieve their difficulties, which he regretted had been so publicly exposed! He hoped, however, that some good would arise from this evil, and that this discussion would have some effect on the *Grande Monarque*, Charles X. The difficulties of the Marquis of Hastings originally arose from the hospitality shown by him to that Monarch and the French noblesse at the time when they were thrown by distress on this island, and he trusted that the French King would consider this hospitality as a debt of the Crown of France. The sum of 20,000*l.* would scarcely be missed by that King, while it would add materially to the comfort of the family of the Marquis of Hastings. The gallant Proprietor concluded by declaring his intention of voting for the original motion, lest the material part of both the motions before the Court should be lost.

Mr. HUME said, he had supported the amendment, which in spirit was the same as he had moved at the last General Court. He regretted that the hon. Chairman opposed the amendment, and acted inconsistently with his own feelings, merely because he had signed the original Resolution. With respect to what the hon. Deputy Chairman had said of his learned friend being a day behind the fair in making an amendment on the second meeting of the Court, he did not think that objection at all relevant on the present occasion, as the Legislature appointed a second meeting to be held, to enable the Proprietors to consider what they had enacted on the first. These two being the only objections which had been urged against the amendment, he appealed to the liberality of the Court to do this act of grace, without accompanying it with those expressions, of which the malignant and ill-natured might always avail themselves, to reflect on the descendants of this noble family. Why, when all were agreed in substance, should any technicality impede the accomplishment of their wishes? His learned friend (Mr. R. JACKSON) had two objects. The first was, to make this vote consistent with that of former days; that was expressly for the benefit of the late Marquis, the Marchioness, and their issue, in such manner as the Court of Directors might deem expedient. The Company should act in this case as in that of their own family. His learned friend

had related one anecdote of filial ingratitude, which should impress the mind of the General Court. Why should a contingency be wished in this instance, which had been wisely avoided in 1819? The second object of the amendment was to remove the words which seemed to cast reflections on the family intended to be benefited. Before he sat down, he wished to clear himself from a misrepresentation which had appeared in a report of the last Court's meeting, imputing to him words quite the opposite of what he had uttered. He thought that the Court should not grant money to public servants only because they were poor, unless they were entitled to reward on account of their good services; and he made that observation on purpose to guard himself against the misrepresentation of which he complained.

Mr. WEEDING thought that the services of the late Marquis of Hastings had not only been liberally, but beyond measure requited; and he therefore thought that it would have been impossible to have obtained a grant of 20,000*l.* from this Court, on the ground of public services. Upon these considerations he approved of the vote of the Court of Directors, who granted this sum from motives of compassion. It was upon this principle that the widows of officers were granted pensions. Before he sat down, he could not help adverting to the statement of the learned Proprietor, who complained of the exposure of the private necessities of the Marquis of Hastings' family, at the same time that he would have the Chairman come down to the Court with a debtor and creditor account of their affairs. He thought it honourable to the Directors that they had consulted the feelings of the family, and abstained from mentioning their distress but in general terms.

Captain MAXFIELD stated, that the honourable Proprietor who had just sat down denied the possibility of granting the sum of 20,000*l.* for the services of the late Marquis of Hastings, whereas the resolution, on the very face of it, distinctly proclaims that that money should be given for his services. (Mr. Weeding: 'I said services alone.') He (Captain Maxfield) thought that the purse of the Company was not open to the claims of private distress, and that it was only for the services of the amiable and estimable Marquis of Hastings that relief was afforded to his family. Since the amendment had been proposed, a question had occurred to him, which he should like to have answered, as upon the answer depended the manner in which he should vote. The question was, whether it would be legal to amend the resolution of the Court of Directors, and consider this as the second reading of the grant, or whether the Court would not thereby be thrown back into further delay?

Mr. R. JACKSON informed the honourable Proprietor, that as the amount of the sum remained unaltered, no delay would be occasioned to the Court.

Captain MAXFIELD then expressed his determination to support the amendment, for no man was more willing than himself to convey this boon to the family in the way most grateful to their feelings.

An hon. DIRECTOR, whose name we could not learn, read a Resolution of the Court of Directors in 1814, by which, in consideration of the eminent services of the late Viscount Melville, during 17 years that he presided over the Board of Control, a sum of 20,000*l.* was granted to his executors, at the rate of 2,000*l.* per annum, to be applied in liquidation of his debts. It was evident, from this vote, that pecuniary distress was by no means a novel ground for a grant from that Court.

The CHAIRMAN thought it necessary to say a few words on the grounds which compelled him to bring forward the motion under discussion.—An hon. Proprietor had made some observations on the services of the Marquis of Hastings. He was sure that they all highly estimated those services; but he begged distinctly to say, that unless the services of the late Marquis had been accompanied by the distress of his family, he should never have brought this proposition before the Court.

Mr. R. JACKSON was surprised that the request to withdraw his amendment should be accompanied by one uniform argument in its favour. One hon. Gentleman had stated that it was bad taste in him to require some ground for voting the 20,000*l.*; but he must tell that hon. Proprietor that it was the Act of Parliament which required the grounds to be stated on which a vote of money was made. If the Directors intended to grant this money on account of the distress of the present Marquis of Hastings, they were bound to show him that such distress existed. Had the Directors forgotten that Mr. Canning, when at the head of the Board of Control, refused to sanction one of their Resolutions, because they had not complied with the terms of their Constitution, in founding their Resolution on a full report from the Proprietors. The hon. Deputy Chairman had spoken of the bad grace of enjoining on this young man the necessity of obeying the Fifth Commandment; but he thought it was the wisest plan to make security doubly secure. His object was, to do away with the horrible stigma of pauperism, and he should therefore persist in his amendment.

The CHAIRMAN explained. Mr. Canning's refusal to sanction one of their proceedings was grounded on the circumstance that the Company had inadvertently granted a pension for a longer period than their Charter extended to. He could not understand how the Trustees were to act under the amendment of the learned Proprietor. How could they force, by any legal proceedings, the young Marquis 'more effectually to consult the honour and happiness of the Dowager Marchioness, and the rest of the family?'

Mr. R. JACKSON pointed out that the original motion, though it opened by adverting to the situation of the present Marquis, and the other members of the family of his late illustrious father, concluded by stating that the intended grant was 'for the benefit of the present Marquis, and for the express purpose of enabling him, when of age, to take possession of his paternal mansion;' thus confining the advantage to the Marquis alone, and neglecting the other members of the family. The object of the amendment was to create, if not a legal, at least a moral obligation on the Marquis to provide for his mother and sisters. If it was wrong to mention the family at the end of the Resolution, it was equally wrong to mention them at the beginning.

Sir JOHN DOYLE having abstained from all participation in the debate, did not intend, at that hour, to inflict a speech on the Court; but he must say, that if, in any quarter of the globe, an individual could be found in whose character confidence might be placed, it might equally be the present Marquis of Hastings, though his age did not exceed nineteen years. He did not make this observation as a reason for neglecting any precautions. On the contrary, he agreed in the propriety of the amendment. Every person that he heard out of Court, when speaking of this grant, observed what a pity it was, when the Court of Directors was disposed to reward collaterally the services of the late Marquis of Hastings, that they should tarnish their amiable acts by resting it on such a

foundation. He was sure that the Directors, individually, would perform an act of grace in the most gracious manner, and it was strange that this feeling should be lost when they were taken collectively. The amendment was not offensive to the feelings of any one, and he entreated the Directors, without considering from what side of the bar it came—for benevolence was abundant on both sides—to agree to the amendment proposed. He should be highly delighted, if he could say to the objects of this vote, 'If you had been in Court, you would have seen that the whole question was, how to give the money graciously.'

The CHAIRMAN stated, that it was very painful for him to say any thing more on the subject; but he felt that he should do his duty by going straight forward with the original resolution. The Court were well aware of his feelings. He felt deeply the position in which he was placed, but he would do his duty firmly. He would support the Resolution to which he had affixed his signature. After all that had passed, what signified a few words? On the ground of necessity the vote was clearly made, and on that ground he supported it, coupled with the pre-eminent services of the late Marquis. He therefore moved, that the original words proposed to be left, stand part of the motion; which was carried in the affirmative, by a great majority.

The original motion was then put, and agreed to by the whole Court, with the exception of three Directors.

The Court then adjourned.

DINNER TO LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK, BY THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

From a Correspondent of the 'Times.'

ON Wednesday, the Directors of the East India Company gave a grand dinner, at the London Tavern, to Lord William Bentinck, the Governor-General of India, upon the occasion of his departure for that country. The Hon. HUGH LINDSAY in the chair.

Report had excited a vast expectation. It was said that the dinner alone was to be charged at the rate of 12 guineas a-head. Certain it is, that a greater profusion of expensive delicacies was never witnessed at a tavern before. The dinner had been ordered, we understand, for 180 persons—400 might have been accommodated from the materials which were gathered together from distant countries, to exhibit the wealth of this powerful Company. Mr. Bleaden had been ordered to 'stop at no expense,' and he produced a feast which it would not be easy to parallel. The decorations of the great room were simple, but costly in an extreme degree. The dishes and bowls on the table at which the Chairman and the principal guests sat, were of solid gold. Mr. Bleaden had found it necessary, upon the occasion, to hire plate of Messrs. Rundell and Bridges, and the quantity may be guessed at, from the fact that the loan cost nearly 400*l*. We recognized amongst the most massive articles, an urn which belonged to his late Royal Highness the Duke of York. This expensive set-out of the tables was the only novelty we observed in the arrangements, with the exception of the window blinds, on some of which were painted the Arms of the East India Company, while the City Arms blazed upon others. The two galleries, in which musicians are generally in the habit of exhibiting, were filled with beautiful exotic plants and flowers; and, in fact, the whole scene was made to revive the recollections of the

oldest members of the Company who had visited India, of the high perfection of Eastern hospitality.*

It was expected that a great number of the nobility would be present, but the various engagements previously to the commencement of the Parliamentary Session interfered with that expectation. Report stated that 15 Dukes had been invited, and multitudes of persons assembled at the doors, to get a glimpse of the Aristocracy of the country; but it seems that the Directors had resolved to limit the invitations to a more moderate number of the first ranks. The only noblemen we observed were, the noble Lord who was the principal guest, Earl Dudley, Lord Bexley, Lord George Bentinck, Lord Tenterden, Lord Elliot, and Lord George Seymour. Amongst the company were, besides a great number of Baronets and General Officers, the Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, Spring Rice, Esq., Sir Thomas Lawrence, Captain Parry, &c. &c. The gallant Captain's name, upon being announced, excited a considerable sensation. There were 24 Directors present at the entertainment. It was nearly eight o'clock before the company sat down to dinner; there were three courses. After the cloth had been removed,

The CHAIRMAN gave, 'The King.' (Four times four.)

He then rose to propose the health of the Lord High Admiral, in doing which he spoke of the condescending manner in which the Royal Duke had acted upon every occasion on which it had been found necessary to appeal to him; and of the interest which his Royal Highness uniformly took in the maritime affairs of India. This was strikingly exemplified in his conduct with respect to the Bombay Marines. The health of the Lord High Admiral was then drank with three times three, and with warm but not noisy enthusiasm.

The next toasts were—'The Royal Family.' (Three times three.) And, 'The Navy and Army.'

The CHAIRMAN then rose to propose the health of Lord William Bentinck. He said that he felt the highest gratification in performing the duty of proposing the health of the noble Lord who had undertaken the important task of governing the Eastern World—of superintending the interests, and keeping under control, 100,000,000 of people.—(Cheers.) Those around him were aware of the nature of so important a responsibility, and they were also aware of the talents, manliness, and integrity of the noble person who had undertaken the trust. He was convinced that the great duties of the Government would be performed in such a manner as would benefit the Indian and British communities, and secure for the noble Lord the approbation of all. (Cheers.) The experience which Lord William Bentinck had had, put it beyond all doubt that he was well qualified for the situation to which Government had appointed him. The choice had fully met the wishes of the Company, whose interests were so vitally concerned in the prosperity of Eastern affairs; and they hoped and believed that he would return to this country, after having rendered important services in this great office, and receive the grateful thanks of the community for his exertions. (Cheers.) The Chairman then gave 'The health of Lord William Bentinck, and success to him.' (Three times three.)

* This representation of the expensive nature of the entertainment, has been contradicted by another Correspondent of the 'Times,' who signs himself 'A GUEST.'

Lord WILLIAM BENTINCK then rose, to return thanks:

'Gentlemen,—I rise to return thanks for the honour which you have done me, in drinking my health, and for the warmth with which you have cheered the mention of my name, associated as it has been with the interests of the country for which I am on the point of taking my departure. I also beg leave to thank the honourable Chairman, in particular, for the very kind and flattering manner in which he proposed the toast.

'Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen of the Direction, This day ought to have been to me one of complete and unalloyed gratification; but it is not so. My satisfaction is greatly clouded by our recent loss of that liberal and accomplished statesman, who not long since was himself the object of your choice for the very office which I hold, and under whose now silent sanction I feel that I am standing here. On the public claims of Mr. Canning, and my own personal attachment to him, it would be equally impertinent to dwell; but especially when we recumber his long connexions with the East India Company, and the deep and unceasing interest which he took in the welfare of British India, I trust there is no unbecoming vanity in my priding myself, at this moment, on his deliberate approbation of my character, without which your friendly disposition towards me could only have been manifested in vain. Gentlemen, I feel the full weight of the responsibility which his recommendation has laid upon me: I must be careful not to dishonour one of the last measures of a great man's public life, but endeavour, by every exertion in my power, to justify his partial opinion of my qualifications, and the concurrent selection which has been made.

'In contemplating the extreme importance of the charge to which I have been thus appointed, another peculiarity of my situation cannot fail to present itself most forcibly to my mind. If, by God's blessing, my life should be prolonged but for a few years, and if your favour is not unexpectedly withdrawn from me, the conclusion of my government will not long precede the time ordained by the Legislature for the expiration of the Charter of the East India Company. Now, though I dare not hope that my best efforts to afford satisfaction in the management of your affairs can ever be placed in competition with the approved services of the many illustrious men who have gone before me, yet it must be made the constant object of my anxiety, not to impair the wonderful results which have been hitherto produced by the upright and able administration of your honourable monopoly, or to invalidate, by any fault of mine, your just claim to a renewed continuance of the public confidence.

'Gentlemen, if I am brief on this occasion, I will rely on your indulgence, that you will not ascribe my brevity to any want of gratitude, for the great honour which I have received in the appointment of Governor-general—great in itself, highly flattering in all its circumstances; and, let me add, (with the least possible allusion to the past,) most truly gratifying to the best feelings of my nature, from the kind, prompt, and spontaneous manner in which you have been pleased to confer it on me.

'Gentlemen, I beg leave most unaffectedly to return my thanks, and to express my hope, or rather my conviction, that after an honest and uniform endeavour to discharge the duties of the high trust reposed in me, we shall again meet together with the same feelings of mutual respect and kindness.'

The CHAIRMAN then proposed, 'The health of Lord Goderich and

the rest of his Majesty's Ministers,' which was drunk with three times three, amid great cheering.

Lord BEXLEY returned thanks. His Noble Friend (Lord Goderich) he was sure regretted his inability to attend on this joyful occasion. Than the Noble Lord, whose appointment they were celebrating, none was more admirably qualified for the situation in which he was placed. His services to the public had been most important. It would be an injustice not to reward them by distinction, and that reward now awaited him in the Government of the East. He trusted that the words of the honourable Chairman would be verified with respect to the Noble Lord, and that, upon the return of his Lordship, he would be hailed as a man who had executed a great public mission with zeal, ability, and success. (Cheers.)

Lord BEXLEY then proposed, 'The health of the Chairman of the East India Company.' (Three times three.)

The CHAIRMAN briefly returned thanks. He declared that nothing in the world could give him greater satisfaction, than the knowledge that he performed the duties of his station to the satisfaction of his colleagues. The Honourable Gentleman then proposed 'The health of the Right Honourable William Wynn, and the rest of the Commissioners for the Affairs of India.' (Three times three.)

DR. PHILLIMORE returned thanks. He declared that the first Commissioner was animated by the sincerest wish for the benefit of the Eastern Empire. The interests, in fact, of this country, were so deeply interwoven with those of India, that it was impossible to imagine a separation of them, without the injury of one or both. In selecting for the Government of India the Noble Lord, the greatest judgment had been displayed. The manliness of his conduct upon all occasions of public service—the valour with which he had conducted himself on the Continents of Asia and Europe—the noble principles by which he was always known to have been actuated—all contributed to render him peculiarly well adapted to the superintendence of Indian affairs, and justified the opinion that he would promote the happiness and prosperity of the most extraordinary empire that ever the sun shone upon. None could have been more desirous of the appointment of the Noble Lord, than those who constituted the Board that had been just honoured by the approbation of the Company. (Cheers.)

The next toast was 'The Duke of Wellington;' and the last was 'Lord Anherst and the Government of India;' after which the Chairman rose. This movement was the signal for a general departure, and the great room was empty in an instant.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

THE Clarendon Papers will be published in a few days, by Mr. Colburn; in 2 vols. 4to. They comprise the Correspondence of Henry, Earl of Clarendon, and Laurence, Earl of Rochester; with the very curious Diary of Lord Clarendon from 1687 to 1690, containing minute particulars of the Events attending the Revolution. They will be illustrated with Portraits, (copied from the originals, by permission of the Right Hon. the Earl of Clarendon,) and other Engravings.

Lady Morgan's new Irish Tale, entitled 'The O'Briens and the O'Flahertys,' is just on the eve of publication. Lady Morgan is a vivid delineator of national manners and character, and with the faculty of seizing all the picturesque and effective features of history, combines the power of giving, at once with a bold outline and a delicate finish, portraits which strike both by their novelty and

truth, and charm by the colouring of genius with which they are invested. The epoch she has now chosen for illustration, has, in the present state of exhausted combinations, one great recommendation to the novelist—it is untouched. It has also a deep interest in an historical point of view—it embraces events which prepared the Rebellion, and accomplished the Union.

The noble Author of 'Matilda,' which a season or two since attracted so much attention, and to whom one or two other works have been falsely attributed, is about to publish another Tale of the Day, entitled 'Yes and No,' which, according to the report of his Lordship's friends, who have seen the manuscript, will completely establish the Author's reputation as a first-rate Novelist.

The well-known and admired Author of 'Granby,' who has been residing abroad for the last two years, has also nearly ready for publication a New Novel, to be called "Herbert Lacy."

'Angelo's Reminiscences' are in the press, and will very speedily appear, consisting of the Memoirs of the Elder Angelo, his Friends and Connexions, from his first arrival in England in 1750, and continued by his son, Henry Angelo, to the present time. They are expected to excite a high degree of curiosity and interest, in consequence of the introduction of 'personnages marquans,' whose names figure in every page. The two Angelos had the honour of attending professionally, nine members of the Royal Family, and almost all the persons of rank in the kingdom, for nearly eighty years successively, and are thus enabled to add to the interest of their own reminiscences, by introducing numerous original anecdotes and curious traits in the personal history of many noble and illustrious characters. But the book will abound, not only in piquant matters relating to persons of rank, but of talent also—for the elder Angelo's intimacy with Englishmen, as well as foreigners, professors of all the Fine Arts, &c. made his house in Carlisle-street, for many years, the rendezvous of Sir Joshua Reynolds, Garrick, the Sheridans, the Linleys, Gainsborough, Foote, Bach, Abel, &c.; and this circumstance, joined to the fact of his acquaintance with the managers of the London and Dublin theatres, the principal dramatic writers, poets, painters, sculptors, players, composers, and musicians, and all persons eminent for any description of talent, induce us to anticipate two very attractive volumes.

An octavo edition of the curious and valuable Memoirs of Pepys, which sold so extensively in their more expensive form, is nearly ready for publication.

'Vicissitudes in the Life of a Scottish Soldier,' written by himself, will soon appear, and will contain some curious particulars of the Peninsular War, not to be found in works of more pretension on the subject.

Burke's Peerage and Baronetage of the United Kingdom is nearly ready. The new edition, which has been very considerably enlarged and improved, from communications of the first authority, will be infinitely the most complete and important work of the class ever published. It will comprehend the latest alterations in the names of the Baronets, and the titles and creations of the new peers; and, with the convenience of an alphabetical arrangement, will form both a Peerage and Baronetage, at little more than half the price which former works of the kind have cost.

The celebrated author of 'The Spy,' 'The Pilot,' &c. has in the press a new work, called 'The Red Rover.' It is said to be another Tale of the Sea, and to be, of all his works, the Author's favourite.

Allan Cunningham's new Romance, 'Sir Michael Scott,' is expected to appear in a few days. The subject is most promising, and will afford ample room for the exercise both of the Author's romantic and poetical genius.

NOTICE.

As all the Annual Publications are not yet issued to the public, the notice of those intended for the present Number of the 'Oriental Herald' is deferred till our next, in order to comprehend the whole under one general review.

CIVIL AND MILITARY APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, AND CHANGES, IN INDIA.

[B. signifies Bombay—M. Madras—and C. Calcutta.]

- Abbott, J., Lieut., rem. from 2d to 4th comp. 1st batt. Artill.—C. April 27.
 Alston, W., Lieut. 68th N. I., to Capt., v. Thoresby, prom.—C. April 12.
 Ayford, R., Major, 27th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col.—C. April 12.
 Arbuthnot, G., Lieut., 3d Light Cav., to be Adj., v. Brodie, dec.—March 2.
 Armstrong, Lieut. and Adj. (St. Helena), to be Capt., by Brevet.—March 17.
 Agnew, D., Major, 3d N. I., transferred to Invalid Estab., 2d Nat. Vet. Bat., —M. March 23.
 Albert, H. C., Lieut., Inv. Estab., pensioned.—M. March 20.
 Armstrong, Lieut., 40th Foot, on furlough to Europe.—C. March 12.
 Andrews, A., Lieut.-Col. (C. B.), rem. from 49th to 16th N. I.—M. March 7.
 Broughton, E. R., Major, 21st N. I., to be Lieut.-Colonel, v. Ward, prom.—C. April 12.
 Bertram, W., Major, 16th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col.—C. April 12.
 Beadon, H. Assist. Surg., to be 1st Assist. and Assist. Surg. of the **Sunderbund Commission**, v. Hewett, promoted.—C. April 12.
 Baker, F. M., admitted Cadet of Cav.—C. April 10.
 Browne, M. W., Lieut.-Col., rem. from 1st batt. Foot Artill. to 2d brig. Horse Artillery, v. Faithfull.—C. April 20.
 Buckle, F., Lieut., rem. from 4th comp. 4th batt. to the 1st troop, 2d Brigade Artill. v. Birch.—C. April 20.
 Birch, Lieut., rem. from 1st troop 2d Brig. Artill. 4th comp. 4th batt. v. Buckle. —C. April 20.
 Benham, G. W., Lieut., 40th N. I., to be Captain, v. Skardon, prom.—C. May 2.
 Bowron, Assist. Surgeon, posted to 48th N. I., —C. March 2.
 Bean, J. H. Ensign, 15th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Wardell, dec.—M. March 2.
 Burt, N. M., Lieut., 8th Light Cav. on furlough to Europe.—M. March 23.
 Burns, D., Conductor, rem. from Rangoon to Fort St. George.—M. March 20.
 Best, J., Conductor, rem. from Rangoon to Fort St. George.—M. March 20.
 Brice, E., Cadet, to be 2d Lieut. of Artill.—M. March 16.
 Baldwin, J. T., Lieut., rem. from 4th to 3d batt. Artill.—M. March 13.
 Barret, W., Mr., to be Veterinary Surgeon.—C. May 14.
 Baker, F., Mr., admitted Cadet.—B. May 14.
 Burgess, G., Capt., 5th Light Cav., on furlough to Europe.—C. May 18.
 Bachman, S. J., Assist. Apothecary, appointed to Detachment at Chinsurah. —C. May 18.
 Babington, H., Assist. Surg., app. to 2d Regt. Light Cav.—C. May 11.
 Bell, Capt., 68th N. I., to command detachment of Drafts for Arracan.—C. May 6.
 Beaton, T. F. B., Cornet, rem. from 6th to 10th Lt. Cav.—C. Calcutta, May 6.
 Beecher, G. R. P., Ens., rem. from 38th to 4th N. I.—C. May 6.
 Baring, J. D., Cornet, posted to 1st Regt. Light Cav.—C. May 6.
 Burt, H. C., Ens., posted to 64th N. I.—C. May 6.
 Brooke, G. P., Ens., posted to 68th N. I.—C. May 6.
 Boswell, J. S., Ens., posted to 19th N. I.—C. May 6.
 Brooke, F. C., Ens., posted to 7th N. I.—C. May 6.
 Bontem, J., Ens., posted to 81st N. I.—C. May 6.
 Barrett, J., Ens., posted to 54th N. I.—C. May 6.
 Bogie, Assist. Surg., app. to 3d Reg. Local Horse.—C. May 6.
 Blair, Lieut., to act as Adj. to 5th Light Cav.—C. April 27.
 Bamfield, Lieutenant, to act as Interp. and Quarter-Master to the 56th N. I. —C. April 27.
 Balders, W. H., Ens., 16th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Bunney, retired.—C. April 20.
 Blundell, G. S., Lieut., 51st N. I., to be Captain, v. Hawes, prom.—C. April 20.

Caldecott, C. M., Mr., to be Assist. to the Magistrat. and to the Coll. of Mirzapore.—C. May 10.
 Campbell, Mr. J., to be Judge of Zillah Sylhet.—April 12.
 Christian, H. H., Mr., to be Cadet of Cavalry.—C. May 14.
 Corsar, H. F., Mr., admitted Cadet.—B. May 14.
 Cameron, L. J., Mr., to be Assist. Surgeon.—B. May 14.
 Cockson, W., Mr., Cadet, to be Ensign.—B. May 18.
 Cumberlege, E. A., Lieut., 5th Ex. N. I., to do duty with 58th N. I.—C. May 6.
 Craigie, Lieut., 20th N. I., to act as Adj., v. Douglas, on furl.—C. May 6.
 Cookson, J. G., Lieut., posted to the 4th comp. 1st batt. Artill. v. McGregor.—C. April 27.
 Cook, H., Capt., 23d N. I., to be Major, v. Oliver, retired.—C. April 20.
 Costly, W. R. C., Major, 7th N. I., to be Lieut. Col.—C. April 12.
 Campbell, N. Capt., 21st N. I., to be Major, v. Broughton, prom.—C. April 12.
 Coxe, H. D., Capt. 25th N. I., to do duty in the Bhaugulpore Hill-Rangers.—C. April 20.
 Cooke, G. M., Brig. Major on Estab., rem. from his Staff appointment, at the recommendation of the Comm.-in-Chief.—C. March 2.
 Collins, C. J. C., Lieut., posted to the 25th N. I.—C. March 2.
 Clark, C. Ens., rem. from 1st Ex. N. I. to 1st Eur. Regt.—C. March 7.
 Conwell, W. E. E., Surgeon, placed at the disposal of Government, at Fort Cornwallis.—M. March 1.
 Carruthers, D., Cadet, to be 2d Lieutenant Artill.—M. March 16.
 Currie, J., Cadet, to be Ensign.—B. March 16.
 Crozier, T. R., Lieutenant, 34th N. I., to be Adjutant.—M. March 9.
 Chippendall, S. W., admitted as Assistant-Surgeon.—M. March 9.
 Christie, J. M., Ensign, 18th N. I., on furlough to Europe, for health.—M. March 3.
 Campbell, J., Lieutenant, 41st N. I., his services placed at the disposal of the Resident at Hyderabad.—M. March 20.
 Cherry, A. J., Mr., to be Head-Assistant to the Secretary to the Board of Revenue.—M. March 20.
 Cassamajor, J. A., Mr., to be resident at Misoor.—M. March 31.
 Clementson, F. F., Mr., to be Sub-Collector and Joint Magistrate of Masulipatam.—M. March 31.
 Cubbon, M., Lieutenant-Colonel, Deputy-Commissary General, to be Commissary-General, v. Morison.—M. March 13.
 Cameron, J. St. A. M., 8th N. I., to be Lieutenant, v. Tudor, deceased.—M. March 13.
 Donaldson, Assistant-Surgeon, M.D., to do the Medical duties of the Jungapore Residency.—C. May 18.
 Dyke, W. H., Ensign, to be Lieutenant, v. Fitzgerald, prom.—C. May 11.
 Dalrymple, Lieutenant, 7th N. I., to act as Major of Brigade at Berhampore.—C. May 11.
 Day, E., Major, to be Lieutenant-Colonel, v. Peter, retired.—C. April 20.
 Dickson, C., Ensign, 61st N. I., to be Lieutenant, v. Currie, retired.—C. April 20.
 Dalrymple, J. R., Lieutenant, 7th N. I., to be First Lieutenant.—C. April 12.
 Drysdale, J., Major, 50th N. I. to be Lieutenant-Colonel.—C. April 12.
 Dickson, R. C., Captain of Artillery, to be Major, v. McDowell, deceased.—C. April 20.
 Donaldson, R., Ensign, 6th N. I., to be Lieutenant, v. Dallas, deceased.—M. March 9.
 Davis, R., Major, 4th Native Veteran Battalion, removed to Cav. European Vet. Battalion.—M. March 26.
 Down, E. Cadet, to be Cornet, Light Cavalry.—M. March 16.
 Denman, E. H. F., Cadet, to be Second Lieutenant.—M. March 16.
 Ewart, R. S. Mr., admitted Cadet.—B. May 14.
 Elliott, Assistant-Surgeon, is appointed to do duty with 47th Regiment.—C. May 18.

Ellis, W., Lieutenant, 45th N. I., on furlough to Europe.—C. April 28.
 Ewart, J., Lieutenant, 55th N. I., to be Captain, v. Welland, prom.—C. April 12.
 Evans, D. F., Lieutenant, 16th N. I., to be Captain, v. Hall, prom.—C. April 12.
 Egerton, Lieutenant, posted to the 4th Company 2d Battalion Artillery.—C. April 20.
 Eades, F., Lieutenant, 39th N. I., to be Adjutant, v. Dyce.—M. March 9.
 Evans, W., Ensign, 41st Foot, to be Lieutenant, v. Simons, promoted.—C. March 12.
 Eames, R. F., Lieutenant, 33d N. I., appointed to the Rifle Corps.—M. March 19.
 Fitzgerald, Mr. B., to be Assistant to the Secretary to the Board of Revenue in the Central Provinces.—April 27.
 Forth, Assistant Apothecary, appointed to detachment at Chinsurah.—C. May 18.
 Farmer, J., Cornet, 9th N. I., to be Lieutenant, v. Brooke, deceased.—C. May 11.
 Fitzgerald, C., Lieutenant, to be Captain, v. Berghuer, deceased.—C. May 11.
 Forster, G., Lieutenant, 6th Light Cavalry, on furlough.—C. May 11.
 Frazer, W., Lieutenant, 61st N. I., to be Adjutant of Arracan Provincial Batt.—C. May 6.
 Fitzgerald, Captain of Artillery, posted as Brigade-Major to Troops stationed at Burhampore.—C. April 27.
 Forbes, W., Lieutenant, 81st N. I., is appointed to be second in Command of the Mugh Levy.—C. April 27.
 Fender, J., Assistant-Surgeon, appointed to do duty with the 30th N. I.—C. April 27.
 Fiddes, J., Major, 42d N. I., to be Lieut.-Col.—C. April 12.
 Fitton, P. B., Captain, 27th N. I., to be Major, v. Oxford, prom.—C. April 12.
 Fenning, S. W., Lieutenant of Artillery, to be Captain, v. Dickson, prom.—C. April 20.
 Fordyce, J., Lieutenant of Artillery, to be Captain, v. Huthwaite, prom.—C. April 20.
 Faithfull, H., Lieutenant-Colonel, rem. from 2 Brig. Horse Artillery, to the 1st Battalion Foot Artillery, v. Browne.—C. April 20.
 Fagan, C., Lieutenant-Colonel-Com., to command Rajpootana field force.—C. April 1.
 Flower, J. R., Ensign, posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.
 Fitzgerald, J., Lieut., 42d N. I., to be Qua. Mas. Interpreter, &c. v. Griffiths, dec.—M. March 2.
 French, G. E., Cadet, admitted to Infantry, and prom. to Ensign.—M. March 9.
 Faunce, R. N., Ens., 2d N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. March 1.
 Farran, C., Lieut.-Col. Com., 14th N. I., permitted to resign the command at Belary.—M. March 23.
 Grange, R. G., Mr., admitted Cadet.—B. May 14.
 Gwatkin, E., Capt., 13th N. I., to be Superintendent of the Haupper Branch of the Stud Establishment, v. Col. Watt, resigned.—C. May 18.
 Goldney, Lieut., 4th N. I., to act as Adj., v. Macdonald, on furl.—C. May 11.
 Gerrard, J. G., Ensign, posted to 1st European Regt.—C. May 6.
 Gifford, T., Ens., posted to 1st N. I.—C. May 6.
 Grissell, J., Lieut., 46th N. I., to be Capt. of 2d European Regt., v. Thomson, prom.—C. April 12.
 Gray, D. M. Q., Assist.-Surg., appointed to Sirmoor Batt.
 Grissell, J., Lieut., rem. from 2d Eur. Regt. to 46th N. I.—C. March 7.
 Grant, J., Cornet, 5th Light Cav., to be Lieut., v. Willock, prom.—M. March 1.
 Grant, J. P., Assist.-Surg., placed at disposal of Government at Fort Cornwallis.—M. March 1.
 Gartsell, E., Lieut., 5th Light Cav. tran. to Invalid Estab.—M. March 20.
 Gardiner, W. P., 2d Eur. Regt., on furlough to Europe.—M. March 20.
 Gibb, A., Lieut., Assist.-Com.-General, to be Dep.-Com.-General, v. Cubbon, prom.—M. March 13.

- Hughins, G. H., Capt., to resume the command of the escort with the Agent to the Gov.-General.—C. May 18.
- Hart, T. B., Assist.-Surg., appointed to the Medical Duties of the Civil Station at Dacca, v. Sully, rem.—C. May 11.
- Hunter, Lieut., 53d N. I., to act as Interpreter and Quarter-Master, v. Conway, on furlough.—C. May 11.
- Hay, E., Ens. posted to 35th N. I.—C. May 6.
- Howard, Lieut., 1st Eur. Regt., to take charge of the Escort attached to the Political Agent in Harowtee.—C. May 4.
- Huthwaite, E., Capt., posted to 2d Comp. 3d Batt. Artillery, v. Oliphant.—C. April 27.
- Hawes, G., Capt., 51st N. I., to be Major, v. Day, prom.—C. April 20.
- Henderson, J., Assist.-Surg., to be Surgeon, v. Wardell, resigned.—C. April 20.
- Hunter, J., Major, 58th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col. v. Welchman, prom.—C. April 12.
- Higginson, J., Lieut., 58th N. I., to be Capt., v. Welchman, prom.—C. April 12.
- Hull, L. N., Capt., 16th N. I., to be Major, v. Bertram, prom.—C. April 12.
- Hunter, C., Lieut., 50th N. I., to be Capt., v. Rees, prom.—C. April 12.
- Hewett, Assist.-Surg., M. D., to do the Medical duties of the Sunderbund Commission.—C. April 12.
- Holloway, E. V. P., Ens., 42d N. I., to be Lieut., v. Griffiths, dec.—M. March 1.
- Haig, J. R., Lieut., 31th N. I., to be Capt., v. Hodgson, retired.—M. March 2.
- Hodgson, S. J., Capt., 49th N. I., to be Major, v. Trewman, prom.—M. March 2.
- Hewatson, C., Lieut., 49th N. I., to be Capt., v. Hodgson, prom.—M. March 2.
- Harper, H., the Rev., to be Military Chaplain at Bellary.—M. March 20.
- Harnett, R., Gent., to be Ens., without pur. 41st Foot.—C. March 23.
- Hitchins, Capt., to be Dep.-Adj.-General in Ava.—M. March 13.
- Hall, H., Lieut., 41st N. I., on furl. to Europe, for health.—M. March 13.
- Ingram, J. W., Capt., 19th N. I., to be Major, v. Rich, prom.—C. April 12.
- Jenkins, H., Assist. Apothecary, 50th Regt., transferred to Pension List.—C. May 18.
- Jelf, C., Ens., posted to 7th N. I.—C. May 6.
- Jenkins, R. B., Major, 29th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col.—C. April 12.
- Johnston, J., Lieut., posted to 3d Troop, 2d Brig. Horse Artillery.
- Jones, R. E., Ens., posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.
- Jenkins, R. C., Lieut., 61st N. I., to officiate as Sup. of Works at Sulkea.—C. March 23.
- Justice, W., Lieut., of the Rifle Corps, to take charge of detachment of Horse Artillery proceeding to the North.—M. March 1.
- Kenny, J. T. Capt., 11th N. I., on fur. to Europe.—C. May 18.
- Knox, A., Brig.-Gen., posted to the Sangor Division of Army.—C. April 20.
- Kerr, A. B., Cadet, to be Ensign.—M. March 16.
- Kinloch, A. E. M., Ens., 34th L. I., doing duty with 12th N. I., to join his own Regiment.—M. March 7.
- Kerr, A. B., 36th N. I., rem. to 24th N. I.—M. March 7.
- Lindsay, W., Mr., to be Vet. Surg.—May 14.
- Lennox, Lieut., 43d N. I., to do duty with 4th N. I.—C. May 6.
- Locker, J. B., Ens., rem. from 1st to 5th N. I.—C. May 6.
- Laurie, Assist.-Surg., app. to 53d N. I.—C. May 6.
- Lloyd, Lieut., to act as Adj. to 2d Lt. Cav., v. Lawrence on furl.—C. April 27.
- Lamb, C. Y., Ens., 51st N. I., to be Lieut., v. Rhuddell, prom.—C. April 20.
- Long, R., Ens., posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.
- Locke, T., Brev. Capt., 50th N. I., to be Capt., v. McNeill, dec.—M. March 2.
- Lockhart, W. E., Ens., 45th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Nixon, pensioned.—M. March 20.
- Lord, H. F., Cornet, 5th Lt. Cav., to be Lieut., v. Gatskill.—M. March 23.
- Lancaster, C., Cadet, to be 2d Lieut. Artill.—M. March 11.
- Money, E. K., Mr., admitted Cadet of Cav.—B. May 14.
- Mackinnon, K., Mr., M. D., to be Assist.-Surg.—B. May 14.
- Mallock, Lieut. of Engineers, to act as Adj. and Visiting Officer in Fort-Wil-liams.—May 15.
- Mellish, Lieut., 10th Lt. Cav., to act as Adj.—C. May 11.
- Morgan, Ens., 14th N. I., to do duty with 67th N. I.—C. May 11.
- Master, W., Cornet, removed from 10th to the 7th Lt. Cav.—C. May 11.
- Macleod, R. N., Ens., posted to 2d N. I.—C. May 6.
- McConnell, W. G., Ens., posted to 16th N. I.—C. May 6.
- Maitland, F., Ens., posted to 4th N. I.—C. May 6.
- Morton, J., Ens., posted to 43d N. I.—C. May 6.
- Minchin, F. C., Ens., posted to 30th N. I.—C. May 6.
- McGregor, R. G., Lieut., rem. from 4th Comp. 1st Batt. Artill. to the 2d Comp. 3d Batt., v. Huthwaite.—C. April 27.
- McLean, H., Assist.-Surg., app. to the Med. charge of Artill. at Nussacrabad.—C. April 27.
- Moule, J., Lieut., 23d N. I., to be Capt., v. Cook, prom.—C. April 12.
- Macdonald, R. C., Capt., 49th N. I., to be Maj., v. Parke, prom.—C. April 12.
- McGeorge, W., Lieut., 7th N. I., to be Capt., v. Walker, dec.—C. April 12.
- McLeod, B. W., Assist.-Surg., to be Surg., v. Lowe, retired.—C. March 2.
- Miller, G., Lieut., posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.
- Marshall, B., Lieut., posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.
- Marshall, S., Ens., 1st Eur. Reg., to be Lieut., v. Boyce, dec.—M. March 1.
- Mackenzie, H., Ens., 31th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Haig, prom.—M. March 2.
- Mackenzie, G. G., Ens., 50th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Locke, prom.—M. March 2.
- Macqueen, A., Ens., 49th N. I., to be Lieut., and Adj., v. Hewatson, prom.—M. March 6.
- Moore, G. W., Lieut., 2d Lt. Inf., to be Quart.-Mast., Interp., &c.—M. March 23.
- Martin, J., Sub-Conductor, rem. from Fort St. George to the Tenasserim Coast.—M. March 20.
- Montgomery, G., Sub-Conductor, rem. from Rangoon to Goody.—M. March 20.
- Marett, P. T., Ens., app. to 4th N. I.—M. March 28.
- MacLeod, N. L. M., of the 48th, is appointed to do duty with 52d N. I.—M. March 30.
- Macdonald, W. P., Lieut., 41st N. I., is app. to the Rifle Corps.—M. March 31.
- Morison, Lieut.-Col. (C. B.), to be Resident in Travancore and Cochin.—M. March 31.
- McMaster, B., Capt., 6th N. I., to be Maj. of Brig. in Mysoor, v. Hodgson, prom.—M. March 13.
- Neave, Mr. Robert, to be Register of the City Court at Patna.—April 27.
- Nicol, S. J. M., Cadet, prom. to Ens.—May 14.
- Nash, Lieut., to act as Adj. to the 5th Light Cavalry, v. Master on furlough.—C. April 27.
- Nunn, J., Lieut., 21st N. I., to be Capt., v. Campbell, prom.—C. April 12.
- Nicolson, J., Capt., 4th N. I., to be Maj., v. Taylor, deceased.
- Neufville, J. B., Capt., 42d N. I., to be Major, v. Fiddes, prom.—C. April 12.
- Norgate, C., Ens., 18th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Barwell, struck off.—C. March 2.
- Nuttall, R. C., Ens., 19th Native Infantry, to be Lieut., v. Wakefield, struck off.—C. March 2.
- Nixon, H. J., Lieut., 45th N. I., transferred to Pens. Estab.—M. March 2.
- Onslow, M. R., Mr., admitted Cadet of Cav.—B. May 14.
- Onsley, R., Ens., 50th N. I., to do duty with the 39th N. I.—C. May 15.
- Oliphant, W., Capt., rem. from 2d Com. 3d Bat. Artill., to the 13th Com. 6th Bat. v. Powney.—C. April 27.
- Ougeley, J. W. J., Lieut., 28th N. I., to be Capt. v. Incell deceased.—C. April 12.
- Oldfield, F. B. R., Lieut., post. to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.
- Pyford, J., Sub-Conductor, removed from Rangoon to Fort St. George.—M. March 30.
- Ogilvie, W. C., Mr., to be Assist. to the Collect. and Magis. of Musulipatam.—M. March 31.

O'Connell, G., Lieut. Commis. of Ord., to take charge of the Arsenal of Fort St. George.—M. March 13.

Parish, W., the Rev., to be District Chaplain at Kurnaul.—C. May 17.

Parry, R. B., Mr., to be Vet. Surg.—C. May 14.

Pigott, C. C., Mr., admit. Cadet.—B. May 14.

Powney, R., Major, posted to 5th Bat. Artil. v. McDowell deceased.—C. May 6.

Parke, J. C. B., Major, 49th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col.—C. April 12.

Phillips, J. H., Lieut., 42d N. I., to be Capt., v. Neufville.—C. April 12.

Plumbe, T., Lieut., 27th N. I., to be Capt., v. Fitton, prom.—C. April 12.

Pennington, R. B., Assistant-Surgeon, to be Surgeon, v. Johnstone, retired.—C. March 2.

Pocock, R. J., Lieut., 2d Europ. Regt., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. March 23.

Pinchard, G. T., 2d Europ. Regiment, on furlough to Europe for health.—M. March 23.

Paterson, A., Assist.-Surg., 30th N. I., removed to the 1st Bat. Pioneers.—M. March 26.

Pope, H. Y., Ens., app. to 2d N. I.—M. March 28.

Robbins, W. P., Mr., Cadet, prom. to Ens.—May 14.

Ralfe, C., Ens., posted to 3d N. I.—C. May 6.

Rich, R., Major, 19th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col.—C. April 12.

Rees, W. W., Capt., to be Major, v. Drysdale, prom.—C. April 12.

Ross, C. G., Lieut., 19th N. I., app. Aid-de-Camp to Brigadier-General Knox.—C. April 20.

Risdon, P., Lieut., 8th Lt. Cav., permitted to place his services at disposal of Government of Fort Cornwallis.—M. March 2.

Rose, G., Assist.-Surg., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. March 2.

Rand, G. C. C., Lieut., 8th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. March 2.

Ross, A., Capt., Engineers, on furlough to Europe for health.—M. March 2.

Reid, D., Surg., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. March 23.

Robertson, A., Sub-Conductor, removed from Rangoon to Palancottah.—M. March 20.

Rowlandson, G., Cadet, to be 2d Lieut.—M. March 16.

Smith, G. H., Mr., to be Register of Beerbhoom.—C. May 10.

Stevens, T. N., the Rev., to be District Chaplain at Patna.—C. May 17.

Shepherd, H. R., the Rev., to be District Chaplain at Dacca and Chittagong.—C. May 17.

Simkins, A. M., the Rev., to be District Chaplain at Berhampore.—C. May 17.

Scott, D., Mr., admitted a Cadet.—B. May 14.

Siddons, G. R., Mr., Cadet, to be Ensign.—May 18.

Saunders, S. J., Mr., Cadet, to be Ensign.—May 14.

Stewart, Duncan, M. D., to do the Medical Duties of Civ. Station of Dacca and Jellalpoore, v. Sully.—C. May 18.

Sully, B. C., Assist.-Surg., M. D., placed at the disposal of the Commander-in-Chief.—C. May 11.

Shaw, W., Ens., posted to 52d N. I.—C. May 6.

Salkeld, J. C., Ens., posted to 5th N. I.—C. May 6.

Smith, A., Assist.-Surg., to do the Med. Duties of the Civ. Station of Dinagepore, v. Reynolds deceased.—C. May 4.

Snook, J. V., Ens., 23d N. I., to be Lieut., v. Moule, prom.—C. April 20.

Seyer, R. T., Major, 55th N. I., to be Lieutenant Colonel, v. Wiggins, deceased.—C. April 12.

Stubbs, J., Lieut., 49th N. I., to be Capt., v. Macdonald, prom.—C. April 12.

Scatchwell, J., Capt., 29th N. I., to be Capt., v. Jenkins, prom.—C. April 12.

Spens, J., Assist.-Surg., to be second Assist. Garri. Surg. on the Sunderbund Commis., v. Beadon, prom.—C. April 12.

Small, Assist.-Surg., app. to 8th Lt. Cav., at Kurnaul.—C. April 20.

Shakespeare, W. M., Lieut., rem. from 4th Company, 2d Batt., to the 4th Troop, 1st Brig. Horse Artill., v. C. Cleave, dec.—C. April 20.

Stewart, P., the Rev., to be Mil. Chap. at Belgaum.—M. March 2.

Shortes, Capt., Superintendent of Pub. Works, St. Helena, invalided on full Pay.—March 17.

Shree, B., Lieut., 47th R. I., re-admitted on the Estab., without prejudice of rank.—M. March 23.

Simmmons, J., Lieut., 41st Foot, to be Capt., v. Browne, dec.—C. March 12.

Stewart, Brev. Capt., 14th Foot, on furl. to Eur.—C. March 12.

Simpson, Major Carn. Eur. Vet. Batt., rem. to 3d N. Vet. Batt.—M. March 26.

Steel, Capt., to be Dep. Quart.-Mast.-Gen. in Ava.—M. March 13.

Showers, E. S. G., Cadet, to be 2d Lieut.—M. March 16.

Salter, J. H., Cadet, to be 2d Lieut. Artill.—M. March 16.

Taylor, G. J., Mr., to be Collector of Beerbhoom.—C. May 7.

Tabor, S. J., Mr., admitted Cadet.—B. May 14.

Tucker, L. C. A., Cornet, posted to 9th Lt. Cav.—C. May 11.

Thomson, B., Ens., posted to 18th N. I.—C. May 6.

Thorold, C., Ens., posted to 49th N. I.—C. May 6.

Thomson, Capt. of Artill., posted as Major of Brigade to the Rajpootana Field Force.—C. April 27.

Taylor, Lieut., to act as Adj. to five Companies of the 65th N. I.—C. April 25.

Trotter, A., Major, Inv. Estab., app. to the command of the 1st Batt. Nat. Inv. at Allahabad.—C. April 27.

Tritton, Assist.-Surg., to take Med. charge of the 7th Local Horse.—C. April 26.

Thoresby, C., Capt., 68th N. I., to be Major, v. Young, prom.—C. April 12.

Tyler, G. F., Lieut., 16th N. I., resigned.—C. April 12.

Thomson, J. A., 2d Eur. Reg., to be Major, v. Watson, prom.—C. April 12.

Tait, J. F., Ens., 28th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Onsley, prom.—C. April 12.

Tickell, R. S., Ens., 4th N. I., to do duty with 51st N. I.—C. April 16.

Treeman, J. T., Major 49th N. I., to be Lieut.-Colonel, v. Smithwaite, dec.—M. March 2.

Tilloch, Capt., to be Dep.-Commis.-Gen. in Ava.—M. March 13.

Taylor, J. H., Cadet, to be Ens., 22d N. I.—M. March 16.

Wheeler, T. G., Ens., 56th N. I., to do duty with the 67th N. I.—C. May 11.

Wilson, B., Assist.-Surg., app. to 4th Local Horse.—C. May 11.

Worrall, Assist.-Surg., app. to the Medical charge of the Artill. at Neemuch.—C. May 11.

Welland, W. P., Capt., 55th N. I., to be Major, v. Seyer, prom.—C. April 12.

Welchman, F., Capt., 58th N. I., to be Major, v. Hunter, prom.—C. April 12.

Wilcox, Lieut., 4th N. I., to be Capt., v. Nicolson, prom.—C. April 12.

Wood, J. A., Lieut., posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.

Wilson, H. C., Lieut., posted to 25th N. I.—C. March 2.

Willcock, G., Brev. Capt., 5th Lt. Cav., to be Capt., v. Gorton, invalided.—M. March 1.

Ward, T., Assist.-Surgeon, placed at disposal of Gov., at Fort-Cornwallis.—M. March 1.

Wallace, R. T., Lieut., Rifle Corps., to be Quart.-Master, &c., v. Dallas, dec.—M. March 9.

Woollett, W., Mr., admitted as Assist.-Surg.—M. March 9.

Williamson, W., Capt., 3d Lt. Inf., to be Major, v. Agnew.—M. March 23.

Williams, W. L., Lieutenant, 3d Lt. Inf., to be Capt., v. Williamson, prom.—M. March 23.

Wilton, J., Ens., app. to 2d N. I.—M. March 28.

Woodhouse, P. H., Ens., 20th N. I., to do duty with the 36th N. I.—M. April 4.

Wilson, A., Capt., 10th N. I., to be Maj. of Brig. in the Ceded Districts, v. M'Master.—M. March 13.

Welbank, R. T., Lieut., 2d Eur. Reg., on furl. to Eur.—M. March 13.

Wight, A. C., Ens., 8th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Cocker, dec.—M. March 13.

Waite, R., Cadet, to be Ens., 35th N. I.—M. March 16.

Wilson, C. H., Cadet, to be Ens., 6th N. I.—M. March 16.

Watt, M., Lieut., rem. from 3d to 4th Batt. Artill.—M. March 13.

Young, W., Ens., posted 28th N. I.—C. May 6.

Young, F., Major, 68th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col., v. Petter, retired.—C. April 12.
 Yarde, W. G., Ens., 3d L. I., to be Lieut., v. Williams, prom.—M. March 23.
 Uthoff, H. A., Conductor, rem. from Bangalore to Nagpore.—M. March 20.

BIRTHS.

Barnes, the lady of R., Esq., of a daughter, at Purnea, C., May 9.
 Beckett, the lady of J. O., Esq., of a son, at Muttra, April 9.
 Brownrigg, the lady of Lieut. W. M., of H. M. 13th reg., of a daughter, at Dinapore, May 1.
 Brown, the lady of J. C., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a daughter, at Mozufferpore, May 2.
 Bateman, the lady of J. W., Esq., of a son, at Malda, April 9.
 Baldwin, the lady of W. J., Esq., of a son, at Hyrampore, April 29.
 Burroughs, the lady of Capt. W., Fort. Adj. and Barrack Master, of a daughter, at Allahabad, April 19.
 Burney, the lady of R. B., Esq., of a son, at Bauleah Residency, April 10.
 Bentley, the lady of Capt. A., Nagpore Force, at Kamptee, March 18.
 Braham, the lady of Capt., of the Ceylon Reg., of a son, at Colombo, March 8.
 Balmain, the lady of Lieut. Col., 30th N. I., of a son, at Masulipatam, March 16.
 Chalmers, the lady of W., Esq., at sea, on board the *Hibernia*, of a son.
 Church, the lady of Thomas, Esq., Civ. Serv., of a daughter, C., April 9.
 Cracklow, the lady of Capt., of a daughter, at Benares, April 30.
 Clementson, the lady of F., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, on the *Nielgherry Hills*, April 20.
 Campbell, the lady of Lieut. J., 43d N. I., of a son, at Wallajahad, April 16.
 Campbell, the lady of Dr., of H. M. 30th Reg., of a daughter, M., March 26.
 Carlton, the lady of Capt. H. P., of a daughter, at Hyderabad, April 4.
 Colberg, the lady of Capt., Brig. Maj., in Malabar, at Cannanore, March 18.
 Cox, the lady of Capt., Assist. Com. Gen., of a son, at Cannanore, March 16.
 Deans, the lady of J., Esq., of a daughter, at Batavia.
 Debnam, the lady of Capt., H. M.'s 13th L. I., of a daughter, at Dinapore, March 4.
 Eckford, the lady of Capt., 6th N. I., of a daughter, at Calcutta, April 4.
 Fitzgerald, the lady of Lieut. W. R., of the Engin., of a son, at Allypore, May 1.
 Gordon, the lady of A., Esq., of a son, at Saugor, May 4.
 Greaves, the lady of W., Esq., of a son, at Dahnagur, near Commercolly, April 9.
 Hall, the lady of Capt. James, of a son, Calcutta, May 3.
 Haleman, the lady of Capt., 15th N. I., of a son, at Cochin, March 26.
 Johnson, the lady of J. L., Esq., of a daughter, at Cannanore, May 3.
 Mignan, the lady of Lieut., Commanding Resident's Escort, at Bussurah, of a daughter.—C. April 26.
 Monckton, the lady of W., Esq., Civ.-Serv., of a son, at Mynapooree, March 29.
 Macdonald, the lady of Lieut. W. P., Rifle Corps, of a son, at Kamptee, April 20.
 McLean, the lady of Lieut. J. F. G., 3d N. I., at Palamcottah, March 19.
 Orchard, the lady of Capt. Jas., 1st Emr. Regt., of a daughter, at Agra, March 19.
 Pearson, the lady of Capt. J., 65th B. N. I., of a daughter, on board the ship *Coldstream*, March 5.
 Parby, the lady of Lieut.-Col., 19th N. I., of a daughter, April 19.
 Stark, the lady of Capt. R., of H. M.'s 14th Regt., of a daughter.—C., May 19.
 Simmons, the lady of Lieut.-Col., 48th N. I., of a daughter.—C., April 21.
 Stuart, the lady of Lieut.-Col. J. L., of twins, a son and daughter, at Chowringhee, May 13.
 Smaller, the wife of Mr. L. S., Assistant-Surveyor, of a daughter, at Durwar—M. April 17.

Shortland, the lady of Lieut. V., Super. of the North Div. of Cuttack Road of a daughter, at Midnapore, May 5.
 Sandys, the lady of Capt. H. C. Nagpore Service, of a son, at Rypore, April 16.
 Sibley, the lady of Lieut., H. M.'s 46th Regt., of a daughter.—B., April 1.
 Thomas, the lady of W., Esq., Surgeon, of a son, at Barrackpore, April 18.
 Wilkinson, the lady of the Rev. Mr., of a son, at sea, on board the *Hibernia*.
 Wilson, the lady of Major D., Resident in the Persian Gulf, of a daughter, at sea, on board the ship *Francis Warden*.
 Ward, the lady of Lieut. A. G., 68th N. I. of a daughter.—C., April 19.
 Wright, the lady of the Rev. J., Chaplain, at Trichinopoly.—M., March 30.
 Welch, the lady of Capt., 54th Foot, of a son, at Cannanore, March 11.

MARRIAGES.

Armstrong, Lieut. W., of H. M.'s 30th Regt., to Miss F. M. Mackenzie, eldest daughter of C. Mackenzie, Member of the Board of Trade, C., April 30.
 Boisragon, Lieut. C. H., Interp. and Quart.-Mast, 4th Extra Regt., to Ellen Gardner, eldest daughter of Brigadier W. G. Maxwell, C. B., commanding in Oude, at Lucknow, April 25.
 Crawley, Capt. W. G., to Miss M. A. Honeson, at Calcutta, May 17.
 Colvin, J. R., Esq., to Miss C. S. Sneyd, daughter of the Rev. W. Sneyd, Isle of Wight, at Calcutta, May 11.
 Campbell, D., Esq., to Miss H. Ingles, fourth daughter of W. D. S. Smith, Esq., at Calcutta, May 12.
 Crokat, Capt. I., Mil. Paymaster, Mysore Div., to Sarah Anne, youngest daughter of V. Munbee, of Clifton, Gloucestershire, April 5.
 Fergusson, F. T., Esq., to Margaret, only daughter of the late Capt. Lowes, Bombay Marine, at Calcutta, May 9.
 Girdleson, Capt. W. B., 2d Bat., Nagpore Brig., to Eloisa, daughter of the late Rev. J. Hitch, Rector of Westerfield, Suffolk, at Calcutta, April 9.
 Howel Leut. H., to Miss C. Waddington, at Bombay, April 5.
 Harrison, R. W., Esq., to Olivia, fourth daughter Lieut.-Col. R. Francis, H. C.'s Pension Estab., at Dinapore, March 12.
 Ives, G. E., Esq. S. R. A., to Frances, daughter of T. Bush, Esq., C., May 4.
 Kemp, A. D., Esq., to Miss C. S. Jones, at Calcutta, April 25.
 Morton, the Rev. W., Minister of Chinsurah, to Catherine C., sixth daughter of G. Herklots, Esq., May 8.
 Moresby, H. D. R., Esq., Dep. Marine Storekeeper, to Miss Pallexfen of Bombay, at Bombay, April 7.
 Morris, H., Esq., Civ. Serv., to Rebecca, eldest daughter of Lieut.-Col. Jackson, at Madras, March 2.
 Piffard, the Rev. C., to Miss E. Hill, at Calcutta, April 18.
 Smith, S., Esq., Civ. Serv., to Miss E. Annesley, at Madras, April 18.
 Smith, F. C., Esq., Civ. Serv., to Elizabeth, third daughter of the late Dr. W. Roxburgh, at Cawnpore, April 6.
 Stanley, Lieut.-Col. W. H., 18th N. I., to Mary, eldest daughter of the late Capt. F. Duncan, at Bombay, April 2.
 Whaford, W. H., Esq., to Miss W. L. Vallance, C., May 5.

DEATHS.

Brooke, Lieut. R. D., 9th N. C., at Lucknow, April 26.
 Burcheley, Lieut. J. S., 8th M. N. I., on his route to Bombay, at Lowergaum, May 4.
 Bacon, J. F., Esq., at Calcutta, April 15.
 Binny, W., Esq., late of the Madras Army, at Pondicherry, March 17.
 Call, Capt., Thomas, at St. Helena, June 6.

General List of Passengers.

DEPARTURES FROM EUROPE.

Date. 1827.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Destination.
Sept. 19	Portsmouth	M. Stuart Elphin.	Henning	Bombay
Sept. 26	Greenock	Catherine	Kincaid	Bombay
Sept. 28	Deal	Mary Ann	Spottiswood	Singapore
Sept. 29	Greenock	Gleniffer	Stevenson	Bombay
Sept. 29	Greenock	Laurel	Tait	Bengal
Oct. 3	Deal	Henry	Westmoreland	Bombay
Oct. 9	Liverpool	Globe	Dixey	China
Oct. 14	Liverpool	Ontario	Willis	Bengal
Oct. 15	Liverpool	Hindustan	Rimmer	Singapore
Oct. 17	Deal	Pero	Rutter	St. Helena
Oct. 17	Deal	Georgiana	Moore	Bengal
Oct. 19	Liverpool	Lady Gordon	Bell	Bombay
Oct. 20	Portsmouth	Sir Thos. Munro	Cockley	China
Oct. 27	Deal	Francis	Heard	Mauritius
Oct. 27	Deal	Magnolia	Eldridge	Batavia
Oct. 27	Deal	Batavia	Blair	Batavia
Oct. 27	Deal	Janet	Dott	Bombay
Oct. 27	Deal	Houqua	Dumaresque	China
Oct. 27	Deal	Norfolk	Redman	Bengal
Oct. 28	Deal	Reliance	Hays	Bengal

GENERAL LIST OF PASSENGERS.

PASSENGERS HOMEWARDS.

By the *Fortune*, from Bombay, at Liverpool:—H. Michie, Esq., Surg., Co.'s Bom. Serv. (died 10th May); Capt. P. Wilson, Bom. Estab.

By the *Australia*, from New South Wales:—Col. Dumaresque, Aid-de-Camp to the Governor; Capt. Gilman, lady, and three children; Messrs. Read (died at sea) and Dillon; Mrs. Read.

By the *Mangles*, from Bombay:—Capt. Hunter, Bom. Cav.; Mr. Lilly, Missionary, wife, and child; Mrs. Magnian, and two children.

By the *Rockingham*, from Bengal:—Lieuts. Ward, 1st Foot, and Atherton, 13th Light Drags.; Dr. Stoddart, 1st Foot (died at sea); Mrs. Mallett and child.

By the *Jessie*, from the Cape:—Capt. Benbow, Comp.'s Serv.; Dr. Bailey; Messrs. A. Thomson, V. Reeves, Gilbert, Robinson, Berk, Chaippenn, Heugh, Zeidebergh.

By the *Sophia*, from Bengal:—Lieut.-Col. Grant, Dep. Com. Gen. (died at sea, 20th June); Capts. Toussaint (died at Palmouth, 7th Oct.) and J. Popham, 29th Foot; Lieuts. E. Cox, 17th Foot, U. S. Bury, 2d Lt. Cav. C. Chester, 23d N. I., H. Hall, 41st N. I., R. J. Pocock, 2d Lt. Cav. (died at sea, July 29); J. S. Sharks, Esq., Civ. Serv.; Messdames Col. Wade, Tandy, Grant, and Durham; Masters Wade, Tandy, and Durham; Misses Wade and Durham; six servants, and invalids.

THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

No. 48.—DECEMBER, 1827.—VOL. 15.

OFFICIAL PAPERS LAID BEFORE PARLIAMENT RESPECTING THE BURNING OF HINDOO WIDOWS.

ONE of the most important and interesting collection of Public Documents that we have for some time seen, connected with India, is contained in a volume of Parliamentary Papers, produced as a return to an order of the House of Commons, passed in February 1827, and not long since published. The principal document it contains is a series of paragraphs, proposed to form part of a Public Despatch from the Court of Directors in England to the Supreme Government of Bengal, expressive of the opinions of the writer on the subject of Suttee, or the immolation of Hindoo widows, by burning them on the funeral pile of their deceased husbands.

We have so frequently delivered our own opinions on this affecting subject, in various Numbers of the 'Oriental Herald,'* that they must be familiar to all its readers; we need not, therefore, further repeat them now: though we cannot omit this opportunity to state, that we concur entirely in the sound views and benevolent desires of the proposers of the paragraphs intended to form part of the Public Despatch in question. It would have given us great pleasure to have transcribed the whole of these in our present Number; but as other questions demand some share of our space and attention, and as, moreover, the best intentioned advocacy of any subject may be occasionally weakened by suffering it to pass the limits of the reader's patience, and thus exhausting an attention which it is desirable not to fatigue: we deem it more prudent in the present instance to confine ourselves to the more striking portions of the whole, reserving others for examination and discussion in a succeeding Number: for the subject ought really never to be abandoned until the abolition of this horrid practice of living sacrifice is effected. The paragraphs proposed to form part of the Public Despatch of the Court of Directors of the East India Company to

* See 'Oriental Herald,' vol. i. p. 550; vol. ii. p. 173; vol. vii. p. 566; vol. viii. p. 1 and 479; vol. ix. p. 93 and 153.

the Supreme Government in Bengal, are, with some occasional omissions, as follows:

‘1. In our despatch of the 17th June, 1823, we adverted at some length to the horrid practice so prevalent on your side of India, called suttee, or widows’ burning alive on the funeral pile with the bodies of their deceased husbands. Our attention has been recently again drawn to the awful subject, and we have contemplated with regret the asserted fact (which is confirmed by a reference to your proceedings on the subject, and the reports of your police officers and magistrates, which have been called for and printed by the orders of the House of Commons), that of the widely-extended regions which now form British India, the murderous act is more frequently perpetrated in Bengal than in any other part of India, and apparently more in the precincts of Calcutta, the seat of the Supreme Government, than in any other district of that Presidency. From the Reports of 1820, to your Court of Nizamut Adawlut, it appears that of 650 cases of suttee in the preceding year, 421 were reported to have occurred in the division of Calcutta, being forty-three more than occurred in the whole extent of the Bengal provinces in 1815. Upon this the Governor-General in Council observes, in August 1822, “It is impossible to look upon the returns for the Calcutta division, without being satisfied that a *fanatic spirit of this kind* must have had influence in producing the numerous cases reported for every district of it (the Presidency), excepting Midnapore: in this view it is matter of infinite concern to his Lordship in Council to observe, that there is no symptom of a diminution at any of the principal places, but on the contrary, that the total number of the division still maintains its proportion of nine-sixteenths, or something more than half of the grand total of the territory subject to this Presidency.”

‘2. We observe also, that the number of these sacrifices has in general progressively increased in the territories immediately subject to your authority, and we concur in the opinion expressed in your Minutes and those of Nizamut Adawlut, as also in the official reports of several of your magistrates and police officers, namely, “that the fact of the increase, which appears to have been progressive, must immediately excite a doubt whether the measures publicly adopted, with the humane view of diminishing the number of these sacrifices, by pointing out the cases in which the Hindoo law is considered to permit them, and those in which that law forbids them, have not rather been attended with a contrary effect to the one contemplated.” Doubtless the Nizamut Adawlut, here meant, by leading the Hindoo mind to the conclusion, that the British Government approved the practice, when it was carried on agreeably to their prescribed regulations; and we are confirmed in the doubt above expressed, by observing that from the year 1815 to 1818, the number of suttees in the Bengal provinces gradually

increased from 378 to 839. The observations of two of your magistrates, Hr. H. Oakley, magistrate of Hooghley, and Mr. L. Warner, of the twenty-four Pergunnahs, are striking on this point, the former observes, that previous to 1813, no interference on the part of the police was authorized, and widows were sacrificed legally or illegally, as might happen, but the Hindoos were then aware that the Government regarded the custom with natural horror, and would do any thing, short of direct prohibition, to discourage and gradually abolish it. *The case is now altered; the police officers are ordered to interfere, for the purpose of ascertaining that the ceremony is performed in conformity with the rules of the Shasters, and in that event to allow its completion. This is granting the authority of Government for burning widows, and it can scarcely be matter of astonishment that the number of sacrifices should be doubled when the sanction of the ruling power is added to the recommendation of the Shasters.* The other magistrate, Mr. L. Warner, states that he “finds it difficult to account for the increase of suttees, unless it may be attributed to the orders of Government for the attendance of the police officers, giving a legal sanction to the practice, and by so doing enhancing the reputation of the family of the person who devotes herself.” Mr. C. Chapman also, magistrate of the Zilla of Jessore, states, that the increase may chiefly be attributed to the interference of the Government, by the circular orders of the Nizamut Adawlut issued to the several magistrates the 29th April 1813, 4th January 1815, 25th June, and 11th September 1817. The interference of the police,” he adds, “has, by legalising the practice, increased the number by withdrawing from it the terror of any penalty. Prior to the promulgation of the circular orders, the practice of the suttee was known by all to be particularly obnoxious to the Government, and universally condemned by every European serving under it, however high or low his situation in life may be.”

‘3. We feel it therefore an imperious duty to enter into a deeper examination than we have ever yet done, of the important question, whether there in reality exists a necessity for sanctioning the practice under any regulations or limitations whatsoever—we mean a necessity so clear, and ascertained so free from doubt, as to justify the permitting, and leave no dissatisfaction for still continuing to permit a practice by which many thousands of His Majesty’s most innocent subjects are allowed to perish in flames, in a part of India where the British power is absolute, and where every crime and practice less barbarous is cognizable and made liable to punishment by the British laws.

‘4. We shall now put before you the result of that examination, and the strong impressions left upon our minds by a perusal of the

various documents recorded on the subject in your proceedings, and those of the other presidencies, and the facts which they exhibit.

‘ 5. We are fully aware that in tolerating the practice, and giving through your judges, magistrates, and collectors, the sanction of the British Government for its exercise, under certain regulations, you have been guided by the principle of consulting, and abstaining from interference in the religious opinions, customs, and prejudices, of the natives, from an apprehension that such interference might excite a spirit of fanaticism, and be followed by disturbance and commotion, or in short, produce a religious insurrection in the country; for such is the scope of all we find stated in support of that principle, however conveyed in different and milder forms of expression, although the most intelligent and best informed among the natives must be aware that the prohibition of such a practice could only originate in the same motives of humanity and justice to which they are indebted for the protection of the English laws, and relief from oppressions and arbitrary exactions which they suffered under their own Native rulers; and the lower classes must feel that they are equally under the care of Government with the great and powerful; but it is satisfactory to remark, that among the higher classes the practice is least prevalent. Mr. G. Forbes, first Judge of the Calcutta Court of Circuit, states, in his letter to the Nizamut Adawlut, of November, 1819, “It appears, from the reports of the magistrates, that the practice is prevalent amongst the most ignorant and deluded of the people, whilst the numerous instances of the widows of the higher classes continuing to live in affluence and respectability, afford the most satisfactory evidence that there is no imperious call to submit to, nor dire disgrace attending the rejection of the dread alternative.”

‘ 10. First, then, it is abundantly shown in your proceedings, and those of the Court of Nizamut Adawlut, including their inquiries of the Pundits, and their official correspondence with the judges and magistrates in the interior districts, that the practice of suttee is not founded in or enjoined by any Hindoo law, and is only recommended, not enjoined even in the Shaster, and as to the law, is, on the contrary, discouraged by their most eminent and venerated lawgiver, Menu, from whom, it is stated in their books, “there is no appeal,” of whom the Vedah declares, “whatever Menu has said is wholesome,” and his injunction, or decree for the guidance of widows, is thus translated by the late Sir William Jones: “Let a widow emaciate her body by living voluntarily upon pure flowers, roots, and fruits, and let her not, when her lord is deceased, even pronounce the name of another man; let her continue till death forgetting all injuries, performing harsh duties, avoiding every sensual pleasure, and cheerfully practising the incomparable rules of virtue which have been followed by such women as were devoted to one only husband.”

‘ 13. We observe also, that in their regulations the Court of Nizamut Adawlut quote the authority of Menu, in alluding to a case of widow's burning, though she had been absent at the time of her husband's death; they observe, “the suicide in these cases is not indeed a religious act, nor has it the sanction of Menu, and other ancient legislators revered by the Hindoos; on the contrary, Menu declares that a virtuous wife ascends to heaven, though she have no child, if, after the decease of her lord, she devote herself to pious austerity.” And it is declared by Vrehasputy, “whether she ascend the pile or survive for the benefit of her husband, she is a faithful wife.” He further declares that, “the mother of an infant child may not relinquish the care of her infant to ascend the pile.”

‘ 14. Here too we can with pleasure quote a passage in a very able letter from one of your most experienced servants, Mr. Walter Ewer, superintendent of police in the lower provinces, to the Secretary to your Government in the judicial department, from which letter we shall have occasion to quote passages on other important points connected with the subject. In the sixth paragraph he states,

“Very properly anxious to avoid all interference with the religious prejudices and customs of the Hindoos, the Government has not thought it advisable to prohibit the practice of suttee; but I submit it has little or no connection with their religion. If the religious chance to bestow a thought on the consequences of the sacrifice, it will be directed to the benefit which may thereby accrue to themselves in this world or the next. The future happiness of the sufferer and her deceased husband is much too disinterested a consideration to deserve one thought. The practice is strongly recommended by the Shasters, but nothing more, and Menu (together with other authorities of great respectability) prescribes the duties of a widow without hinting that burning herself is one of the most important. The recommendation is even addressed to the widow, and her relations are no way told that they are to induce her to become a suttee either by force or persuasion. Now it is well known that the education of Hindoo females of all ranks precludes the possibility of their having of themselves any acquaintance with the contents of the Shasters, and consequently on all subjects connected with them, they must be compelled to trust implicitly to the guidance of others: these, as I have already observed, are all in one way or another directly interested, and must be gainers by the widow's death. It is not probable that they will state suttees to be nothing but a praiseworthy act, left to the discretion of the widows; they will represent it as an absolute duty, the neglect of which must be punished both in this world and the next.”

“From a consideration of all these circumstances, I submit that in permitting, or indeed authorizing, suttee, we are by no means showing a proper forbearance towards the religious customs or long-established prejudices of the Hindoos, but that we are virtually

sanctioning the sacrifice of widows by their relations, an act nowhere enjoined by the Shasters; on the contrary, a crime which their own laws would punish with death, and only tolerated by our Government because we overlook the impudent imposition which has transformed a recommendation to the widow to accompany her husband, into an order which the relation must carry into effect if she should evince symptoms of disobedience."

"16. Mr. L. Warner, magistrate of the 24 Pergunnahs, confidently asks, "Is the practice of suttee in any part of the Shasters insisted upon, or is it only recommended? Can the performance of this ceremony be with truth called a voluntary act? Is the custom prevalent throughout India, or is it confined in a great degree to the districts adjacent to the Presidency? Look at the statements; they exhibit a class of people who must have been generally ignorant of the Shasters."

"17. Secondly, the second additional ground in support of the safety with which your toleration and sanction of the practice might be withdrawn, is the great division of sentiment among the Hindoos on the subject, including, as immediately connected with it, the infrequency of the practice, and the very small number of suttees which actually take place, compared with the immense number of women who must become widows in a population of 80, or, according to some calculations, 100 millions.

"20. We observed, that in April 1816, Mr. E. Watson, fourth Judge of the Calcutta Court of Circuit, offered to the consideration of the Nizamut Adawlut the important proposition to discontinue the sanction given to the burning of Hindoo widows with the bodies of their husbands, and to declare all parties assisting at their death guilty of murder, under the provisions of section the third, regulation the eighth, 1799, in support of which proposition he reasons thus:

"It appears that this abhorrent, and often utterly illegal, practice was forbidden by the foreign governments of those settlements; and that the prohibition was obeyed without a murmur.

"So little do the people appear to have interested themselves in the affair, that we find from Mr. Forbes's letter, that the mere publication of an order from himself prohibiting the practice, effectually prevented it, and that no single instance of a woman burning herself has occurred since.

"I really think that there is as little justification for a woman to burn herself with the remains of her husband, as for a rajkoomar to destroy his daughters at their birth, burying alive for the leprosy where the party is desirous to die, human sacrifices at Saugor, putting, sorcerers to death, or killing a human creature by any other means, without justification or excuse: all of which are expressly made capital by the regulations.

"The killing in all these instances, especially that contained in section 3, regulation 8, 1799, (where the desire of the party slain will not justify the killer,) has quite as much in its favour on the score of erroneous prejudice and superstition, and, perhaps, of religion, as the practice of suttee; but we do not find that the punishment of death denounced against these crimes, has at all been considered as an infringement of that complete toleration in matters of religion which it has been the fundamental principle of the British Government to allow, and there can be no doubt that the practice of suttee might be as easily checked and prevented throughout the British territories, as any of the other murderous practices above referred to. We have the fact that its suppression at the foreign settlements was effected without the slightest difficulty."

"22. In the very able letter from Mr. Walter Ewer, which we have already quoted in support of another ground for the discontinuance of the toleration of the practice, we find the following in support of that which we are now pointing out to your attention. In the ninth paragraph of his letter, Mr. Ewer states:

"The practice of suttee may be almost called local, for it will be seen from the enclosed statement, that during the years 1815, 1816, and 1817, 864 suttees were performed in the five zillahs of Burdwan, Hooghly, the Jungle Mehals, Nudden, and the suburbs of Calcutta, and that in the same period only 663 took place throughout the remainder of our extensive empire, including the holy city of Benares, in which only 41 sacrifices of that nature were performed, although its population is almost exclusively Hindoo, and it is a place where every meritorious act is of double value. I cannot attempt to account for the great prevalence of suttees in some districts, and the rarity of it in others: but it is a proof that it is a custom seldom thought of in the greater portion of our dominions."

"23. In the eleventh paragraph of his letter, Mr. Ewer adduces, as Mr. Watson has done, the same facts that form the principal ground of our own opinion and conviction on this important subject; after observing in his preceding paragraph, that there had been "frequent instances of illegal suttees having been prevented by the police-officers, some even in the holy city of Benares, without the interference having excited any feeling of dissatisfaction."

Mr. Ewer proceeds thus: "But I meet with frequent instances of the interference of Government in matters intimately connected with the prejudices of the Hindoos.

The repeal of the law prohibiting the ospital punishment of Brahmins at Benares, the law against infanticide, the rules prohibiting dhurma, and the sweeping clause, section 3, regulation 8, of 1799, which prohibits the killing of a child, a slave, an aged person, or any other individual, even at the desire of the party slain, in which even suttee may be included; and although I am aware that the

exposure of infants at Saugor, and at other places, and the murder of their female offspring by the rajkoomars are neither of them duties, either directly enjoined or authorized by the Shasters, yet I submit that the exposure of infants is in consequence of vows made by the mother for the purpose of obtaining some favour from the gods, and that the fulfilment of such is meritorious in the highest degree. The practice of the rajkoomars is, I have reason to think, but little checked by the enactment above alluded to. It is a custom founded on immemorial usage, and, as such, does not require either the aid of religion or law to give it support. The practice of the widows of jogees is not sanctioned by the Shaster, yet they undoubtedly continue to prefer burying to burning, because it is the custom of their caste, and we may as well attempt to direct the mode of disposing of the husband's corpse, as prescribe rules for the conduct of the widow. I have noticed these cases not to prove that legal prohibition will have no success in opposing customs, but as instances of our interference with the prejudices of the Hindoos, without exciting any symptoms of dissatisfaction. It may be said that the people are aware that these practices are not authorized by the Shasters, and therefore submit quietly; but it is well known that *not one man in a thousand knows any thing of the contents of the Shasters*; or, if they are aware of these rules, why persist in illegal acts, if custom was not in their eyes paramount to law?

"I have submitted the above remarks for the consideration of his Lordship in Council, not with the hope that I can afford any new information on the subject so frequently discussed by the higher authorities, but only to offer the grounds of my opinion, *that the barbarous custom of suttee may be prohibited without exciting any serious or general dissatisfaction among our Hindoo subjects.*"

'24. Mr. Ewer then adverts, as we have recently done, to what were the sentiments of the Nizamut Adawlut in 1805, and to the complete disappointment of their sanguine expectations, and concludes with this striking observation: "It is true the interference of the police may in some cases have induced compliance with the rules of the Shaster, but the official attendance of the darogah, (active officer of police,) stamps every regular suttee with the sanction of Government, and I must humbly submit that authorizing a practice is not the way to effect its gradual abolition."

'To the important question of—"What would be the effect of a law abolishing the practice of suttee?" Mr. Molony replies:

"After having attended at several suttees myself, for the purpose of gaining as much information as possible on the subject, and having paid to it considerable attention ever since I have been in the district, and after having attentively considered the doctrines under which it is sanctioned, the circumstances attending the actual performance of the sacrifice, and the terms upon which those who have been prevented from burning have subsequently lived with their

relations and neighbours, I am decidedly of opinion, that the abolition of the practice by law would not be attended with any evil consequences. On the contrary, I think the enactment of such a law is dictated by every principle of humanity; nor does it appear to me that the abolition of the practice is altogether inconsistent with the spirit of toleration which has ever distinguished the British Government.

"Those persons who sacrificed their children at Saugor also acted under the influence of infatuation; they threw their children to the sharks, because they thought it right and religious; but they could give no reason for so doing."

"The only difference between this sacrifice and that of a suttee is, that the one is recognized and the other not recognized by the doctrines of which the people are kept in ignorance, but the impulse under which they act is the same in both cases. I do not think that any evil effects are to be dreaded from the enactment of a law abolishing this sacrifice. A few instances of opposition might occur at first, but none of a serious nature, or more than may be effected in every change of custom; and after the law became generally known, the practice would be totally laid aside."

'27. Mr. Lee Warner, in expressing similar sentiments, takes a wider scope, and naturally alludes, as several of your able magistrates had before him, to what you have already effected, and practices you have already prohibited. He states,

"A law might doubtless be promulgated for the abolition of the practice, without causing any serious disturbance; it has already been done in regard to the sacrifice of children at Saugor, and elsewhere, as well as the practice of destroying female infants, and the burying alive of women. Why if these customs, which were also so generally practised, have been abolished by a humane government, should not the practice of suttee be abolished? the distinction of woman or of a child is equal in the eye of the law."

'28. Mr. C. Chapman's answer to the most important question is expressed in these strong and decisive terms: "Any law abolishing the suttee would be attended with no other effect than it should have under every good system of government, the immediate and due observance of its enactments. I would most willingly undertake to promulgate any orders regarding its abolition through the district under my charge without dread of any ill consequences from the interference of Government."

'30. Mr. R. Morrison, of the zillah of Beerbhoom, is the only magistrate who, entering argumentatively into the subject, in his answer to Mr. Ewer, does not give a very positive or decided opinion on the important point; but his reasoning, and the general tendency of his remarks, afford no inference that he thought the abolition of the practice would produce any resistance. He remarks that, "be-

fore the decided interference of the police, the practice of suttee had of itself very much subsided, and among other causes of its subsid- ing, he attributes it to the moral certainty of the heirs of the de- ceased husband being maintained in the possession and enjoyment of life, honour, and property, by the existing laws and justice of Gov- ernment; and the concluding paragraph of his letter is still more expressive, and more incompatible with his apprehending any dan- ger from the abolition of the practice, namely, the following para- graph: "The interference of Government is well understood to be the Christian wish of humanity. The Rajah of this place is a Mus- sulman, and the Hindoos seem generally willing to embrace the ex- cuse of the will of the reigning power to evade the suttee, believed of their little read, and less understood, Shaster."

33. We now advert with pleasure to a letter to which, on an- other point, we have already referred, namely, a letter which appears on your judicial consultations of the 5th November 1819, from Mr. George Forbes, first Judge of the Calcutta Court of Circuit, to the Nizamut Adawlut. Mr. Forbes observes, "The number of suttees ascertained to have taken place in this division exhibits an awful in- crease in the number of human sacrifices, and I take the opportunity to express my concurrence in the opinion which I found to prevail with the judicial officers of the several stations with whom I conversed on the subject, that the practice of Hindoo women burning them- selves on the funeral pile of their deceased husbands, if prohibited by Government, might be effectually suppressed without apprehen- sion of any serious obstacles. At the foreign settlements of Chand- ernagore, Chinsurah, and Serampore, suttees are not permitted by the local authorities, nor were they during the period that those places were in our possession." He then alludes in the following terms to some of those facts which form a distinct, and, as we con- ceive, irrefragable ground of argument, in proof of the safety with which the practice might be abolished, or at least prohibited, namely, the numerous instances in which it has been prevented from taking place without even a murmur. "I am happy to adduce an instance of effectual interference in the suppression of this barbarous custom under the British authority in the territory of Delhi. The late resident, Mr. Metcalfe, never, when apprized of the intention, permitted the burning of a widow to take place, and was prepared to prevent the practice whenever necessary, by forcible interference, but which was requisite only on one occasion that came under his immediate observation. I have been induced to mention this instance of successful interference by the Resident at Delhi, as affording an example, which, I believe, nearly every magistrate in the country would, if authorized, be most happy to follow; and, in order to show that there appears no insurmountable obstacle to a measure, with regard to the exigency of which there can be but one sentiment."

In the proceedings of the Nizamut Adawlut of the 25th of May 1821, appear several cases in which suttees had taken place in op- position to the promulgated rules. In one of them the victim had been a year younger than the age at which the performance of the rite is allowed by the Shaster. In regard to another, it is stated, "the sacrifice of Mussumut Bishnee, with reference to her caste, was clearly illegal. The acting magistrate is desired to furnish a fuller report of the circumstances of the case, as far as they can be ascertained at this distance of time."

Minute of the second Judge of the Nizamut Adawlut, Mr. C. Smith:—

"My opinion is, that the toleration of the practice of suttee is a reproach to our Government, and that the entire and immediate abolition of it would be attended with no sort of danger.

"I would suggest a short regulation on the subject, somewhat in the style of the Sixth Regulation of 1820, against the sacrifice of children at Saugor. There are expressions in the preamble of that regulation which would not exactly suit the case of suttee; but a preamble somewhat to the following effect would not perhaps be un- apt:—'Whereas the practice of suttee is shocking to humanity and contrary to nature, and whereas the British Government, after the most careful inquiry, and the most mature consideration, feels it im- possible to be satisfied that this commission of self-murder can ever be in truth the free, voluntary, unbiassed, and uninfluenced act of the female who is sacrificed; and whereas to interfere with a vigorous hand for the protection of the weak against the strong, of the simple and artful, classes of its subjects, is one of the most binding, imperious, and paramount duties of every civilized state, and a duty from which it cannot shrink without a manifest diminution of its dignity, and an essential degradation of its character among na- tions,' &c. &c."

"On the above minutes of the Nizamut Adawlut, we observe the following was the resolution of your Board: "The Governor- General in Council cannot concur in the policy or expediency of the measure proposed by the second Judge of the Nizamut Adawlut, and he is of opinion that the authoritative interposition of Government, with a view to abolish the right of suttees, either in the manner re- commended by Mr. Smith, or by the adoption of the partial mea- sures respectively suggested by Mr. Leicester and Mr. Dorin, would not only fail of success, but would tend to excite a spirit of fanati- cism, and eventually to produce very injurious consequences."

35. In the next page of the Report of the Court of Nizamut Adawlut is a narrative of extreme horror, communicated by Mr. R. R. Rattray, fourth Judge of the Court of Circuit at Goruckpore, of which we shall state the substance, to show how unavailing are the rules which, with the best intentions, your Government has attached

to its sanction of the practice of suttee, and how little influence in reality the Shaster has on the minds and conduct of those who assist at it.

'The case is that of a widow named Hoomalee, "a girl of about fourteen years of age, whose husband, a Brahmin, died when absent from his family, and a fortnight after the event, her father being absent, and unacquainted with what was passing, she proceeded to burn herself on a pile prepared by other near relations, and which was fired by her uncle. She soon leaped from the flame, and was seized, taken up by the hands and feet, and again thrown upon it, much burnt; she again sprung from the pile, and, running to a well hard by, laid herself down in the water-course, weeping bitterly. A sheet was then offered, and she was desired by her uncle to place herself upon it; she refused, saying, he would again carry her to the fire, and she would rather quit the family, and live by beggary, or any thing, if they would have mercy upon her. At length, on her uncle swearing by the Ganges, that if she would seat herself on the cloth he would carry her home; she did so, was bound up in it, carried to the pile, now fiercely burning, and again thrown into the flames. The wretched victim once more made an effort to save herself, when, at the instigation of the rest, a Mussulman approached near enough to reach her with his sword, and cutting her through the head she fell back, and was rescued from further suffering by death."

'38. It appears that on the 21st March 1817, the following question was proposed to the Hindoo law officer of the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut:—"Is it authorized by the Shaster to bind or restrain in any manner, a woman who has ascended the funeral pile of her husband, by tying her down with cords, or placing bamboos over her, or using any other means to prevent her escape from the pile? If there be any authorities for such measures, state them at length."

"Answer.—No authority permits any restraint to be used; an expiation is ordained for the widow who has slipped off the pile, both in the Shoodhee Futwa and Nunugee Sindoo. The same is to be met with in the text of Apustumba Keepurdie, and Ashoolguna. In the text of Narayumu, its commentary, and in the Numeyu Sindhoo, mention is there also made of taking a woman off the funeral pile in the event of her being terrified, and of the persons by whom this is to be done."

"The authority for the above is the text of Apustumba, quoted in the Shudhee Futwa and Manayee."

"Among the rules previously stated to be universally observed throughout Benares, it is said, the text of Apustumba ordains, "that the widow shall be placed on the right side of her deceased husband, and, having arrived at the place of burning, she determine to

burn, the ceremonies of depositing the widow, &c. must again be gone through, if she afterwards express a wish to rise, she must be lifted off."

"Kumwittee commenting on the above passage, says, if the widow wishes to get off afterwards, the brother of the deceased or some other Bramin, repeating, &c. shall lift her up."

'39. Such appear to be the regulations of the Hindoo Shasters, and if the observance of them were strictly enforced, it cannot be difficult to pronounce that there would be but few instances of widows remaining on the pile to be burnt, or omitting to avail themselves of the option of rising or being lifted off.

'We have adduced one affecting instance in which that option was implored, and most inhumanly denied. A narrative of almost equal horror, but of briefer suffering, appears in the proceedings of your Government in the judicial department, in the month of August 1822, with several other cases stated to be considered by the Nizamut Adawlut as demanding particular notice: "The case of Mus-sunt Kumbahin Cuttack is reported to have been at first in appearance perfectly voluntary, and the widow performed the usual ceremonies, after which she dropped herself into the burning pit or koonad, which in this province is always used for burning the bodies on the occasion of a woman becoming a suttee. Immediately on dropping into the pit, she rose up and stretched out her hands to the side of the pit, but whether this was done with an intent to escape, or whether it was merely an involuntary motion from pain, does not appear; however, Keyjed, a washerman, who appears to have had the management of the ceremony, seeing this, gave her a push or blow with a bamboo, which tumbled her into the hottest part of the fire, where she was immediately consumed. The washerman was summoned before the magistrate, but released under a doubt if his conduct had been illegal. The Nizamut Adawlut remarked, that he ought either not to have been summoned, or being summoned, should not have been released without punishment."

'41. The magistrate of Gornekpore reports a second case of compulsory suttee, in addition to that which was brought under the consideration of Government in August 1821, the particulars as follow: "Mussumul Bussuntree leaped twice from the pile and attempted to escape; she was twice thrown back by her relations, who surrounded the pile, and forcibly detained her there until consumed. This took place in the presence of the cutwall of the city, who, with others, proved to have been concerned, are committed for trial to the judge of circuit."

"In the conclusion of this magistrate's report is a passage which conveys so just a picture of the enormous cruelty of the practice, that we here transcribed it: "If it were desired to portray a scene that should thrill with horror every heart not entirely dead to the

“ 44. On the melancholy cases we have stated, it is obvious to remark, how little influence the Shaster has in producing these sacrifices, and how generally its precepts are violated in the manner of conducting them; they fully confirm the reasoning and observations of Mr. Walter Ewer, which we have already quoted; that the practice of suttee “has little or no connexion with their religion,” and that the “education of Hindoo females, of all ranks precludes the possibility of their having of themselves any acquaintance with the contents of the Shaster;” also, that “it is well known that not one man in one thousand knows any thing of the contents of the Shasters.” They confirm also his observations on another and highly important point, by showing that these sacrifices are in reality not voluntary on the part of the poor deluded victim; and that, in effect, it is mis-called suicide or voluntary self-immolation, on which construction it is sometimes defended; or the enormity of it palliated. “I know (Mr. Ewer continues) it is generally supposed that a suttee takes place with the free-will and consent of the widow; indeed, that she frequently persists in her intention to burn in spite of the arguments and entreaties of her relations; but I submit that there are many reasons for thinking that such an event as a voluntary suttee very rarely occurs; that is, few widows would ever think of sacrificing themselves, unless overpowered by force or persuasion; very little of either is sufficient to overcome the mental or physical powers of the majority of the Hindoo females; and a widow who would turn with natural and instinctive horror from the first hint of sharing her husband’s pile, will be, at length, gradually brought to pronounce a reluctant consent, because, distracted with grief at the event, without one friend to advise and protect her she is little prepared to oppose the surrounding crowd of hungry Bramins, and interested relations, either by argument or force; accustomed to look to the former with the highest veneration, and to attach implicit belief to all their assertions, she dares not, if she was able to make herself heard, deny the certainty of the various advantages which must attend the sacrifice; that by becoming a suttee she will remain so many years in heaven, rescue her husband from hell, and purify the family of her father, mother, and husband; while, on the other hand, that disgrace in this life, and continued transmigration into the body of a female animal, will be the certain consequence of refusal. In this state of confusion a few hours quickly pass, and the widow is burnt before she has time to think on the subject. Should utter indifference for her husband, and sym-

“ I have already stated, that the widow is scarcely ever a free agent at the performance of a suttee, and therefore her opinion on the subject can be of no weight, and whether she appears glad or sorry, stupid, composed or distracted, is no manner of proof of her real feelings: her relations, her attendants, and the surrounding crowd of men, women, and children, will be seen to wear one face of joy and delight, none of the holy exultation which formerly accompanied the departure of the martyr, but all the savage merriment which in our days attends a boxing match, or a bull bait; nor can this be otherwise among those present, her relatives are directly interested in her death; if she had a son, he may perhaps wish to be relieved from the expense of maintaining a mother, and the trouble of listening to her unseasonable advice, if she has none, her husband's male relations will take care that she stand not in their way, by claiming his estate for life which is her legal right. The Brahmins are paid for their services and are of course interested. The crowd assemble to see a show, which in their estimation affords more amusement than any other exhibition with which they are acquainted, and the sacrifice is completed, because the family is anxious to get rid of an incumbrance, and the Brahmins desirous of a feast and a present.”

45. This description of a suttee, how is it brought about, and the motives which lead to it, or in which it originates, and the objects for which the victim is sacrificed, if it is correct, and we do not find it controverted in any part of your proceedings, abundantly proves that suttee is indeed mis-called suicide or voluntary self-immolation; but the fallacy of such a denomination of the practice, will, if possible be made still more manifest by the mere mention of particular suttees, to which we shall now advert. In the annual list of suttees reported to the Nizamut Adawlut in the years 1815 to 1820 inclusive, it appears sixty-two widows were burnt, most of whom were children, viz. 14 of 12 years of age, 1 of 13, 1 of 14, 1 of 15, 1 of 16, 1 of 17, 1 of 18, 1 of 19, 1 of 20, 1 of 21, 1 of 22, 1 of 23, 1 of 24, 1 of 25, 1 of 26, 1 of 27, 1 of 28, 1 of 29, 1 of 30, 1 of 31, 1 of 32, 1 of 33, 1 of 34, 1 of 35, 1 of 36, 1 of 37, 1 of 38, 1 of 39, 1 of 40, 1 of 41, 1 of 42, 1 of 43, 1 of 44, 1 of 45, 1 of 46, 1 of 47, 1 of 48, 1 of 49, 1 of 50, 1 of 51, 1 of 52, 1 of 53, 1 of 54, 1 of 55, 1 of 56, 1 of 57, 1 of 58, 1 of 59, 1 of 60, 1 of 61, 1 of 62, 1 of 63, 1 of 64, 1 of 65, 1 of 66, 1 of 67, 1 of 68, 1 of 69, 1 of 70, 1 of 71, 1 of 72, 1 of 73, 1 of 74, 1 of 75, 1 of 76, 1 of 77, 1 of 78, 1 of 79, 1 of 80, 1 of 81, 1 of 82, 1 of 83, 1 of 84, 1 of 85, 1 of 86, 1 of 87, 1 of 88, 1 of 89, 1 of 90, 1 of 91, 1 of 92, 1 of 93, 1 of 94, 1 of 95, 1 of 96, 1 of 97, 1 of 98, 1 of 99, 1 of 100, 1 of 101, 1 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sumed that many of them had scarcely ever left their parental roof until taken to the funeral pile.

Thus far the proposed paragraphs of the public Letter. The succeeding ones enumerate some striking instances in which the horrid ceremony of human sacrifice had been prevented from taking place, by the direct interference of the local authorities, or by their refusal of permission for its performance, accompanied with proofs that no commotions had arisen in consequence, and citations of the opinions of some of the best informed among the public officers of the Government, that no such effects were to be apprehended from their complete prohibition by order of authority. The writers then pass from the information obtained from Bengal to that which had been transmitted from the Presidency of Bombay, where the experience of facts, and testimony of opinion, from the best informed public servants of the Government, are quite in unison with those already cited from Bengal. We are glad to embrace this occasion of doing justice to the good sense of Mr. Warden, himself a member of the present Government of Bombay, who, in adverting to a proceeding of Mr. Marriott, a judge who had taken some pains to lessen the practice of Suttee or Widow burning on the Mahratta coast, states his opinions thus plainly on the subject.

‘Mr. Warden recorded the following brief commendation of Mr. Marriott’s procedure :

“ I think that the collector has exercised a sound judgment in not promulgating the circular orders regarding the performance of suttee. Whilst I am fully aware of the delicacy of this important question, I am at the same time equally conscious of the practicability of abolishing, not only this, but also every other sanguinary practice of the Hindoos, and without endangering either the popularity or the security of our supremacy. The wisest mode of proceeding appears to be, for the Government studiously to refrain from countenancing it in any way. It is the police law, or the custom of the country, to apply for the permission of the ruling authority previous to the performance of a suttee, and that check should, in my opinion, continue; it has in fact been exercised in more than one instance by the collector (Mr. Marriott) with success, upon whose discretion I am entirely disposed to rely on this occasion.”

‘The Bombay government appears to have adopted Mr. Warden’s opinion and advice, and to have accordingly issued directions to their officers to abstain from interfering in similar cases, stating also that “in the territories subordinate to this Presidency, the practice is of very rare occurrence, and in some portions of it hardly known to exist;” and we observe the same statement in their letter to your government, dated the 18th November.’

At Madras, the same results were obtained to enquiries made, as at the two former Presidencies, as will appear by the following extracts :

‘67. It appears that on the death of Ameer Sing, late Rajah of Tanjore, in April 1802, two of his wives burnt on his funeral pile, notwithstanding the humane and strenuous endeavours of Captain Blackburne, the resident, to dissuade them from the horrid sacrifice.

‘68. The Governor in Council, through their secretary, in August 1813, in answer to a letter from Mr. C. M. Lushington, the acting magistrate at Combaconum, in which he had recommended the abolition of the practice, expressed doubts how far the measure would prove effectual, and be free from the danger of worse consequences than those against which it was meant to provide, and desired to know what number of widows had sacrificed themselves on their husbands’ funeral piles, in each year, since the establishment of the courts in Tanjore.”

‘In reply, the magistrates stated that augnumane (the right of suttee) is frequently practised, “and particularly in Tanjore and its vicinity;” that, from inquiries, he had ascertained that no less a number than “one hundred victims had fallen sacrifices to the practice since the establishment of the Court of Combaconum,” and he thus concludes his letter :

“It would ill become me, after the receipt of your letter, to offer any opinion on the subject of prohibiting further augnumanees, but I feel emboldened in the cause of humanity to state, that the practice is neither prescribed by the Shaster, nor encouraged by persons of education or influence.

“I can speak from positive authority, that his Highness the Rajah of Tanjore has ever discouraged it, and I feel assured, that, with the exception of a few necessitous Brahmins, who derive a nefarious reward from presiding at this infernal rite, the prohibition of the practice would give universal satisfaction.”

Mr. C. M. Lushington, a magistrate at Trichinopoly, which is under the Madras Government, thus answers the last of a series of six questions put to him officially by his superiors :

‘Question 6th. “What means have been used to ascertain, as correctly as possible, that the act of immolation was perfectly voluntary on the part of the widow ?”

‘Answer. “The act, I apprehend, is always voluntary, provided a being in a state of stupefaction and delusion can be said to possess the power of volition.” He proceeds thus :

“Having submitted specific answers to the proposed questions, I trust I shall stand excused in offering the following remarks to the consideration of Government; I take it for granted that the subject was referred to the magistrates of the several zillahs, with a view of collecting their opinions, as to the possibility and propriety of preventing future instances of anagmanum.

‘8. When I was acting magistrate of Combaconum, I addressed

the Government on this subject, and pledged myself to put a stop to all future instances of self-immolation, without any ill consequences arising from the prevention. I look upon this inhuman practice as one tolerated to the disgrace of the British Government; it is even abominated by the better sort of Natives themselves, and nowhere is it enjoined by Hindoo law.

"The only possible plea or excuse for the continuance of a practice so abhorrent to humanity, and irreconcilable to reason is, the fear of exciting an apprehension of interference on the part of the British Government in the religious usages and custom of the country.

"Convinced that no bad consequence could possibly result from the abolition of anugamanum, I submit the propriety of making, by legal enactment, the attendants of such assemblies accomplices in the murder. It might be introduced in the same manner as section 34, Regulation 7, of 1802.

"10. 'If any person or persons shall hereafter form themselves into an assembly for the purpose of aiding, assisting, or witnessing anugamanum, they shall be considered as accomplices and dealt with accordingly.

"Trichinopoly, October 1819."

The following is the striking paragraph which closes what may be called the evidence of fact and opinion on which this proposed Public Despatch was grounded:

"88. We have reserved to the conclusion of our quotations the return made by Mr. J. O. Todd, criminal judge of the zillah of Masulipatam, because we think that if an absolute prohibition of the practice should not take place, the proceeding which he states himself to have adopted would be the best alternative, and, next to prohibition, prove the most effectual in preventing or discouraging the practice.

"Mr Todd states: 'The practice is by no means common in this part of the country, and that it might be altogether abolished by an ordinance of government, without offence to the religious feelings or prejudices of the natives, seems probable from the following circumstance. Application was made to the criminal judge when I held the office of magistrate, by the relations of a widow, for his permission to burn herself with the dead body of her husband. He informed them that the British Government made it a rule never to interfere with the religious customs or prejudices of the natives, and therefore that he would not give any order whatever to the woman herself, who might act as she might think became her; but he assured them that he would commit as accomplices in the murder, all persons who should in any way assist her in destroying herself; and the consequence was, that the woman did not burn, but is alive and well at this day, and this measure did not cause the least dissatisfaction;

on the contrary, the relations of the woman appeared pleased at her having obtained a decent pretext for avoiding the horrid ceremony."

After this powerful and convincing array of authorities, records, and reasons, against the abominable practice of human sacrifice in India, the writers offer the following recapitulation of the positions which they conceive the whole goes to establish:

1st. That the practice of suttee is not founded in Hindoo law, and only recommended, but not enjoined, in the Shasters.

2dly. That every other barbarous and inhuman Hindoo practice has been prohibited under severe penalties by your government, not only without resistance, but apparently without even exciting dissatisfaction or murmur, although those practices had their support in what is certainly the main support of the practice of suttee, namely, superstitious custom and prejudice.

3dly. That your government having contravened a fundamental principal of Hindoo law, and which was held sacred by all Hindoos, by abolishing the impunity of Brahmins, and making them amenable to the British laws, without its having been followed by any evil consequence, there can be no serious grounds for apprehending that the prohibiting a practice which is not founded in Hindoo law, nor recognized by Hindoos in general, and prevailing only among certain tribes or castes of Hindoos, few in number compared with the mass of the population, and the only object of which prohibition would be the protection of the wives and daughters of Hindoos from perishing in flames, would produce any serious opposition to British rule or even any permanent dissatisfaction.

4thly. That there is a great and acknowledged diversity of sentiment among the Hindoos on the subject of suttees; that the practice chiefly, if not exclusively, prevails among the lowest and most ignorant, and is discountenanced by the upper and educated classes, that even in Bengal, though prevalent in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, the practice is very far from general, and in the extensive territories of the Madras side of India, reaching from Cape Comorin to Oriza, it is by no means general. That in some districts it is unknown, and in others of rare occurrence; and that in the territories subject to the Bombay government, the prevalence of it is also far from general; in some of its districts, particularly Guzerat, scarcely known; and that in the Concan, comprising the Mahratta countries conquered from the Peshwa, in which it was before very prevalent, the people, on becoming subjects of British rule, voluntarily discontinued the practice, in consequence of understanding that it was repugnant to the British law, and for which no public process at least, that in their attachment to the practice, and in their had no share, and obviously points to the conclusion, that a public declaration, confirming that impression, and announcing the punish-

ment of death in whomsoever should assist at any of those ceremonies, would have been implicitly and quietly acquiesced in.

5thly. That the practice was not permitted by the Foreign States when they had power and territory in India.

6thly. And which we think in itself conclusive of the practicability of abolishing the practice, or at least of the safety with which it might be prohibited, that in many instances it has been actually and effectually prevented from taking place, without exciting even a murmur, by either direct interference on the part of the local authority, or by refusal of permission, or by a procedure similar to that which was adopted by the criminal judge of the zillah of Masulipatam, as we have recently noticed.

The officers who acted in these instances of prevention, it was well known, acted in virtue of the authority they held under the Government. It might be considered, that in each instance an experiment was made as to the consequence of a prevention; and as not one of them appears to have been resisted, or even to have excited any feelings of dissatisfaction, we find it difficult to imagine that a general prohibition by the Government itself would be less efficacious, or produce any serious or permanent opposition or discontent. The very utmost we should apprehend from it, would be temporary clamour or agitation among the lowest and most ignorant of the people in insulated districts where the practice prevails, and where venial brahmins may have influence, but would be discountenanced and reprobated by the higher, more intelligent, and educated classes of the community.

7thly. And lastly, is the equally satisfactory and important fact, that a great number of the most able and experienced servants of the Company, employed under the immediate authority of your Government, and the Presidencies of Fort St. George and Bombay, in the stations which afford the best means of forming a correct judgment on the subject, including members of your Court of Nizamut Adawlut and superintendents of police, have voluntarily, and some of them nearly in the same terms, recommended the abolition of the horrid practice, and recorded their confident opinions and belief, that it might be abolished without any evil consequence whatsoever.

90. We must here briefly and separately notice another and most melancholy fact deducible from the narratives, as far as any appear, of the actual performance of this horrid ceremony, and the manner of conducting it, which destroys at once the plea on which the cruelty of it has been palliated, and the idea that those who assist at the ceremony are influenced by religious enthusiasm or reverence for the Shasters. The fact we allude to is, that the practice is mis-called suicide, or voluntary immolation, that, at the utmost, the act is no longer voluntary after the victim has ascended the pile, and been placed by the side of the dead body. This fact

we believe is well known to all who have ever witnessed the ceremony, and is most affectingly exemplified in the instances adverted to in former paragraphs of this despatch. It follows incontestibly, that in every case the express rules and instructions of the Shaster are disregarded. But we think, that Mr. Walter Ewer in his letter, from which we have already quoted strong observations on the subject, has shown reasonable grounds for doubting, if even the act of ascending the pile, or the widow's previous determination or consent to burn, can, excepting in very rare cases, be correctly termed voluntary. He observes, that, "few widows would ever think of sacrificing themselves, unless overpowered by force or persuasion, and one who would turn with natural and instinctive horror from the first idea of sharing her husband's pile, will be at length gradually brought to pronounce a reluctant consent: distracted with grief, without one friend to advise or protect her, she is little prepared to oppose the surrounding crowd of hungry Brahmins and interested relations either by argument or force—accustomed to look on the former with the highest veneration, and to attach implicit belief to all their assertions, she dares not, if she was able to make herself heard, deny the certainty of the various advantages which must attend the sacrifice: in this state a few hours quickly pass, and the widow is burnt before she has had time even to think upon the subject. Should superior sense enable her to resist the arguments of those about her, it will avail her little; the people will not be disappointed of their show, and the entire population of a village will turn out to assist in dragging her to the bank of the river, and in keeping her down on the pile. Under these circumstances nine out of ten widows are burnt to death."

91. In corroboration of the above reasoning of Mr. Walter Ewer, we would observe on behalf of the intended victim, that we see it often stated that the widow was urged and entreated to give up her resolution to burn, but we are not told of all, nor of any part of what had been previously urged to her to bring her to that resolution, nor of the state of her mind and faculties at the moment in which it was declared, and the delusions which were practised to draw it from her, and secure her perseverance in it; in short, the only information on the subject is *ex parte* from the male Hindoo kindred, and there is no one present on the part of the victim to tell her story. If, therefore, the toleration of the practice of suttee should be continued, we think it should be added to your regulations, that the magistrate should himself personally see and converse with the widow previously to her ascending the pile, and endeavour to ascertain from herself whether or not her consent or intention to burn was given and declared voluntarily, and with her own free-will.

92. Of the savage violation of the express ordinance of the Shaster, which directs the sacrifice should be always voluntary, we have adduced melancholy proofs in the list of children included in

the reports to the Nizamut Adawlut, of suttees, or of Hindoo widows who were burnt in the years from 1815 to 1830, inclusive, and we think that the contemplation of those cruel sacrifices, and of the other scenes of scarcely credible barbarity, of which we have here given the recorded narratives, cannot fail to suggest a doubt whether it would not be more easy to effect the abolition of the practice altogether, than to prevent illegal suttees, or secure the observance of the restrictions under which the practice has your sanction.

'93. We have thus stated to you the accumulated grounds of the opinion we have formed on a subject, the importance of which, whether with reference to the sacrifice of human life, or to the character of British rule in India, cannot be overrated, and we have, therefore, in order to bring them fully before you, extended the despatch to a great length, in which too we have been influenced by being aware that it is a subject on which, however deep may be our impression, we cannot at this distance either direct or wish you to act upon it in opposition to your own, and we therefore leave your Government at liberty to continue to tolerate the practice until convinced that a prohibition of it would be attended with no more danger or evil consequences to the public interests, than have followed your prohibitions of the barbarous practices which formerly prevailed in the territories that now form British India.

'94. But as in our sincere opinion nothing short of an absolute overruling necessity can justify the toleration of the practice by the British, or by any Christian government, we most earnestly recommend your directing the Nizamut Adawlut to renew their endeavours to ascertain the truth on this momentous point by every means in their power, obtaining all the assistance and information upon it that can be furnished from the knowledge and experience of the judges and magistrates acting under their authority, as well as from any respectable and intelligent Natives, whose minds may be free from the influence of prejudice and fanaticism; and should the result be unfavourable to an absolute prohibition of the practice, we would next recommend your considering whether a similar procedure to that which was adopted by Mr. T. O. Todd, Criminal Judge of the city of Masulipatam, might not be enjoined on all the other local authorities; and if the Nizamut Adawlut should think that unadvisable, we would suggest the investing those authorities with discretionary power to prevent the ceremony from taking place, whenever they should think that it could be done with safety; but to this last alternative, we are aware it may be objected that it would indicate indecision on the part of Government, and an apprehension of the effect of establishing one uniform system to be in force throughout the British territories.

'95. If, on the other hand, the result of the investigation by the Nizamut Adawlut should, with your concurrent approbation, be a determination to prohibit the practice, we would recommend your

the prohibition be accompanied or preceded by a conciliatory address, to the inhabitants of the districts in which the practice prevails, expressive of the benevolent motives and regard to their happiness in which it originated, and pointing out the extreme wickedness and cruelty of the practice, and the abhorrence in which it must be held by the Supreme Being, whose protecting arm the British Government is the instrument of extending to them for every good purpose, and for shielding them from every injustice and oppression.

In all this we fully and entirely concur. But not so the Directors of the East India Company: for when it was moved by the proposers of these paragraphs, 'that the Court do approve the same,' it was opposed by an amendment to the effect 'that the Court deemed it inexpedient, at present, to issue any new instructions on the subject.' A debate ensued on this, and ended in the adoption of a second amendment, which, though differently worded, equally defeated the benevolent object of the movers, the second amendment 'referring the subject to the Committee of Correspondence, (which is composed of nine of the oldest and, generally speaking, the most impracticable Members of the Direction,) to be by them taken up at such period as by them may be deemed expedient;' which may be safely predicted to be never.

A formal dissent from this resolution of the Court was soon after drawn up and signed by Mr. Hudleston, who has since resigned his seat at the Board, and Mr. William Taylor Money, who has also left the East India Direction for the appointment of Consul-General at Venice. The cause of the abolition of widow burning has, therefore, lost the services of the only two individuals among the whole body of the Directors who had the humanity or the courage to join in a formal protest against the rejection of the Public Despatch adverted to. And seeing what was the issue of their benevolent exertions to stay the ravages of such a hateful practice (for it may be fairly presumed that they were the proposers of the Despatch itself), we may conclude that the chances of any measure in favour of its abolition originating with the East India Directors, is much less now than when they were members of that body.

It behoves the friends of humanity, therefore, to exert themselves with additional zeal to force this powerful but unfeeling Corporation to effect, out of respect to public opinion, what, if left to their own suggestions only, they will never be disposed to accomplish. We give the dissent of Mr. Hudleston and Mr. Money, with which our extracts for the present at least, must close.

At a Court of Directors held on Wednesday the 31st March 1824.

A dissent, signed by John Hudleston and William Taylor Money, Esquires, from the Court's resolution of the 10th inst. referring

to the Committee of Correspondence paragraphs for Bengal, in the judicial department, on the subject of suttee in India, was delivered in, being as follows, viz.:

To the Court of Directors.

Gentlemen,—We dissent from the resolution of the Court passed on Friday the 19th instant, for referring to the Committee of Correspondence some paragraphs which had been offered to the Court on the preceding Wednesday, in the form of a despatch to the Governor-General in Council of Bengal, on the subject of the practice of suttee, or burning of widows in British India with the bodies of their deceased husbands, and the toleration of it by the British Government.

1. Because the paragraphs had been already discussed for several hours by the Court at large, and we cannot advert to the present advanced season of the year, without perceiving that the resolution in question must occasion the postponement of any decision for approving and adopting the proposed despatch, until after the annual change in the Direction shall have taken place, and six members of the present Court shall have quitted their seats in it by rotation; whereas, if the proposed paragraphs are calculated to promote our anxious aim and object,—namely, to accelerate the period of the abolition of the horrid practice, it were desirable that no time would be lost in the Court's adopting them, and transmitting them to Bengal, since it is to be feared that in the interval the toleration of the practice will continue, and hundreds more of widows, his Majesty's subjects, many of them mere children, be sacrificed to the most unnatural superstition that ever debased the human mind.

2. Because we feel the force and serious truth of the following passage, in a valuable work by our late, able, and justly-venerated colleague, Mr. Grant, entitled, "Observations on the State of Society among the Asiatic Subjects of Great Britain."

"The author asks "Are we bound, for ever to preserve all the enormities in the Hindoo system? Have we become the guardians of every monstrous principle and practice which it contains? Are we pledged to support for all generations, by the authority of our Government and the power of our arms, the miseries which ignorance and knavery have so long entailed upon a large portion of the human race?—Is *this* the part which a free, a humane, and an enlightened people, a nation itself professing principles diametrically opposite to those in question, has engaged to act towards its own subjects? It would be too absurd and extravagant to maintain that any engagement of this kind exists, that Great Britain is under any obligation, direct or implied, to uphold errors and usages, gross and fundamentally subversive of the first principles of reason, morality, and religion."

"If we had conquered such a kingdom as Mexico, where a number of human victims were regularly offered every year upon the altar of the sun, should we have calmly acquiesced in this horrid mode of butchery? yet for near thirty years we have, with perfect unconcern, seen rites in reality more cruel and atrocious practised in our Indian territories. If human life must be sacrificed to superstition, at least the more useless, worthless, or unconnected members of the society might be devoted. *But in Hindoostan, mothers of families are taken from the midst of their children, who have just lost their father also, and by a most diabolical complication of force and fraud are driven into the flames!*

"Shall we be in all time to come, as we hitherto have been, passive spectators of this unnatural wickedness? It may, indeed, well appear surprising, that in the long period during which we have held these territories we have made no serious attempt to recall the Hindoos to the dictates of truth and morality. This is a mortifying proof how little it has been considered that the ends of Government and the good of society have an inseparable connexion with right principles. We have been satisfied with the apparent submissiveness of these people, and have attended chiefly to the maintenance of our authority over the country, and the augmentation of our commerce and revenues; but have never, with a view to the promotion of their happiness, looked thoroughly into their internal state."

"The work which contains this admonitory passage was written in the year 1792, and submitted to the Court of Directors in 1797, since which the territories of almost all the once powerful native states of India have been annexed to the British empire (suitable provision being made for their princes), their people made British subjects, and of course become entitled to the protection of the British laws, and they are gratefully sensible of the happy change which has freed them from the oppressions of their former rulers; in short, the British power is absolute in India, and the people pay it the most willing obedience; however necessary, therefore, the toleration of the horrid enormity alluded to in Mr. Grant's work, might have been when he so ardently deprecated its continuance, we think that in the proposed despatch to the Bengal government ample grounds are laid for doubting if that necessity any longer exists, and whether the British Government in India, with the power it now possesses, would find greater difficulty or danger in putting down the most barbarous and revolting of all the Hindoo practices, than it experienced in abolishing, or at least prohibiting all their other, but less cruel practices, and especially in annulling the Hindoo law, which gave impunity to Brahmins, and making them, in common with the inferior castes, amenable to the British laws."

3. Because, even admitting that there would be danger in prohibiting the practice, we should doubt our having a moral right

to permit any Natives become British subjects, male or female, to burn themselves, or to be burnt alive in British India, from fear of the consequence of preventing it; but if in this we assume too much, we may, at least, confidently submit, that the danger of prohibiting the practice should be made manifest. Of the many instances cited in the proposed despatch, in which the horrid ceremony has been prevented from taking place, by the humanity and firmness of the local authorities, some, or one, at least, should be adduced in which the prevention was followed by disturbance or tumult, or expression of anger, or sense of injury; but, hitherto, in the proceeding of the Bengal government, and the reports of the Nizamut Adawlut on the subject, we have seen little more than general reasoning and observations referring to the principle of abstaining from interference in the religious usages and prejudices of the Natives; on the other hand, in favour of the safety with which the practice of suttee might be abolished, the following considerations appear to us collectively of great importance; namely, that the practice is not founded in Hindoo law, and only recommended, not enjoined or insisted on in the Shasters; that, among the Hindoos themselves, there is a great division of sentiment on the subject; that in many districts (especially on the Madras side of India and in Malabar) it is quite unknown, in others of very rare occurrence; that the upper and more intelligent classes in general condemn the practice, and it is chiefly, and almost exclusively, confined to the ignorant and uneducated; that in many instances the performance of the ceremony has been prevented by the local authorities, in some by refusal of permission, in others by authoritative interference, and in all without exciting either resistance or complaint; that the practice was not permitted by foreign governments when they had power and territory in India. In aid of these considerations is the most important fact, that many of the most intelligent and experienced servants of the Company employed in those stations, which afford the best means and opportunities of acquiring knowledge on the subject, among whom are a member of the Nizamut Adawlut itself, a Superintendent of the Police, and a Judge of the Calcutta Court of Circuit, the rest criminal zillah judges and magistrates and collectors, have declared in the most unequivocal terms their opinions that the practice might be abolished without any sort of danger or evil consequence whatever; three, including the Judge of the Nizamut Adawlut, added that they considered the toleration of the practice a reproach to the British Government; and here we must add what we consider as a striking fact in proof of there being nothing like religious enthusiasm in the reverence for the practice, namely, that when the southern Concan in the dominions of the Peshwa, late head of the Mahratta state, came into our possession, the inhabitants voluntarily discontinued the practice, in consequence of understanding that it was repugnant to the British laws, and

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICE OF FORTUNE ALBRAND; WITH EXTRACTS
FROM HIS UNPUBLISHED MEMOIRS.

[Translated for the 'Oriental Herald,' from the French Journal 'Le Globe.']

FORTUNE' ALBAND, born at Marseilles, in 1795, died in the island of Saint Mary, off Madagascar, the 11th December 1826. From his earliest youth his mind shone out with unusual brilliancy. A lively and premature comprehension of the genius of languages more especially distinguished him; and at the age of 16 years, he had learnt Arabic and modern Greek at Marseilles, before quitting that city in quest of fresh lessons in the metropolis. In Paris he astonished his masters by his wonderful facility in acquiring, with equal promptitude all the Oriental idioms. He pursued his studies of the Eastern languages under the celebrated French Orientalists M. M. Sacy and Langles, and, under their protection, would no doubt have been soon placed beside them in the professor's chair; but the restless activity of his spirit traced out for him a different career, and his passion for adventures and desire of travelling irresistibly led him on to another destiny. He went out to the Isle of Bourbon in 1820, with the modest title of Professor, but pre-resolved to give a wider scope to his active character. He soon, therefore, quitted that island, where the colonial life presented him nothing from which he might derive instruction, and boldly threw himself alone, and without a guide, among the people of Madagascar. The stories related of his facility in acquiring the language of those savages, of the ascendancy which he obtained over them from the very extent of the love and veneration which those people bore him, appear quite fabulous. It was then that the idea occurred to him of founding a colony on that land, till then so fatal to Europeans. His projects were approved by the Government at home; men and money were placed at his disposal; and although a fatal climate destroyed, one after the other, all the associates sent out to him from the mother country, his indefatigable patience, and his vast mental resources, enabled him to overcome all obstacles, and the newly founded colony of Saint Mary began to flourish. Prospects of fortune opened themselves before the young chief, and already the regards of the Government awaited him. For himself not satisfied with directing and animating these important labours, he found time to exercise for his talents. He committed to writing the results of his daily and profound observations which he daily made, and formed a *Malagache Dictionary*, composed of more than 50,000 words, to facilitate the communications between Europe and Madagascar, that kind of profitable but perilous commerce. These important pursuits and labours, and the interesting adventures connected with them, we propose to relate in further detail, taking up the history of Albond after his arrival in the Isle of Bourbon.

was at Fort Dauphin also that he collected the materials of his French and Malgache Dictionary, which he completed on his return to Bourbon, as soon as a violent malady, by which he was attacked, left him the power to do so.

The success which had attended his first diplomatic efforts led to other similar commissions. An expedition still more important and more difficult was contemplated. The Government of Bourbon projected an embassy to the most formidable Prince of Madagascar, Radama, the King of the Hovas, a people inhabiting a district of the interior, about eighty leagues from the coast. Albrand was chosen for this mission also. It was one in which the interests of the colony were most materially involved. The object of it was to be the first to gain, by being beforehand with the English, a prince whose genius and ambition rendered his alliance most desirable. 'Radama,' says Albrand in his memoirs, 'although little known in Europe, appeared destined to change the face of Madagascar. Instigated by the thirst of conquest, and absolute master of the most industrious and most considerable nation of the island, he had brought all the neighbouring people under his yoke, and already the terror of his name had extended to the neighbouring countries. Active, resolute, greedy of knowledge, and abounding in wild and crude genius; but cruel, hypocritical, covetous, and stained with the blood of his kindred, he was the Aurengzebe of Madagascar. An embassy to such a prince, the Government deemed, should be attended with extraordinary pomp. All was ready; the embarkation was about to take place on board the *Rhone*, a pink, belonging to the French navy, when, by a blindness, the consequences of which are now forcibly felt, the Government, suddenly retracting, sacrificed the future to some momentary views of economy.*

From this period the second part of the colonial life of Albrand commences. He had, till then, says the author of the notice of his life, laboured to acquire renown: but he was also desirous of enriching his family, and of thus repaying the kindnesses which his father had lavished on his tender years, and he had yet done nothing towards the attainment of so noble an object. Looking around with this wish prevailing in his mind, a grand idea suddenly occurred to him. He resolved, while he made a fortune for himself, to give a new colony to France.

* The English have acquired an entire ascendant over the mind of Radama. Incited and encouraged by them he had driven (in March 1825) the French from Fort Dauphin, where Albrand had planted the *Drapeau Blanc* six years before. He had made himself master of the whole coast from Foulpoint to the Bay of Antongil, on which, till then, France had never found any but faithful allies; and at the instigation of the English, he had established there a line of custom-houses, which carried entirely the traffic in rice and oxen, which the island of Bourbon has carried on for the consumption of the colony.

The French Government had for a long time desired to make, anew, the experiment of a military establishment at Saint Mary, of which many circumstances bespoke the necessity. But they saw that every establishment of the kind must fail unless some agricultural colony should be founded in the neighbourhood, to help to cultivate the soil, and to procure for the military the resources indispensable to their maintenance. The obstacles to the military colony were such, that although the enterprise had been long announced, the Government was obliged to withdraw from it. The agricultural colony presented still greater difficulties, and such as were almost insurmountable. The insalubrity of the climate, the mistrustful and vindictive character of the natives, the disastrous result of attempts made at different times within the preceding century and a half, damped the courage of all, and made them regard any new enterprise as an act of rashness and folly. On all these accounts the projects had but the greater charms in the imagination of Albrand. The danger, and he by no means closed his eyes to its extent, only inflamed his ardour of enterprise, and to the counsels and exhortations of friendship attempting to divert him from the fatal design, he answered, that the climate as well as the people had become familiar to him by long experience, and that he should succeed. And such was the force of his character, and of his irresistible confidence in his projects, that to this, the most hazardous of all, he gained over two of his friends.

M. Carayon, a distinguished officer of artillery, consented to share his labours and perils, and went with him. M. Hugot, a rich merchant of Bourbon, although he had for a long time opposed his project, was ready to assist him with his fortune, with a zeal and disinterestedness the more remarkable, as at the moment when the two bold colonists embarked, the general opinion at Bourbon presaged them inevitable death, and to M. Hugot the loss of his capital. But fortune, in which Albrand placed a confidence often justified by the result, and of whom he observed, with unaffected resignation, when kindly reproached with relying too much on her, 'My friend fortune is better than I; she has never deceived me'—fortune did not desert him on this occasion.

He departed with his intrepid companion, the latter end of July 1820, attended by the vows and fears for his safety of the whole colony. He spent a whole year, like a real Robinson Crusoe, in a half-savage life, among six or seven hundred Malgaches, whom he astonished by his labours, whose attachment he gained by his confidence in them, and whom he charmed by speaking their idiom, as if he had been born amongst them. He planted coffee, cloves, and all the colonial productions which would grow in the soil he cultivated, as well as all the trees of Europe which would flourish there; and lastly, by the end of three years, he had founded a habitation healthy, commodious, magnificent, and from the year 1823 the

object of admiration to all who visited it; and of the wonders of which the recital, when published at Bourbon, appeared incredible. On departing for Saint Mary's in the last days of July, the two friends could hardly expect more than two or three months of fine weather before the *hivernage*, as the French, in the distant climes situated near the tropic of Capricorn, call the season which prevails there during the months in which winter reigns in Europe. It is easily conceived that there can be nothing in common between this *hivernage* and an European winter, except in the etymology of the word, which serves the French colonists for a remembrance of their country. In those countries, in fact, the cold season (and that term must be understood but relatively) takes place in June, July, and August; in the *hivernage*, on the contrary, the most ardent heat prevails, the sun being then almost constantly in the zenith. It is also the season of the terrible hurricanes which so often desolate the colonies; and in Madagascar it is that of the most destructive fevers; and the island, during the months mentioned, but too well justifies its name of *the Cemetery of the French*. At Bourbon the list of the dead is looked for after a *hivernage* as after a battle. M. Carayon had a sad experience of the effects of the climate, Albrand nursed his friend, but was himself exempt.

In the midst, however, of the agricultural views, which required so much labour and care, Albrand was not entirely diverted from his desire of travel. As soon as the first plantations were sufficiently advanced to allow of the absence of one of the two associates, he undertook the boldest voyage ever conceived.

On the 17th of April 1821, he set out for Angoutzi, a road at about 60 leagues distance from the Isle Saint Mary! Alone, in a frail bark, and at the mercy of a few Natives whom he prevailed on to accompany him, and whose victim he might easily have become, impatient to explore some barbarous shore till then unknown, he committed himself to the ocean in an open canoe, with the continual risk of being swallowed by the waves, without any fixed design, other than to indulge his irresistible propensity for travel. In fact, he intended a voyage of twenty days, and he was five months on the waters. His family were unacquainted with the enterprise until some months after his return, they had an account of it in the following lines: 'It is not here the place,' he writes, 'to enumerate to you all the adventures I met with in a navigation of a hundred leagues against adverse winds, in dreadful weather, in an open canoe; it will be enough for you to know that I remained five months without bread, wine, meat, or salt, and without hearing a single word of French.'

In the interval a new Governor had arrived at Bourbon. The administration of that colony had been committed to a man who had known Albrand in 1817, and who took the liveliest interest in him. On his arrival, as the success of the two friends, although as complete

as it was un hoped for, had not yet allayed all fears for them, he hastened to send him a King's ship to bring him to Bourbon, inviting him by letter to a conference. The first words of this letter are too remarkable to be passed unrecorded: 'Sir,' wrote the Governor to him, 'one who has had the happiness of knowing you but for a few moments only, cannot but love you all his life.' The actions of the Governor corresponded with his flattering expressions. M. de Freycinet offered our young colonist the place of diplomatic agent at Bourbon, with advantages which presented strong temptations to its acceptance. Albrand, however, felt an attachment for the soil which he had, as it were, created; his engagements with his two associates formed besides a tie which his delicacy did not allow him to break. Yet, when his family and friends in France, informed of his rash resolution, wrote letters after letters to induce him to quit Saint Mary, M. Hugot, to whom they had also addressed themselves, behaved in the most upright and disinterested manner. He forwarded the letter to Albrand, and declared that he released him from all claims to his services at Saint Mary's. But Albrand was not of a disposition to be outdone in noble deeds: he would neither consent that the capital advanced by his friend should be lost, nor would he abandon the companion who had shared his voyage and his labours. He remained firm against all solicitation, and shortly afterwards refused, although with regret, but from the same motives, to go on an embassy to the same Radama of whom we have spoken above. During the two years which had passed since the project had been formerly in agitation of courting the favour of that Prince, many regrets had been expressed that it had not been persevered in. It is a circumstance worthy of remark, however, that on the refusal of Albrand to charge himself with it, the mission did not take place. He alone was capable of filling it.

In the mean time, the colony which he had founded continued increasing, and prosperity, order, and regularity, were completely established in its affairs. The Government of Bourbon had, at several intervals, sent to make of the two colonists the necessary inquiries to decide the expediency of establishing the military settlement first projected; and, on the strength of their answers and of their success, an expedition was resolved on. It at last set off from the ports of France; and towards the beginning of the year 1822, that is to say eighteen months after the arrival of the two friends, the military colony was established at Port Louis, which became the chief place of the colony. Three-fourths of the men who composed it were carried off by the climate with appalling rapidity. 'I have seen four die to-day,' wrote Albrand, 'one of whom waited at table on me this morning.' During the last month there have perished as many as thirty-one in a single day. In a word, out of 160 who arrived here, 97 have been carried off, and the rest are sick. Albrand was greatly afflicted by these disasters, but he would not be discouraged. The men became at last more

docile to the advice which his experience dictated to them, and from this the establishment derived great advantage. He refused neither fatigues nor dangers, nothing, in short, when the common interest was at stake. He was in some sort the friend of the new colony. They acknowledged him as such, and had soon an opportunity of giving a striking proof of the estimation in which they held him.

The Commandant of Saint Mary's fell a victim to the effects of the climate (the 2d of April 1823.) His death, and the absence of all officers who had a right to succeed him, placed the colony in an embarrassing situation; and the vengeance of the natives, who had been provoked by vexations and acts of injustice, was to be apprehended. In this emergency all eyes turned towards Albrand. Although a mere private colonist, he was chosen, with one voice, chief of the settlement. Let him here speak for himself, that we may form an idea of the activity and talents he displayed during his short administration: 'My first care,' says he, 'was to introduce some regularity in the expenditure, in order to shelter my responsibility, and to mark a line of separation between the preceding administration and mine. On the day of my entering into office, I commanded all the subordinate officers to present me, within eight days, a statement of the condition of the effects belonging to the King which were under their charge. I gave orders that the battery of the Isle Madame should be strengthened with new stakes and palisades, that it might be capable of serving us for an entrenchment, from behind which we might resist all attacks from the natives. The Mozambiques enlisted in our service, a robust and faithful race, on whose fidelity we might rely, I caused to be armed and exercised in the use of the musket. I also exercised at the cannon and howitzers the soldiers of the garrison, who for the most part are but recruits. I convoked the natives. . . .'

Still all these toils and fatigues but imperfectly satisfied the activity of his mind. To wait patiently the result of his labours, and to enjoy the gradual progress of his plantations, were incompatible with the need of action, and of new enquiries, which to him was life. Commerce again opened a career to his indefatigable ardour. The three friends entered into the speculation of contracting for a share in provisioning the isles of Bourbon and Mauritius. Albrand alone was charged with the care of procuring these various supplies, which consisted principally of rice and oxen brought from Madagascar. They required on his part frequent visits to the main island. Acquisitions were there made of several spots of ground, to which Albrand went, from time to time, to protect the occupiers by his presence. These journeys of his were highly serviceable to the new colony, not yet in a condition to supply all the wants of its own settlers, and to which the jealousy of the Isle of Bourbon often refused the supply of articles of the first necessity. The care of provisioning its provisions once entrusted to Albrand, none that moment nothing was wanting to the general welfare.

The name of Albrand now began to be sounded at 2000 leagues from his abode. Without any solicitation on his part, he was received a member of the Legion of Honour, and the Geographical Society, established at Paris, wrote to him expressing their desire to enrol him in the number of their correspondents. A sort of universality in the languages of the East, rendered him a valuable acquisition to them; and this seems the place to mention that, after his arrival at Bourbon, he had added to those he was before acquainted with, the Malay, the Hindoo, the Souaih, and the Sanscrit. Thus he knew the classic languages of antiquity, the principal tongues of Europe, the most striking idioms of Africa, and almost all those of the East, and not only did he speak these languages, but he was versed in the literature of all such as had any. On contemplating this variety of studies and talents, receiving daily, as they did, fresh excitement from a life full of action, of dangers, and of glory, and at once savage and civilized, we cannot but form a high conception of the numerous and splendid acquisitions for which letters and sciences might have some day been indebted to an imagination, rich with such various treasure, if, when restored, after a course of years, to his family, and to a life of repose, Albrand had felt the desire of recording, in works of some extent, the mass of ideas, of facts, of observations, and of discoveries, which must have been so long maturing in his head, with all the energy which solitude gives to thought.

In the meantime, circumstances around him began to give cause for uneasiness: the English, jealous of the rising colony, had excited the Hovas against it. The traffic of Saint Mary's with Madagascar, and the very existence of the colony, were menaced. Albrand redoubled his cares and his activity. The intimate friendship which subsisted between him and the new Commandant at the isle of Bourbon, assured him the liberty of employing, without restraint, in the defense of the colony, his talents, and all the knowledge with which his experience furnished him. The troops of Radama had pillaged and burnt all the villages situated on the opposite coast, and Saint Mary's at length became the object of their attack. A summons was addressed to the Natives, requiring them to acknowledge the authority of Radama. To this bold pretension, answer was immediately made by an energetic protestation. This conveyed to Radama, by the schooner the *Bacchante*, had such a happy effect, that that prince immediately acknowledged the sovereignty of France over Saint Mary's, and sought to enter into negotiation on other matters in dispute. Albrand immediately departed on board the *Sylphe*, another King's ship, in quality of Envoy Extraordinary, for Foulpoint, where Radama had his head-quarters; but Radama was not sincere, and no conference took place. On the approach of such an envoy, the chief of the Hovas saw that, in consenting to give him a hearing, he should expose himself to yield more than he desired. The principal object, nevertheless, was attained, and the colony gained

from the prompt and energetic measures of Albrand, both consequence and freedom from molestation.

During these proceedings the agricultural labours had not been for one moment intermitted; on the contrary, he now gave them a more extended scope: he cleared new tracts of ground: to his plantations of cloves and coffee he now added a sugar plantation, the works of which, carried on without interruption, were on the point of being brought to perfection at the moment of his death. Already his example and his success had inspired the rest of the colonists with a portion of that courage, which had enabled him to overcome so many obstacles. New plantations were established, and flourished by the side, and under the shelter, as it were of his. The aspect of the island became altogether changed, and instead of a few rugged and barren rocks, on which a few soldiers were stationed, France possessed a new colony.

A last and most important service remained for him to render to this colony of his own formation. This was to secure its political independence, in releasing it from the subjection to which the administrative hierarchy consigned it, under the isle of Bourbon, of which it daily experienced the caprices and jealousy. This ancient colony could not, without inquietude, see a rival establishment increase and prosper. He succeeded in doing this service also, and by a memorial addressed to the Government, (the last he penned), he obtained permission for the Commandant of Saint Mary's to communicate directly with the ministry at Paris.

All had now been done both for others and for himself. It only remained to await the results; and these results, however happy and rich they might have been expected to prove, could not have been slow to follow. But he to whom they were attributable, was not destined to enjoy the fruit of his services.

He set out on the 20th of October, 1826, for Teneriffe, and proceeded as far as Foulpoint, where a lieutenant of Radama then commanded. It would seem, although we have no certain grounds on which to affirm the fact, that the aim of this voyage was to confer with that chief on some points concerning the interests of Saint Mary. But his so frequent voyages to the main island had raised fears in the Hovas, who became already more haughty since the isle of Bourbon had, for three years, allowed to go unpunished the reiterated insults of that nation. In the counsels of the new colony Albrand had shown himself their constant adversary, and of this they were not ignorant. The Hovan commander, nevertheless, received him with the greatest civility, but he could not succeed in the object of his voyage. Murmurs were raised against him, and obstacles thrown in his way. Fatigues and anxiety brought on a malady of the *encephale*, which, in his own words, partook in no degree of the nature of the fever of Madagascar.

In 1820, when about to embark for Saint Mary's, which was destined to be the scene of his fame and the tomb of his hopes, he had written thus to his father: 'I am engaged to remain six years at Saint Mary's. Adieu! my dear and much-beloved father. Believe me, that I have no prospect so sweet and so gratifying to me as that of being some day able to make a return to you of a share of what you have done for me, and to acquit myself towards my family of the debt which your benefits have laid upon me. It is with this idea that I labour: with these sentiments, and with activity and prudence, why should I not succeed? In six years then—everything tells me I shall succeed.'

On the 11th December, 1826, the six years had elapsed, and he was no more!

STANZAS.

PALE lovely lamp, that lights my midnight gloom,
How welcome is thy feeble ray to me!
How sweet the silence of this lonely room,
That speaks me severed from society,—
Save the deep thoughts that in my soul have birth,
That ne'er companion'd other breast on earth.

The solitary gladness of my soul
I would not part with for the loudest lays
That through the crowded haunts of fashion roll,
While beam ten thousand lamps in golden blaze;
More sweet its feelings, and more formed to bless,
Than all that glare of fancied happiness.

'Tis gladness, though the world might different deem,—
'Tis gladness when I shed this secret tear;
There glows within my soul some beauteous dream,
Or thought, or feeling, to the bosom dear;—
Or memory of scenes now fled,—what though for ever?—
The joy they gave will leave the fancy never.

Hail, midnight Solitude! then, ever hail!
Hail to thee, as the fountain in the waste!
Whose waters of refreshing never fail,
Nor ever weary the delighted taste.
Oh, whensoever the day's long toilings close,
I'll seek but this sweet source of calm repose.

And there I glad will sit, thy moon above
Thy stars soft beaming, and thy gales around,
Sweeter than sighs of friendship or of love,
That oft, full oft, the trusting bosom wound.
Oh, I will ne'er ask converse with my kind,
While thus thou blestest my secluded mind!

FRAGMENT.

CAN there be a softer gleam
Than the moon's upon the stream,—
When there seems a shower of light
Mixing with the waters bright?
Can there be a brighter glow,
Than an evening's sunny brow?
Can there softer dews be shed,
Than fall upon the rose-bud's head?
Sweeter breath the earth pass o'er,
Than the gales from Saba's shore;
Sweeter sounds on ether float,
Than her nocturnal minstrels note.

Yes, there can;—the eye bent low
In pity o'er a fallen foe,
Softer holier light doth send,
Than when the moon and waters blend;
Far more beauteous the glow
On the warrior's cheek and brow,
When his manly arm he gives
To raise, and glad exclaims, 'He lives!'
Far more sweet than drops of dew
On the loveliest rose's hue,
The pure tear he stoops to shed
On the nobly conquer'd dead.

And more sweet than scented gales
From Saba's spicy vales;
Or the night-bird's softest song
To the first of Flora's throng;
Sweeter, yes, to heaven's ear,
Than its praise by scraps sung;
The pure sigh the warrior hears,
By pity from his bosom wrung.
Oh, 'midst the pride and glow of fight,
To turn aside and shed that tear,
Makes kin to heaven, who, in the night,
Darkness, and wrath, of its career
Of vengeance, still desires to save,
And bends its ear to misery's crave.

If Mercy bear an angel's form
In peace,—how shines she in the storm,
Conflict, and tumult of the war?
An image of the Deity,—
A beam in day's calm, sweeter far
Than all its sun-bright hours can see;
But in that night a cheering star,
Above all others of the host,
That beams along the heavenly coast.

S. E. H.

only resumed it on finding that it was tolerated by the British Government.

4. Because, however far from conveying any order for prohibiting the practice, it is expressly acknowledged, towards the conclusion of the proposed despatch, that it was a subject on which, however deep might have been our impression, we were aware that we could not at this distance either direct or wish them to act upon it in opposition to their own, leaving them at liberty to continue their toleration of the practice until convinced that a prohibition of it would be unattended with danger; and merely recommending to them the directing the Nizamut Adawlut to renew their endeavours to ascertain the truth on that momentous point by every means in their power, obtaining all the information and assistance that could be derived from the knowledge and experience of the judges, and magistrates acting under their authority as well as from any respectable and intelligent Natives whose minds might be free from the influence of prejudice and fanaticism.

Finally, because therefore as the paragraphs proposed to form a separate despatch to the Bengal Government could not possibly be productive of harm, we regret the indefinite delay of any good which the immediate adoption of them might eventually have produced, reflecting that probably no day passes on which some victims are not sacrificed to the horrid practice in India, and more especially in the Bengal provinces.

We have the honour to be, Gentlemen,

Your most humble servants,

East-India-House,
31st March 1824,

(Signed) J. HUDLESTON.
W. T. MONEY.

LA BELLE DE NUIT.

By R. HILL, Esq.

This poetical name is given, in the French islands of the West Indies, to the flower of the 'Marvel of Peru,' the 'Mirabilis Jalapa,' of the botanists. In the English isles of the Caribbean Sea, it is known by the appellation of the 'Night Primrose,' and 'The Four o'Clock,' from the hour towards sunset at which it begins to expand its blossoms to the evening dews.

Oh! faithful to the darkling hour

When the last sunbeam's on the sea,

And evening dews fall on the flower,

And mountain winds breathe o'er the lea;

In that soft time—when whisper'd love

Finds rapture in its favourite bower,—

The pale blue star that shines above

So coldly from its western tower,

great many species hitherto unknown. He ascended to the height of six hundred toises : he was desirous of reaching the very highest points, which, according to Kotzebue, are 2419 metrical toises above the level of the sea ; but his strength, exhausted by the fatigue of a long voyage, did not correspond with his zeal ; and his guides, wet and shivering, and losing courage, refused to follow him. He was obliged, therefore, to make his retreat. He gathered, however, in his excursion, a collection of plants, the publication of which is the more valuable, inasmuch as those of Menziées, the only botanist who before him had attempted to climb the same mountains, remain shut up in the herbals unknown to the scientific world.

The Flora of the Sandwich Isles comprises a great number of species peculiar to them, as well as others which appear borrowed from countries situated under the same or neighbouring latitudes, but under longitudes often far distant. Some species are found which are indigenous in Asia, in America, in New Holland, and even in Africa and Europe. It is a curious circumstance, not to be satisfactorily explained, that vegetable productions, distributed in different parts of the world, are found brought together on a group of islands, far separated from all others, in the midst of the great equatorial ocean. Conceding that a great number of species may have been transported by the currents and by the winds, or carried there by the human race ; yet these different causes do not account for all the facts. It certainly was not man who sowed in the midst of the virgin forests of Owyhee, at 600 toises above the sea, the seeds of exotic species which would be useless to him ; nor could the currents, under the present order of things at least, have carried them there. It is also difficult to believe that heavy seeds, driven from their native climate by violent hurricanes, have traversed thousands of leagues through the air, and have come to propagate, with the aid of the clouds, in the archipelago of the Sandwiches, the species to which they belong.

Would we maintain that originally every country had its peculiar botany, without any mixture of species common to other countries, and that, in after-times, partial emigrations have augmented and modified their primitive floral productions, there seems but one method of giving to this hypothesis an air of probability ; which is to suppose in the first place that the dispersion of certain vegetable races remounts to epochs but little removed from that of the great revolutions of the globe, and that this dispersion took place under the influence of causes which existed then, but which do not exist at this day. Many observations proved how apt the influence of the soil and of the climate is to create a variation in the vegetable organization, and cast an uncertainty on the classification of the botanical species. Between the level of the sea, for instance, on the coast of Owyhee and the region of the clouds, the same species often undergoes such various modifications, that it is only by attending to every transition, that the unity of the type is to be determined.

THE 'EDINBURGH MEDICAL JOURNAL' AND THE 'QUARTERLY REVIEW,' ON CONTAGION.

No. II.

WE come now to the very able but very artful paper in the 56th Number of the Quarterly Review ; we say artful, because, whilst it professes to lay the whole question dispassionately before the reader, and disclaims all attempts to influence the feelings of the public, it yet abounds in direct appeals of this nature, and by accepting as true, every account of the plague which is produced, and thus accumulating assumed facts to a fearful amount, without the smallest inquiry into causes, it contrives to raise up a mass of horrors sufficient to shake and overpower the calmest understanding.

We are ready to admit, that of all the occurrences within the scope of human experience or imagination, nothing impresses the mind with such awful sensations of mysterious and uncontrollable power as the origin and progress of a destructive epidemic. Under other visitations we are sensible of some consolation and support in being able to comprehend their causes, and even when uncertain in this respect, still the suddenness of the calamity for the most part lessens the amount of human suffering, and the survivors, whilst they bow to the decrees of Providence in trembling and consternation, yet breathe a grateful acknowledgement for their individual immunity. But, under the sufferings of a protracted and widely spreading disease, the case is far different ; the anguish of mind occasioned by the loss of our friends and connections, is more than equalled by the horrid suspense in which we are kept as to the fate of those who are still spared to us, and to our own. The frightful increase in the number of the sick, and the consequent diminution in the means of attending to their medical treatment, as well as to the interment of the dead, are calculated to give so great an intensity to the disease, that all hope in human assistance appears to be vain, and imagination itself is baffled and confounded in attempting to conjecture at what period and in what manner a termination can possibly be put to so dire a calamity. Yet it is certain, that when our feelings of despair are at the highest, when the accumulation of the dead and dying appear to prognosticate nothing short of utter extermination, the distemper* suddenly re-

* The occurrence of a plague as well as the comparatively sudden deliverance from it, were formerly attributed to an especial decree of Providence ; the light which philosophy has thrown upon the subject has induced most reflecting persons to believe that it is by the equilibrium of the atmosphere being, disturbed in some unaccountable manner (and the human constitution is as the Quarterly Reviewers say, a very delicate in-

Brings more of joy, lone flower, to thee,
 Adorer of the silent night,
 Than brighter skies to those that be
 Companions of the gairish light.

Thine is the dewy drop that falls,
 Like Pity's tear for those that grieve,
 The voice, when life with sorrow palls,
 That bids the heart rejoice and live,—
 Thine is the silence, when the soul
 Communes in secret and alone,
 And gazing on from pole to pole,
 Sees other worlds beside its own,—
 Thine is the soft, the placid hour,
 And hearts at rest shall linger still,
 To bless thy bloom, meek, modest flower,
 And bid thee burgeon at thy will.

What though the azure dove hath sung
 Its requiem to the setting sun,
 And cliff and mountain glen have rung
 With farewell songs, since day is done:
 What though the humming bird hath left
 The closing flower of day, nor turns
 To cull one kiss from thee bereft,
 And darkly lone like one that mourns,—
 Yet shall the mock-bird linger still,
 Upon its old accustom'd tree,
 And chaunt its sweetest-wildest trill,
 And latest song, lone flower, for thee.

Pale blossom of the poet's star,
 Emblem of meekness and of tears,
 As o'er the tremulous waters far,
 The crescent moon in light appears,
 I hail thee with a heart that feels
 A darken'd fate allied to thine;
 For the chill wind that o'er thee steals
 Is cold as friendship's hand to mine.
 The night hath shed its dews for thee,
 My flow'ret with its tears are wet,—
 And I too feel mine hours to be
 Like thine, the gloom when suns are set.

GEOLOGICAL CONSTITUTION, CLIMATE, AND BOTANY OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

[From the verbal Report made by M. de Mirbel, to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, on the 8th of October 1827.]

THE Archipelago formed by the Sandwich Isles is a group of extinct volcanoes. The lavas, of which the soil is composed, present themselves in different states of decomposition, and those differences have an influence on the vegetation. In districts where the decomposition is complete, a multitude of plants of vigorous species cover the face of the country; but on the contrary, in those parts where it has hardly commenced, even those of a poor species are rare. Owyhee, the largest and highest of the Sandwich Islands, is almost void of cultivation near the coast, and with the exception of the places where the rivers, flowing down from the mountains, have deposited a vegetal soil, the vegetation is scattered and every where poor.

At 150 toises above the level of the sea, the lava is still hard, yet its opacity and inequality of surface announce a commencement of decomposition. The heat there is destructive, and the atmosphere is of an extreme dryness; the soil nourishing neither mosses nor lichens, and the species which it does produce are all degenerate. Many of them are such as are found on the coasts of Asia. All reptiles and insects avoid these dreary and savage situations.

Towards the height of three hundred toises a marked change is perceptible in the soil, the climate, and the vegetation. The lava, entirely decomposed, is reduced to a mould of prodigious fertility, and clouds continually hang over this region; sometimes they expand into fogs, which refresh the air, and moderate the ardour of the sun; sometimes also, agitated by tempestuous winds, they engender tempests, and fall in abundant rains. Under the influence of such circumstances, it will be easily comprehended that the vegetation must be rich and varied. At that elevation the natives have formed cultural establishments truly worthy of the name. Numerous habitations, backed by the virgin forests of the country, are overshadowed by grand plantations of the *cocos*, the *artocarpus*, the *eugenia*, the *nuisa*, while in the vicinity are collected all the useful vegetables in culture on some points of the acclivity.

At less than 100 toises above the habitations, the region of the clouds commences. There the sun seldom appears in full splendour: cool rains, thick and penetrating fogs, succeed each other incessantly, and render a sojourn among them insupportable to the traveller who has been exposed below to the suffocating heats of the torrid zone. The natives themselves dread this vaporish and temperate climate, which is not, however, the less suited to a multitude of vegetables, of which the virgin forests of the isle of Sandwich are composed. M. Gaudichaud, on accompanying M. de Freycinet in his voyage round the globe, made a collection of a

in studying the history of military operations, every reader is struck with the dreadful nature of war when depicted in such sanguinary struggles as those at Borodino or Waterloo, on each of which occasions, perhaps, a hundred thousand combatants were slaughtered. They forget, however, that the field of battle alone enables us to form but a slender judgment of the ravages of war as a general calamity, and that for one glorious death, as it is called, by the sword, there are ten, perhaps twenty, who perish miserably from the effect of fatigue, privation, and the consequent excitements of all kinds of excesses incident to human depravity.

The question of contagion is no doubt, in a great measure, a medical one, but it depends upon a few plain facts, of the fairness and conclusiveness of which any non-medical man of judgment ought to be enabled to form his opinion without difficulty. It is asserted, indeed, by the Reviewer, (p. 240,) that any doubt as to exclusive fitness of medical men for conducting the discussion, rests only upon the idea that students of medicine are the slaves of authority, which, in after-life, as physicians, they seldom outgrow. Not so. The class of medical men, like all others, is, we apprehend, composed of minds of various calibres and various ways of thinking; like the rest of the public, too, the majority are very likely to be timid or subservient, or liable to be led away by the statements or known prejudices of others—but unlike the rest of the public, (that is on a question relating to their own profession,) they can retreat when hard pressed, into the strong ground of doubts and technicalities, whence it is very difficult, and particularly for non-medical men, to expel them. A heretic, if he merely denies the true faith, excites no other feeling than contempt for his obstinacy; but if he supports himself upon the authority of Scripture, he becomes dangerous as well as obstinate. The Reviewer, indeed, says, it is easy to argue about law with a physician—that is not the proposition for which we contend—but, that it is easy for a physician to argue about his profession with a person who is ignorant of it, and that even one who is not so will have great difficulty in convincing him. If it be objected, that upon this principle diligent study would appear calculated merely to unfit a man for giving a correct judgment upon any question, we answer that in all professions where theory and practice are intimately blended, this inconvenience has been found to prevail in a greater or less degree. The functions of the legislator and those of the judge require a different order of mind; and the general views and comprehensive method of reasoning of the one are not necessarily called for by the other in the faithful discharge of his duty as an interpreter of the laws. In the medical profession, however, every man, when his opinions are called in question, becomes at once a philosopher; he not only asserts the correctness of every precept laid down by authority, but he theorises in his turn, and opposes every appearance of innovation by an appeal to certain principles which he contends are, or should be, familiar to all men.

colleagues. If any individual of name or respectability points out the fallacy of his reasoning, he contents himself with observing, that they differ in opinion, and there is an end of the affair; but woe to the unhappy wight who, without such advantages, ventures to contravert established notions, or to recommend new ones; no measure of reprobation can be too great for the heinousness of his offence, no degree of self-humiliation sufficient to appease the offended pride and dignity of his judges.

We perfectly agree with the Reviewer, (p. 242,) that the question at issue ought to be resolved by experience, and not by reasoning; but, agreeably to the principles laid down by himself, (p. 231,) when experience is at most but imperfect, we think that the best evidence in degree, which the nature of the proposition and the circumstances will permit, can only be found in the inferences to be drawn from such facts, inconclusive as they are, as we actually possess. The Reviewer, however, has, it seems, (p. 241,) a great objection to inferences; but, in order to destroy that which the non-contagionists derive from a comparison between epidemic and contagious diseases, he takes refuge in the technical question, 'whether the eruptive fevers are the only class of contagious fevers.' A little further on, too, he says, that if exposure to contagion is not the cause of plague in those who take it, so might it be said, that of those who are bitten by a rabid animal, many are not affected with hydrophobia, and therefore the bite of a rabid animal is not the cause of hydrophobia. But supposing it to be true, that instances of persons bitten by animals known to be rabid escaping the disorder are on record, still this mode of propagating hydrophobia, being of the nature of inoculation, the matter of infection, may, in such cases, have been exhausted, as it is admitted by the Reviewer sometimes to be, in cases of vaccination and inoculation for the small-pox. Again, in descanting upon the contagious nature of hydrophobia, he, notwithstanding his aversion to inferences, does, however, infer, that a terrific disorder to be always in existence, and the

The question of the plague, being communicable by inoculation, is very undecided. Desgrattes' experiment would appear to have been very fairly made, notwithstanding the insinuation that he secured himself from danger, by washing with soap and water before the experiment. That the inoculating matter altered his circulation, is apparent from the inflammation, which, for more than three weeks, continued around the punctures. Dr. Whyte's fatal experiment, on the other hand, was made under the most unfavourable circumstances, and with very pardonable temerity. To rub and inoculate himself with the pus of two diseased individuals, and to neglect to attend to any precaution, even after he had done so, was a most unfortunate mode of proceeding. Under any measures of precaution, however, the experiment can hardly be considered as conclusive, if made under such circumstances, surrounded, as they were, by the pestilence in all directions. (Quarterly Review, p. 242, last line) synonymous with contagion is here (Quarterly Review, p. 242, last line) synonymous with the disease. Oriental Herald, Vol. 15. 2 F

reason of its not spreading, to be the want of some diffused cause, 'a peculiar condition of the atmosphere,' or something else which either renders the (dominant) poison more active, or the bodies of animals more susceptible to it. Which, if any, of these is the real cause, he says it is unnecessary for his present purpose to inquire; but so far to the contrary, this was the only thing which it was necessary for him to do. He declines the trial however, and, in so doing, leaves the non-contagionists in quiet possession of the vantage ground of predisposition from atmospherical causes.

Now this is one of the chief points in the theory of the non-contagionist; and the Reviewer having here, and in the remarks immediately subjoined, not only refused to controvert it, but even incidentally given it his full support, we cannot see with what justice he can contest the truth of the propositions advanced by the 'Westminster Review,' and quoted by himself, p. 245. In his zeal, he appears to have proved too much, and is therefore obliged, in order to disprove the opinion, that 'those who came out of a healthy into an affected district, took the disease not from the sick, but from the air;' to call the doctrine of *fomes* to his assistance, and to state (p. 245.) that 'all modern observers have come to the conclusion, that absolute contact, either with infected persons or *infected clothes*, is necessary for the communication of the disease.* Here the supposed *fomes* is made to supply a link in the chain of evidence, the loss of which would be fatal to the whole argument. We shall see, therefore, that at p. 247 and 252, extraordinary pains are taken to disprove the assertion of the 'Westminster Review,' that 'the clothes of those deceased of the plague are worn in Turkey with impunity,' and to establish this important article in the faith of the contagionist on the strongest foundation. But, alas! for the infallibility of reviewers, the unhappy man is once more reluctantly compelled to venture into the region of inference. At first, however, he does so not in his own name, but in that of Mr. Howard; and that excellent man's authority is quoted for the fact of the infection having been conveyed from London to Derbyshire in a parcel of clothes.† Now,

* So in a Medical Review, which we shall again have occasion to refer to, a poor half-starved wretch, (vol. ii, p. 569,) who, on taking ill of the plague, is said to have caught the disease, by going into a church for some clothes which had belonged to infected priests. The church had been closed three months. See our previous remarks upon Aristotle, from whom this doctrine is supposed to take its rise.

† At page 252, the Reviewer says, 'a lancet dipped in vaccinal matter, kept for a few days in the pocket, and then used for vaccination, with all the advantage of intentional immersion in the contagious fluid, and careful insertion under the skin in the act of vaccination, is more likely to fail than to succeed in giving the disease;' and yet, in the face of his own statement, he tells us that the plague is constantly communicated by *infected clothes*, and clothes too which it is admitted that it is difficult to prove were worn during a fit of the plague, or during that stage of it which is infectious. What can we say to people who reason in this style?

in the language of the Reviewer, (p. 352.) we would inquire into the foundation of this fresh inference: 'How did he, or rather Dr. Macmichael, know? Did he inquire into the local position, climate, and predisposing causes of every kind to be detected in this remote village? Did these clothes belong to a dead or diseased man? And if so, were they worn during his illness, or during that stage of it when it became infectious? and to what extent had they been exposed to the air in the transit? Were they locked up in a trunk, or, as seems indicated in the passage referred to, tied up in a pocket-handkerchief or brown paper? And, if the latter, were any unhappy pigs in that neighbourhood (see Boccaccio and the 'Quarterly Review,' p. 254, 255,) seized with vertigo and death in consequence of any part of the package having been thrown away?'

The most respectable authority adduced in favour of propagation of the infection, &c., is that of Dr. P. Russell, whose book, for calmness of inquiry and perfect impartiality, is beyond all praise; but we must take leave to say, that whatever the texture of our minds may be thought to be in consequence, we do not observe in his voluminous record, one single instance that speaks conviction to us, whilst there are many in which the good Doctor has been particularly unsuccessful in establishing that point. We with confidence refer any man of the profession or otherwise to the numerous cases given at the end of his history, and we do this not only relatively to the point we are now speaking to, but to the detailed description of the general symptoms and treatment of the disorder, with a view of asking any medical man of ability whether he does not conscientiously believe, not only that, under a more decided mode of treatment, many of the cases adverted to would, in all probability here turn out favourably, but also, whether a great many of the unhappy sufferers did not, in effect, evidently sacrifice to the opinion of medical men, that because no communication with infected individuals could be traced, it was probable their disease was not the plague. If this opinion, which we confess is irresistibly forced upon us by a perusal of these and other documents, should be considered by 'competent authority' as founded in fact, the consequent deduction is of tremendous importance in settling the present controversy.

But it is time to close these observations. We had marked off a great many more passages of the 'Quarterly Review,' as meriting exposure, but we are persuaded our readers will no longer think this step necessary. There is, indeed, an artful subministration of prejudice throughout that paper which, when put in activity by feelings of rivalry and opposition, is calculated to throw every possible obstacle in the way of calm inquiry, but having already sufficiently excited attention to that circumstance, we shall now quit the subject.

We beg to be excused, however, for adding a word or two on the

cholera of Asia before we conclude. It is impossible to conjecture what effects may not be produced by local circumstances and by certain accidental conditions of the atmosphere, considered with a view either to its electrical, or more generally speaking, meteorological phenomena; nor can we duly appreciate the effect of terror acting upon the minds of men, when such predisposing causes may be inferred to be in existence from the fact of an extensive epidemic having made its appearance. Certain, however, it is, that the cholera resembled, in several features of its progress, the plague, as described in the paper now before the public. It was found to take the most capricious turns, both in the direction in which it passed over different districts and countries, and in the characteristic symptoms of its attack; it raged with violence in one line of villages, whilst another in the immediate vicinity, and in constant communication, was wholly free from it.* It attacked those residing in houses of one story infinitely more frequently than those who slept a certain number of feet from the level of the ground; and in houses of more than one story it occurred to those who slept on the ground floor, on so many occasions that medical men were urgent in recommending their friends to avoid such situations; and the medical staff of the army was understood to have impressed upon Government the necessity for raising the level of all barracks to be constructed in Bengal. By some, indeed, the disease was thought to be contagious; but others, who saw the nearest and dearest to them perish under its effects, and who remained in close attendance night and day upon the sick, from the instant of the first attack, can state, upon the most convincing of all human testimony, that it was not. The idea, too, was abandoned by the great majority of the medical men of India. Yet we know that the disorder broke out, and committed fearful ravages in several distant ports and islands, where it had, till then, been totally unknown; and that, immediately after the arrival of ships from Calcutta or Madras, in which the

* It is this remarkable fact in the history of epidemics that is adverted to, when the 'Westminster Review' says, that the visits of the sick to unaffected places were followed by no increase of the disease; the Reviewer might therefore have spared himself the trouble of pointing out a mistake (p. 247) which otherwise would have been too obvious for any writer to have fallen into. Another Reviewer, a medical one too, states that the plague, if treated as plague, and kept at the end of the bayonet, 'respects authority, and retreats to a distance;' but when at Marathia, it presumed to disregard such precautions, and overleap the boundary, he has no hesitation in saying that it was not plague, but only an aggravated epidemic!! In the same medical Review, too, we find that plague patients, when transported to a pure atmosphere, recovered; whereas, in the horrid affair of Casal Curmi, we know that, from the poor people not being allowed to leave the place, the disease was kept alive there long after it had ceased to rage in other districts, and the mortality was so frightful, that if the plague had affected the whole island, the positive loss would in all probability not have been greater.

complaint had occurred in a manner more or less transitory. From such facts, and we believe those we have now stated are unquestioned, what are we to conclude?

We repeat that we are inclined, from early prepossession, to side with the contagionists; but we must confess, that as a question to be decided by evidence in the papers before us, and others to which we have not had leisure to advert, have brought forward nothing that we can accept as conclusive. We are neither of the medical nor mercantile profession; we have no further interest in the question, than as it refers to human nature in general. We could say, each of us—

'Homo sum, humanum a me nec alienum puto.'

Our object is to excite discussion, for in that we conceive every thing that is good, as to the regulation of our conduct in this world, to depend. Discussion, in short, is the OPTIMUS MAXIMUS of our idolatry—and in that persuasion we now leave the question for the decision of the public.

G.

MOONLIGHT.

MOONLIGHT, pure and beautiful,
Beam to hear sweet music by
Night's soft breathing flowers to cull,
And embalm with gentlest sigh;
Lovely Moonlight! hail to thee!
Blessed is thine hour to me!

Beautiful on ocean's wave,
Beautiful on mountain-stream,
Beautiful on lonely grave,—
Yes, thy sweet and holy beam,
Beauteous makes the wild, the deep,
Where the lovely wake or sleep.

Beautiful on maiden's brow,
On her dark or auburn hair,
Chastening her cheek's warm glow
To a moulded statue's fair;
And to her fond lover's glance
Giving rapture's purest trance.

Sweetest light! by thee her flowers
Memory gathers for her shrine;
Growth of thy delightful hours,
Water'd by those dewy all thine,
Tears of recollected love,
When thy planet shone above.

Holiest light! by thee, by thee,
Contemplation loves to lean,
Silent o'er the heaving sea,
Tempest swept, or all serene;
Lifting oft the adoring eye
To the glittering depths on high.

S. E. H.

SIR EDWARD EAST'S SUGGESTED REFORMS IN INDIA.

A Sketch of the State and Condition of the British Population within the Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in Calcutta, with hints for ameliorating their Laws and Usages.

[Now first published from the Manuscripts of Sir Edward Hyde East, Bart., late Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court in Bengal.]

It is proper to remind Government, that notwithstanding the Act of the 13 Geo. III. c. 63., and the King's charter of 1774 granted under it, communicating all civil, criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction to the Supreme Court thereby constituted, and mutually essentially extending the common and statute law of England to the inhabitants of Calcutta, and to the British inhabitants of the whole Presidency; yet that these inhabitants have not the benefit of the statute law of England to a later period than the 13 Geo. I., unless expressly named. This has been the uniform construction of the Judges of the Supreme Court since its institution; and, whether right or wrong originally, the Judges of the present day cannot depart from it without authority of Parliament.

The period at which the general statute law stops in regard to this Presidency, is that of the constitution of the Mayor's Court in Calcutta, when those who established that construction said, upon the doctrine of Colvin's case, that the British law was then first given to this as to a British colony, and that as such it could not be included in any subsequent statute unless specially named.

Thus, by a mere technical rule of doubtful application and extent, with respect at least to the fluctuating body of British residents in this Presidency, not only they, but the whole Native population of Calcutta have been cut off from the common benefit of the British Legislature unless specially named, (which has not always been remembered,) without having any other effective local legislature substituted in the place of it. It is difficult to imagine that this could have been foreseen and intended.

Internal Legislation.

The only power of internal legislation given at that period as a corrective of local evils, was by the 36th clause of the statute 13 Geo. III. c. 63., which provides that it shall be lawful for the Governor-General and Council at Fort-William, from time to time, to make such *rules, ordinances, and regulations*, for the good order and civil government of the settlement and other places, &c. subordinate thereto, as shall be deemed just and reasonable (such rules, &c. not being repugnant to the laws of the realm); and set, impose, inflict, and levy reasonable *finer* and *forfeitures* for the breach or non-observance of such rules, &c. but that the same, or any of them,

shall not be valid, unless duly registered and published in the Supreme Court, with the consent and approbation of the said Court. And then it specifies the mode and time of registry; and gives an appeal to the King in Council, making, however, the law valid, in the mean time, after its registry.

By the statute 39 and 40 Geo. III., a further power was given to enforce such rules, &c. by corporeal punishment; that is, by public or private whipping, or otherwise; and the statute 53 Geo. III. c. 155 sec. 66, requires copies of those rules, &c. to be laid before Parliament.

But looking first to the terms '*rules, ordinances, and regulations*,' used in the granting part, which rather convey the notion of a power to carry into effect, by local and subordinate means and measures, the substance or spirit of laws already given, than to originate new laws; shackled also, as the power is, by the express prohibition that those local rules, &c. shall not be contrary to the laws of the realm, a restriction very difficult to adopt to local circumstances, and almost irreconcilable with any plain departure from the general spirit of those laws, however proper in different circumstances; and most of all, looking at the power given to sanction the observance of such local rules, &c., by *finer*, *forfeitures*, and *corporeal punishments*, the only construction which could safely be put upon this local legislating power was, that it was to be confined to mere *police regulations* for preserving the peace, preventing and punishing nuisances, and the like; and was not to be extended to a general power of making original laws affecting the liberty or title to property of the inhabitants of Calcutta, including all descriptions, or even the laws, usages, and customs, of the Native inhabitants, though a new law should be given by the local Government to affect the inhabitants of the provinces in the same respects, 237 Geo. III. c. 142, sec. 8.

Particular Statutes for India.

Another mode has been taken to supply this defect in the state and condition of the inhabitants of Calcutta,—namely, for Parliament to pass particular laws, from time to time, remedying specific defects and grievances, which could not any longer be delayed or palliated. These are to be found in the subsequent statutes, 21 Geo. III. c. 70., 26 Geo. III. c. 57., 33 Geo. III. c. 52., 37 Geo. III. c. 142., 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 79., 47 Geo. III. sec. 2. c. 68 and 53 Geo. III. c. 155.

General Laws passed since 13. Geo. III. not extending to India.

But since the 13. Geo. III., a variety of laws of general application, and some of great utility, have passed not only for improving and preserving the moral and legal state and condition of the people at home, and for the better protection of persons and property, but also for repealing obsolete, inconvenient, and oppressive laws, and substituting new laws better adopted to the growth of experience

and intelligence. The mass of these, however necessary, have never reached India; and the British subjects in India, as well as Native inhabitants of Calcutta, remain under the statute laws of England, (so far as they have been construed to apply them,) such as they were in the 13th year of George III.

With the addition of the few I have mentioned, though some of the provisions still enforced here have been modified or repealed as to England, and many new Laws of beneficial import have passed, which have not been extended to India.

Particular examples casually selected.

In order to shew the actual inconvenience of this state of things, it is sufficient, without the parade and tedium of turning over the prolific Indexes of the statute books, to mention several instances which have in fact occurred during the two years I have sat on this Bench, wherein the deficiency was felt to the disparagement of Justice.

Cheats by false pretences.

Cases within the 30 Geo. 2 c. 24, against obtaining money &c. by false pretences. The Cheats escaped unpunished. This is of constant occurrence.

Felon standing mute.

A Felon stood mute and it was very doubtful whether it was not obstinately. If so found, he must have been put to the barbarous torture of *pein forte et dure*, instead of having judgment against him by the Stat. 12 Geo. 3, c. 12.

Justices of the Peace.

Various necessary and convenient powers are given to Justices of the Peace by modern Statutes (12 Geo. 3, c. 30) none of which extended to us; though as far as it was competent, some of the powers have been supplied by local Bye Laws.

Marriage of Minors.

The marriage Act does not extend hither; the Act in *toto* would not entirely have suited our condition and circumstances: but thus much we want, that no marriage of a minor in the Company's service should be valid, in the absence from the Presidency under which he served, of both his parents, or legal Guardians without the consent in writing of the Governor General or other head of the Government, who may properly be considered in *loco parentis*. The Supreme Court performs the parental duty as well as it can at present, by acting upon the canons which prohibit the Clergy from marrying minors without the consent of their parents or guardians; and we have therefore lately resolved not to grant any marriage license, unless upon oath that the parties are of age, or, if minors, that they have the consent of their parents, or of those to the care of

whom their parents have confided them; and that they are not married to any other nor know of any lawful impediment by consanguinity, or otherwise. In the case of the Company's minor servants, we refuse our license, unless they have the consent of the Governor General or other temporary head of the Government, whom we consider, in the absence of their proper parents or guardians, to be in *loco parentum*.

But if the Clergyman choose to act without our licenses, and in the case of the Company's minor servants without the approbation of the head of the Government, though he may subject himself to ecclesiastical censures in the one case, or to the just displeasure of Government in the other, yet the marriage is good, and the individual evil is remediless. Within a month after our new regulation the affidavit required proved the means of preventing two incestuous marriages, and in another instance, within the same period, where the marriage ceremony had been incautiously celebrated without a license, it was afterwards discovered that one of the parties were already married at the time.

Remedy.

The Clergy here ought therefore to be prohibited from marrying without the license of the Supreme Court in its ecclesiastical capacity, which we only grant upon the proper affidavit, and for which a very moderate fee is taken by our Registrar, which Parliament may, if they please, regulate, and the Court itself should be prohibited from granting a marriage license to any minor in the Company's service, whose proper parents, or legal guardians, are not present and consenting, without the consent in writing of the Governor General or other head of the Government.

Lord Ellenborough's Act—Malicious Stabbing.

The Black Act, 9 Geo. I., c. 22, making it a capital felony, maliciously to shoot at another, extends hither; but Lord Ellenborough's Act, 43 Geo. III., c. 58, putting a malicious stabbing or cutting of another, with intent to murder, &c., upon the same footing does not extend hither; and is only a misdemeanour. I was under the necessity, in the same Sessions, of passing two incongruous sentences on different prisoners, for the several offences; and though the stabbing case was by far the most atrocious in moral guilt, the judgment was necessarily the most lenient. This was incomprehensible to the Native audience around the capital. Punishment was indeed afterwards commuted for transportation, but the worst offender could only be imprisoned here in the common gaol. There are other wholesome provisions in Lord Ellenborough's Act, which do not reach us.

Burning in the hand—Felon.
We are still obliged to give sentence of burning in the hand where we do not transport for grand larceny, because the statute 19 Geo.

III. c. 74, 5, 3, is of no avail to us, which enables other more appropriate punishments to be inflicted instead of it.

Embezzlement by Servants.

The statute 39, Geo. III., c. 85, against embezzlement by servants and clerks, (and see the corresponding statute of the 51 Geo. III., c. 38, passed for Ireland, which is more correctly worded in the description of the offence) does not extend to us, though no where are more fraudulent insolvencies.

Privily Stealing from the Person.

With us the privily stealing from the person is still a capital offence, unde. the statute, 8 Eliz. c. 4, though the statute 48 Geo. III., c. 129, substitutes imprisonment and hard labour, not exceeding three years.

Wilful destruction of Ships.

The statute 43, Geo. III., c. 113, makes new provisions against the wilful destroying of ships, &c.; an offence which, there is reason to fear, is not of unfrequent occurrence in these rivers and seas.

Witnesses not Answering.

The statute 46, Geo. III., c. 37, declaring the laws with respect to witnesses refusing to answer, may be supposed sufficient.

Post Office.

There are no laws for protecting our post office in Calcutta, which should seem expedient, though no case of that sort has actually been brought before us.

Growing Crops.

Should the jurisdiction of Calcutta be extended into the country, (and we are informed that a bill was lately introduced into Parliament for that purpose,) the Ryots would soon want the protection of the statute 42 Geo. III., c. 67, against the stealing of growing crops, which should be confided to the Justices of the Peace.

I could extend this list much further. The remedy for these and similar defects seem of two sorts :

Remedies Suggested.

1st. To pass a general law, extending all past statutes from the 13 Geo. III., inclusive, (in continuation of former provisions) and all future statutes of England, to this country ; leaving to the Supreme Court to exclude, by construction, such statutes, or parts of statutes, as may in their judgment appear to be of a character merely local for England, &c. and not applicable to the condition of India.

Though this would seem to be giving a great latitude of discretion to the Court, yet it is rather in sound than in sense; and is no more than was originally confided to it in respect of the statute law of

England down to the 13 Geo. 3, concerning which I have never heard any suggestion that the power had been abused, except in the application made in the capital offence of forgery, in a single instance, to the case of Nundocomar; and there the principal stress was laid on its application *ex post facto*. But it can rarely happen that any serious difficulty should occur in the exercise of such a discretion, confined to the negative power of rejection, which in common sense would be exercised whenever there was a serious doubt: and sure I am that with the ordinary habits of caution belonging to every British Judge, no serious mischief is to be apprehended, but rather a judicious selection is to be expected. At all events the power would be guarded by saving and excepting its application in every case against a positive statute made for the express purpose of binding India, which will secure all the particular provisions already given for our Government, and provide for every future enactment for our separate use.

It should however be specially provided that though the language of an act in respect to the means and instruments &c. of its execution may seem local; yet that if the substance of its provisions be general and useful to this country, and the same or other like means and instruments exist here for carrying it into execution, it may be extended hither *mutatis mutandis*.

2. The other remedy which would propose is rather for the benefit of the native inhabitants of Calcutta; which is to extend the power of the legislation at present conferred upon the Governor General in Council, with the consent of the Supreme Court, by enabling them to make general local laws (such as in fact the Governor General and Council alone have been accustomed to make in the Mofussil) not merely confined to purposes of police, but extending to general objects, which would include laws affecting the Native inhabitants in the points which in another paper I have suggested that they stand in need of, as well as in others which may occur.

The necessary exceptions to such an enlarged power would be that no laws should be made contrary to the duty of allegiance, nor contrary to any express law made or to be made by Parliament for the Government of British India, and that the laws should be equal in all matters of common concern between British and Native subjects for the common good, without favor or disparagement to either.

There may be this further check, that before any local law thus made should be put in force it should be published in the Government Gazette, once in the English and once in the Bengally language and should then be transmitted home (together with any appeal thereon) to be approved by the King in Council; and if approved, remitted to this Government for the purpose of being put in force, but in addition to the particular statutes incidentally mentioned in

illustration of the general deficiency, there are certain other particular provisions very expedient to be adopted by a new law.

New Legislative Provision for Punishment of Criminals.

1. To enable the court, in all cases of felony, where by law they may now send the convicts to the house of correction, to send them to the house of correction, as well as to the common gaol, for any time not exceeding two years, and to adjudge them to hard labour and whipping, or to either of those in the house of correction, or to hard labour alone in the common gaol; also to empower the government to employ those who have been adjudged to hard labour, in labouring upon any public works, in or out of doors, during the period for which they shall have been adjudged to have been confined in either place.

2. To enable the court to send persons convicted of perjury, forgery, conspiracy, or cheats, or of assault committed with infamy, or with atrocity and cruelty, either to the house of correction or to the common gaol; to be there punished in the manner above mentioned, for any period for which they may be now imprisoned in the common gaol, and subject to the like disposition of government as to labouring in or out of doors, providing that such offenders may be otherwise punished as before the passing of this law.

3. To give an option to the court in all cases of transportable offences, whether by original sentence, or commutation for capital punishment, to send the offender for the same, or any less period, to the common gaol, or house of correction, there to be dealt with as above-mentioned.

A provision somewhat analogous to this, in the case of transportable felonies and clergyable larcenies, is to be found in the stat. 51 Geo. III. c. 63. as to Ireland, and in the stat. 53 Geo. III. c. 162 as to England; but the provision thereby made is not sufficient for us.

Grounds of Recommendation.

The grounds on which I have been led to form such recommendations are these: By the Act of 53 Geo. III. c. 155, the court is restrained to transport Native convicts within lat. 30° north, and 25° south of the line; as, indeed, by the stat. 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 79 they could not have been transported to New South Wales. The usual places to which they have been sent have been the island of Penang, and Bencoolen on the coast of Sumatra. For some time we have been obliged to refrain from sending them to the former place; for so many of them had made money there by the high rate of labour, and bettered their condition, that, after their term was expired, they only came back for the purpose of carrying their families away to settle at Penang, and made such reports and display of the benefits of their transportation, and of their newly acquired

wealth, that some were induced, as it appeared at the police, to commit offences for the purpose of being transported to Penang. We have not yet found the same disposition for Bencoolen. But besides the expense of transportation, which is never for less time than seven years, it has appeared to the court that the sentencing of an offender to hard labour, or other corporeal punishment at home, for the same or less period, would, in many instances, answer better, as well for correction of the offender, as for example sake, than the transporting him; and particularly if the labour might be performed out of doors, (as it frequently is in the case of Mofussil convicts,) as well as within, under the direction of Government, which would not be only turning their labour to good public account in the forwarding of the public works: thereby enabling the convict to make some atonement to the state for his misconduct, but also in respect of the convict's own health, which in this climate makes long continued hard labour, within doors, very inconvenient, and sometimes oppressive.

But mere imprisonment, without any labour at all, is of very dubious effect, by way of correction or example, when applied to the lower orders, who have commonly much apathy and little inclination to any exertion, which want or force does not compel. Most of these are better lodged and fed in some of the gaols, than they would be at their own homes; and some have been known to petition to remain there, after the term of their imprisonment was expired. They acquire in gaol a habit of idleness, which is difficult afterwards to be relinquished, and leads to new offences. The objection which might be felt in England, from political considerations, to the view of convicts working openly in their shackles, does not apply to this country, particularly where the permission to work out of doors, is, in many parts, the reward of good conduct in the gaol.

With respect to fraudulent misdemeanour, by which great gains are sometimes acquired, mere imprisonment in the common gaol does not weigh a feather in the balance, against the success of the enterprise; and misdemeanours, committed with circumstances of infamy or of atrocity and cruelty, are often more deserving of corporeal punishments than mere simple larcenies, though our technical distinctions class the latter in the higher denomination of felony. Hard labour would, in most of these cases, be beneficially added to imprisonment.

Police Regulation and Extension of Powers.

Another subject which calls for the immediate attention of Government at home, arises as well from the recent reformation of the police, (a subject upon which I felt it my duty to address the Government soon after my arrival here, in consequence of numerous complaints laid before the other judges and myself, respecting the arbi-

trary mode of administering the police functions ;) as from the late act of the 53d of the King, appointing four sessions to be holden in the year, instead of two.

The police magistrates had fallen into the habit (*inter alia*) of punishing petty thefts and the like, by a summary process of their own, the illegality of which mode of trial, was the least objectionable part of the proceeding ; the trial itself having been frequently conducted in a very hasty and imperfect manner. This arose principally from the want of a sufficient number of magistrates to perform the laborious, but necessary duty, of inquiry amongst an immense population, addicted to theft and full of deceit. The evil was in part corrected, though not, I think, to the proper extent, for fear of trenching too much on public economy. The paper I gave in on that occasion is in the hands of this Government, and may be referred to, if necessary. A bye law was passed to correct, as far as possible, the evils complained of, but there was no power in the constituted authorities on the spot, to make bye laws *contrary to the laws of the realm*, and, consequently, there was no power to transfer the trial of felonies, from a jury in the Supreme Court to the police magistrates, however authorized to inquire of and punish, in the mode prescribed by some of the police acts in London, all offences to this tendency short of a plain felony. The magistrates, under the new commission, have acted ably and efficiently up to the extent of that authority, but stopping short with that, they have referred all cases of felony to the trial by jury before the Supreme Court, and this has necessarily swelled our calendars to a much greater degree, in each of the four sessions, (which come opportunely enough to meet the exigency) than had before occurred in the two annual sessions.

Complaints of Grand and Petty Juries.

This has thrown a great additional burthen upon the grand and petty juries, whose longer and more frequent absence from their private concerns is felt very inconveniently by most of them, particularly of the latter description, who can but ill dispense with a continued watchfulness over their Native servants.

Much discussion took place in the June session of 1815, among the grand jury upon this subject ; and they had drawn up some representations to Government which were seen, though no regular address was ever presented, upon an intimation that the subject was then under consideration and would be brought forward. Having to charge the grand jury in the October session following, I touched upon the subject to them, and they then represented to me their wishes that some mode of relief could be adopted, which I promised should be made known to Government at home, which was best able to judge of the propriety and extent of any alteration in the established course of law better accommodated to our local conveniences.

It is not easy to draw a precise line which will sustain a great national principle, and yet bend to local convenience. Those who are fit to serve on petty juries are not very numerous in this place ; and the turn comes round very frequently to the same person. This, with the climate and national habits, renders the duty more oppressive than it can be felt at home.

Suggestion of Remedy.

If any relaxation can be admitted, consistently with the higher interest of the state, I know not where the line can be better drawn than this ; (for it must in fairness and in policy, be the same for the Native as for the European British subject ;) to give to two magistrates the power of trying all simple larcenies under capital felonies, and not attended with any circumstances of aggravation ; directing them in cases of capital or aggravated larcenies, to commit to the sessions for trial, and limiting their power of punishment to six months imprisonment in the goal or house of correction, to be punished and employed there, in or out of doors, in the manner I have before suggested under the controul of the Government.

The like powers might be given to the police magistrates with respect to simple assaults.

In both cases an option might be given to the prosecutor to proceed by indictment before the Supreme Court, and to the prosecutor or defendant *before trial*, to remove the complaint by *certiorari*, from the jurisdiction of the magistrates to the same court, upon depositing thirty sicca rupees (which is the lowest expense of preferring a common indictment for larceny before the grand jury, not including the expense of witnesses) to be paid over to the prosecutor when the bill is preferred, and if it were thought necessary (of which I am not aware,) liberty of appeal might be given, even after trial, before the magistrates, to a judge in chambers, within three days, on payment of the expense of copying the charge, evidence, and judgment, from the notes of the magistrates, returned by them ; excluding all objections in point of form, and confining the objections to the intrinsic merit of the case, as it appeared on the evidence taken below, giving to the judge power to examine the proceedings so returned in a summary manner, and to approve, mitigate, or abrogate the sentence as to him shall appear to be just.

In the greater number of cases, the course of proceeding before the Magistrates would, perhaps, be better for the accused themselves, as it would save them much of the intermediate imprisonment in the intervals between session and session.

I had prepared some grounds to lay before your Lordships for extending the limits of jurisdiction given to the Supreme Court and Magistracy of Calcutta in certain cases : but it is now become unnecessary to detail them, as the Company's Government has, I find, anticipated the necessity of the measure, and has procured an act for that purpose.

The object in view, at present, by this Government is properly of a limited kind: but the future extension into the provinces, of the British System of Law, as it is administered by the Supreme Court, incorporated with the Hindoo and Mohammedan civil codes, in all their local peculiarities, as they respect themselves, in matters of real title, inheritance, succession, form of contract, marriage, adoption, and incidentally of caste, will, no doubt, be the greatest blessing that the British Government can confer upon India. As to the properest times and modes of doing this, the Local Government must necessarily have the best means of informing themselves and judging. They will, no doubt, take care, under the new bill, not to oppress the Supreme Court by over-loading it with too much, particularly of criminal business, constituted as it is at present; though I will not deny that more use may be made of it, provided it may be relieved from the trial of petty offences in the manner before suggested. And if it should be thought expedient hereafter to extend the experiment of this jurisdiction to any distant limit from Calcutta, it may be done gradually, so as to enable the judges, as we humbly hope, to make such observations to this Government as their experience may suggest to them. I have no hesitation in recommending the experiment, if it be done gradually, and accompanied, beyond a reasonable extent, with provisions for a more convenient division of labour in the judicial field, and for an addition of labourers when the burthen of the day shall be found too great for those already employed.

Foreign Settlements.

There is another subject, which, though of a political nature, is closely connected with the judicial state of the British inhabitants of India, and of the general population of Calcutta; I mean those foreign colonies of the Dutch, Danes, and French, which are established upon the Hooghly branch of the Ganges, within short distances from Calcutta. These are aptly situated to become receptacles of felony and fraud from the neighbouring capital and territories; and in proportion as the British capital in India has been extending in population, commerce, and wealth, and those foreign establishments have decreased in opulence and in consequence to the several parent countries, the nuisance has been gradually increasing. The parent states do not think it worth their cost to maintain independent and respectable judicial establishments in their deteriorated settlements, and therefore a principal source of emolument looked to by those who bear rule in them is rather, it should seem, to connive at the protection purchased by persons who, having committed offences, or withdrawing from the reach of their creditors in Calcutta, take refuge in these places, than to afford the facilities of justice to those who have been wronged. The judges have frequent petitioners before them at chambers, upon the subject, to whom they can of course give no redress. I have been even informed lately of

threats held out by a debtor that he would take refuge in one of those settlements if further advances were not made to him; and this, I am told, is not unfrequent.

During the late war, and while the Government has had the military possession of those foreign colonies, the evil has been lessened, in respect to criminals, by this Government charging itself with the criminal administration of justice within their limits; but the civil courts were, and still are, left in the independent operation of their several national laws, though under the direction (merely nominal) of a British subject, and when the factories are restored even this faint check will be removed. The cession by the Dutch of Binnagore removes the evil from that spot, but leaves it in full force in the other places. What would become of judicial process in London, if France, Denmark, and Holland, held Hounslow, Brentford, and Barnet, in sovereignty, though Highgate was given up to the Crown of England?

I know not by what title the several parent countries of these foreign factories can affect to hold them in sovereignty. I should rather apprehend that the sovereignty was vested in the British Government, which, by conquest and by treaties, has succeeded to the former Mussulman dominion. But if they still affect an exclusive possession, which the British Government may not think it worth while to contest, they would, probably, have no difficulty in making arrangements with it for the mutual surrender of their criminals: but what redress can be obtained against fraudulent debtors escaping from one jurisdiction into another, unless there are independent courts in each, well appointed and provided for, and filled by persons who have no interest in screening those defaulters from their injured creditors? These factories are, in truth, no longer of any real use to France, Denmark, or Holland. There is no one subject of theirs, having common honesty and discernment, who would not prefer carrying on his trade in Calcutta (as many of them do) under the protection of the British Government: nothing political remains of any of these settlements but the nuisance of them, if considered as independent jurisdictions, to the inhabitants of the British territories. They arrest the course of justice, and afford a shelter to knavery.

If the several foreign powers do not agree to maintain an efficient and well-appointed judicial establishment, each in its own settlement, it should be proposed to them to withdraw their judicial establishments altogether, and recognize the British courts, stipulating, if they please, that those courts should, in matters between their own European subjects only, judge according to their own laws; or, unless the contrary should be stipulated for between the parties in writing, should judge according to the law of the defendant's country, of which evidence may be given as in other similar cases.

TO POESY.

'The harp, whose angel tones beguiled
My soul to transport when a child !
The harp that, with unfailing truth,
Has been the solace of my youth !
And lent its seraph voice to bless
Those days of dream, of loneliness,
When, in the silence of the wood,
When 'neath the mountain's hermit tree,
Or the cragg'd heath's wide solitude,
That harp was all the world to me !—*Howitt.*

Spirit of elder time ! immortal song !
The high and the inspired have told thy worth ;
Thou shedd'st around us, like the night's bright throng
A ray of softness, gracefulness, and mirth :
Thou art, and hast been from thine earliest birth,
A charm with man's affections intertwined,—
A beauty and a glory upon earth,—
A power and a creation of the mind,
Which is itself divine, mysterious, undefined !

With the young minstrel, in his vision'd moods,
Thou art a 'visible presence ;' thy decree
Throngs with majestic forms his solitudes ;
His feelings, thoughts, receive their life from thee.
Spirit of Song ! the melancholy sea
Gives up its ancient secrets to thy hand ;
Thou speak'st the language of eternity ;
Histories of long-lost years at thy command
Sound on the thousand tongues and echoes of the land.

Thou sing'st the sweetness of the morn's first hour,
When to the founts her loveliest tints are given ;
Thou sing'st of love—in court, in hall, or bower ;
Of those who with hard fate have nobly striven ;
Thou sing'st of war—of helms and corslets riven—
Of the dread grandeur of the battle-field,
Where flees the foe, by horse and horseman driven—
Flash the sharp brands the victors madly wield,
Red in the blood of all that strive or basely yield.

Spirit of Verse ! in deepest reverence
I bow before thine ever-glorious shrine !
Thee I have loved with passion most intense ;
And though I feel thy meeds can ne'er be mine,
Yet may I pour one low and gentle line—
A breath of song :—I know it to be vain,
This cherished wish, a living wreath to twine ;

'T is not for me such honour to attain :—
Some few may list, perhaps, and not condemn my strain,

SWAIN

CLASSICAL EXCURSION FROM ROME TO ARPINO, THE BIRTH-
PLACE OF CICERO.

No. III.

'THE banditti in the fastnesses above Sora, deterred us from visiting this interesting sheet of water, now called il lago di Celano. We felt no small regret at this disappointment ; for Alba, which retains its ancient name, and where Domitian instituted literary combats, presents considerable remains of its polygonal Cyclopian walls ; besides ruins of a theatre, amphitheatre, and temple, now converted into a church. Alba, too, is of note, as having been the fortress where the Roman senate confined their illustrious prisoners ; among others, Syphax, Perseus king of Macedon, and his son, Alexander. A ruined Doric temple is also seen on the site of Angitia.*

But the Fibrenus rolling its crystal flood in the vale below, presently banished all thoughts on the Fucine lake, and the extravagant projects of Claudius. Many streams celebrated in story and song disappoint the traveller :

'Dumb are their fountains, and their channels dry ;'

but in the course of long travels, I never met with so abundant and lucid a current as the Fibrenus, the length of the stream considered, which does not exceed four miles and a half. It flows with great rapidity, and about thirty or thirty-five feet in width near the Ciceronian isles ; is generally fifteen, and even twenty in depth. 'Largus et exundans,' like the genius of him who had so often trodden its banks.

'Equidem qui nunc primùm huc venerim, satiari non queo ; magnificasque villas, et pavimenta marmorea, et laqueata tecta contemno. Ductus vero aquarum quos isti Nilos et Euripos vocant, inquis non, cum hæc videat, irriserit ?† The water, even in the intensest heats, retains an icy coldness, which it communicates to the Garigliano ; a property noticed by Quintus, in the dialogue 'De Legibus. Lirim multo gelidiorem facit ; nec enim ullum hoc frigidius flumen attigi, cum ad multa accesserim, ut vix pede tentare id possim.' Though the thermometer was above 80° in the shade, the hand plunged for more than a few seconds into the Fibrenus, caused a complete numbness ; and the breeze, wafted by its rapid current, inhaled with force, occasioned that sensation which we call in England setting the teeth on edge. This classic stream, the noise of whose waters is heard in the senates and tribunals of the

* Tacit. Ann. xii. Sueton. in Claud. Sanseverino Not. ad Tacit. and Liv. xxx. 12. xlv. 36.

† De Legg. ii. sub init.

[A.W.]

civilized world, now goes by the name of *il fiume della Posta*. It forms two islands, which will presently be noticed more circumstantially. On the *Isola di Carnella*, or upper islet, there is a picturesque overshot mill belonging to the king, and close by is a very ancient tower, nearly overgrown with ivy, and known in the country by the name of *la Torre di Cicerone*. It stands insulated, neither could I discover traces of any contiguous building. Continuing our walk by the margin of the *Fibrenus*, among vines and pollard poplars, for about another mile, we arrived at the abandoned convent of *San Domenico*, built on the site, and with the fragments, of the Arpine villa of Cicero. It occupies three sides of a square, one of which is the church, which has also a large subterranean chapel, supported by shafts of one stone. Indicia of the corrupt Roman style, called in England Saxon, are observable throughout the building, which was erected A. D. 1030. Fragments of marble pavements, and opus reticulatum, columns, bases, capitals, friezes, detruncated consular statues, and busts, lie scattered in the courtyard, or are immured in the walls of the monastery. The most interesting I found in the wall of the chapel facing the court; and they shew that the Doric order chiefly prevailed in the Arpine villa. Two of the fragments are probably of a composite frieze; and one seems to picture the Marian eagle. Nothing but the memory of Tullius could have made me stand more than an hour to sketch these fragments in a scorching sun reverberated from the gleaming walls; and I hailed the moment of entering the *Amalthea*, and exclaiming, with the brother of the orator, 'Sed in insulam ventum est;' I can truly add, 'Hæc vero nihil amœnius!' And here we felt the force of what Tullius says, speaking of the relief afforded by the recollection of past pleasures to actual pain: 'Ut si quis æstuans, cum vim caloris non facile patiat, recordari velit, se aliquando in Arpinati nostro, gelidis fluminibus circumfusus fuisse.*' With us it was the reverse, the present pleasure banishing the past and painful effects of the solar heat.

There appears, however, to be some doubt which of the two islands formed by the *Fibrenus* is the real *Amalthea*; for it is certain that there is an ambiguity in the words of Quintus Cicero, in the above-mentioned dialogue, who says: 'Ut enim hoc quasi rostro finditur *Fibrenus*, et divisus aequaliter in duas partes latera hæc alluit, rapideque dilapsus, citò in unum confluit, et tantum complectitur quod satis sit modicæ palestræ, loci; quo effecto, tanquam id habuerit operis, ac muneris, ut hanc nobis efficeret sedem ad disputandum, statim præcipitat in *Lirim*, et quasi in familiam patriciam venerit, amittit nomen obscurius.' The words 'citò in unum confluit,' certainly appear, at first sight, more applicable to the *Isola di Carnella*, or upper isle. On the other hand,

* Tusc. Quæst. v. 26.

'statim præcipitat in *Lirim*' is better understood in reference to the lower island, describing exactly the two beautiful cataracts discharged by either branch of the *Fibrenus* at their junction with the *Liris*.* It appears to me that Cicero would not have used the word 'statim,' had he alluded to the *Isola di Carnella*. We surely can refer the words 'in unum confluit' to the *Liris*, without offering a violent strain to the sense. The lower isle will then be rather the *Amalthea* of Cicero, which is not above fifty yards from the Dominican convent. It was so called from a villa which Atticus possessed in *Epirus*. 'Velim ad me scribas,' says the orator to his invaluable friend, 'cujusmodi sit *Ἀμαλθεῖον* tuum, quo ornatu, quâ τοποθεσίᾳ et quæ poemata, quasque historias de *Ἀμαλθείᾳ* habes, ad me mittas. Lubet mihi facere in Arpinati *Amalthea* mea te expectat, et indiget tui De *Amalthea*, quod admones, faciam.†' The Arpine villa was repaired and embellished by the orator's father, as we are informed in the 'De Legibus; subsequently it fell into the hands of *Silius Italicus*, as we may collect from an epigram of Martial:

'*Silius hæc magni celebrat monumenta Maronis,
Jugera facundi qui Ciceronis habet.
Hæredem, dominumque sui tumulique, larisque,
Non alium mallet nec Maro nec Cicero.
Jam prope desertos cineres, et sancta Maronis
Nomina qui coleret, pauper et muus erat.
Silius Arpino tandem succurrit agello;
Silius et vatem, non minor ipse, colit.'*

We can trace nothing further respecting it till the tenth century, when it became the property of the Counts of Sora, one of whom, animated with a religious zeal, made it over to Saint Dominic, who with his followers there paved an easier high road to virtue than its former occupant, and who

'To be sure of Paradise,
Dying put on the weeds of Dominic,
Or in Franciscan, thought to pass disguised.'

Not but that many of them were far nearer the goal than that multitude of mean spirits who too often infest the European courts, and who, without any merit of their own, prohibit all access to the temple, except to such as may obtain their special license to enter.

The Arpine retreat is frequently mentioned in the great orator's correspondence, with Atticus especially. He styles it his inheritance, and the abode of his ancestors: 'Meus paternus, avitusque

* Wotton, in his classical landscape of 'Cicero at his villa,' has not ill-represented one of the cataracts of the *Fibrenus*. Whether he was ever at Arpino I know not.

† Ad Att. i. ep. 6. ii. epp. 1. 7. There would not have been room for the improvements here alluded to in the upper isle.

fundus Arpinas.' Here he retired, during the summer heats, to enjoy the cool air wafted by the Fibrenus. 'Ego ex caloribus, (non enim meminimus majores), in Arpinate, summa cum amoenitate fluminis me refeci.* Here, too, he betook himself, to avoid the intrusion of irksome and petulant visitors, or, as we should say in homely dialect, bores and dandies: 'Quò me vertam? statim meherculè Arpinum irem Quòs ego homines effugi, cum in hos incidi! Ego verò

* In montes patrios, et in incunabula nostra Pergam —

'Denique si solus, non potuero cum rusticis potiùs, quàm cum his perurbanis?' About to join Pompeius in Greece, it was to Arpinum that he advised his wife Terentia to retire, if she should find living too expensive at Rome: 'fiendo Arpinati benè poteris uti, si annonæ carior fuerit.† Here he found a secure retreat, when it would have been fatal to him, perhaps, to have remained in the capital: 'Romamne venio, an hîc maneo, an Arpinum, ασφαλειαν habet hic locus, fugio?' Here, too, during a continuance of violent rains, frequent in the Apennines, he composed his philosophical treatise, dedicated to Varro: 'Nos cum flumina, et solitudines sequeremur, quò faciliùs sustentare nos possemus, pedem è villâ adhuc egressi non sumus; ita magnos et assiduos imbres habebamus.‡ Illam Academicam συνταξιν totam Varroni traduximus.† His activity at the bar and in the senate, did not hinder him from superintending his farms, and settling his rents at Arpinum: 'Mihi Arpinum eundum est; nam opus est constitui à nobis illa prædiola, et constituere mercedulas prædiorum.' Here, too, he loved to regale Atticus with plain country fare: 'Te in Arpinati videbimus, et hospitio agresti accipiemus.' In the heat of the contest between Cæsar and Pompeius, when property, and even existence, were at stake, the favourite Arpine retreat was often uppermost in his thoughts: 'Ego Arpini esse volo pridie Kal, deinde circum villulas nostras errare, quas visurum me postea desperavi si Cæsar Appiâ veniret, ego Arpinum cogitabam nos autem in Formiano morabamur, quò citiùs audiremus; deinde Arpinum volebamus Arpinumne mihi eundum sit, an quo alio?' §

Notwithstanding his attachment to the beauty and retirement of the spot, he was not sorry, occasionally, to exchange it for Tusculanum: Narro tibi hæc loca venusta sunt, abdita certe, et si quid scribere velis, ab arbitris libera. Sed nescio quomodo οικος φίλος. Itaque me referunt pedes in Tusculanum. Et tamen hæc βρωσιγ-ραφία ripulæ videtur habitura celerem satietatem. Equidem etiam

* Orat. Agrar. ii. 7. Ad Quint. Frat. iii. ep. 1.

† Ad Att. ii. ep. 14, 15. Famil. xiv. ep. 7.

‡ Ad Att. xvi. ep. 8. Ibid. xiii. ep. 16, 20.

§ Ad Att. xiii. ep. 9. ii. ep. 16. viii. ep. 9, 16. ix. ep. 1, 17.

pluviæ metuo. Ranae enim πληροσύνουσιν*. When Antonius was spreading terror and desolation throughout the republic, his friend Atticus thought that he could be no where safer than at Arpinum; couching his advice to retire thither in enigmatical language, borrowed from Homer: 'Cùm venissem diluculò ad pontem Tirenium, quì est Minturnis, in quo flexus est ad iter Arpinas, obviam mihi fit tabellarius, qui me offendit δολύχον πλοον ὀρμαινοντα. Ego inquam, cedo, si quid ad Attico ecce tibi altera, quâ hortaris παρ' ἐμοῦ.† In fine, he was so attached to the Arpine villa, that he styled the Amalthea, and the upper island, the Blessed Isles: 'Ne vivam, mi Attice, si mihi non modò Tusculanum, ubi ceteroqui sum libenter, sed ΜΑΚΑΡΩΝΗΣΟΙ tanti sunt, ut sine te sim totos dies!' §

And no wonder, for nothing can be imagined finer than the surrounding landscape. The deep azure of the sky, unvaried by a single cloud; Sora on a rock, at the foot of the precipitous Apennines; both banks of the Garigliano covered with vineyards; the 'fragor aquarum,' alluded to by Atticus in the 'De Legibus'; the coolness, rapidity, and ultramarine hue of the Fibrenus; the noise of its two cataracts; the rich turquoise colour of the Liris; the minor Apennines round Arpino, crowned with umbrageous oaks to their very summits, presented scenery hardly elsewhere to be equalled, certainly not to be surpassed, even in Italy.

I was engaged with the 'De Legibus;' (quid enim egi potiùs, aut in quò meliùs hunc consumpsi diem?) The scene of it, as every classical Tyro knows, is laid in the Amalthea. It is a dialogue, which can only be considered a magnificent sketch. Often was it abandoned for the consideration of the many interesting occurrences of which the Amalthea must have been the scene. Sometimes I pictured the great orator at the head of the island,

* Ad Att. xv. ep. 16.

† Ad Att. xvi. ep. 13.

‡ Ad Att. xiii. ep. 12, 18, 36.

§ Ad Att. xii. ep. 3.

writing to his brother in Britain: 'O jucundas mihi tuas, de Britannia, literas! Te verò εὐχόμενν scribendi egregiam habere video. Quos tu situs, quas naturas rerum et locorum, quos mores, quæ gentes, quas pugnas, quem vero ipsum imperatorem habes?' Now sketching the outlines of the 'Pro Scauro,' and 'Pro Plancio';† and now turning to Brutus, with that majesty of expression which sat so naturally on himself, but which would be ridiculous in others, 'Mi-Brute, quid ocellos Italiae villulas mœna dixerim?' One while returning from Rome, accompanied, perhaps, by Hortensius, whom a few hours before he had struck dumb with his 'Actio prima in Verrem.' Terentia, the amiable Tullia, with little Pilia and Attica, hastening from the Amalthea to greet his arrival; and now soothing the anxieties of his Atticus with—

'O Tite, si quid ego adjuro, curamve levasso,
Quæ nunc te coquit, et versat sub pectore fixa,
Ecquid erit pretii?

Tiro, or Laurea Tullius, introducing 'tabellarii' from the tribunals, among them one from Catullus, presenting—

'Disertissime Romuli nepotum,
Quot sunt, quòtque fuere, Marce Tulli,
Et quot post aliis erunt in annis;
Gratias tibi maximas Catullus
Agit, pessimus omnium poeta,
Tantò pessimus omnium poeta,
Quantò tu optimus omnium patronus.'

And here as I sat me under the poplars which shade the Fibrenus, on the very spot where Tullius had often meditated his sublimest harangues,‡ I could not help drawing conclusions in favour of exalted eloquence above every other effort of the human mind. The philosopher, indeed, may attain immortality by ruminating in his closet; the poet, by consulting at leisure his force, and by taking advantage of happy moments, may surprise us by extraordinary flights of imagination, and his insight into the human heart; so, in an inferior degree, may the painter and sculptor, with the additional merit of mechanical dexterity. But the great orator, like Tullius, must not only be endued with a deep knowledge of human nature, and the secret springs of the heart, but unite all those fine and strong feelings on which the 'afflatus poeticus' depends, to the valour of the warrior. And we need only refer to the annals of nations, to see how very few have been able to com-

* Ad Quint. Frat. ii. ep. 15.

† These orations were composed at Arpinum, as we find from a letter ad Quint. Frat. iii. ep. 1. Fragments of the 'Pro Scauro' have been lately discovered by A. Maio, at Milan.

‡ In insula quæ in Fibreno sermone demus operam sedentes; nam eo loco libentissime soleo uti, sive quid mecum ipse cogito, sive aut scribo, aut lego.—De Legg. ii. 2.

bine these qualifications. It is incontestable that many individuals in modern times have taken incredible pains with their minds; but we search in vain, in the productions of those reputed the most successful, the supported argumentative powers of Demosthenes, or the grandeur, variety, and rotundity of the Ciceronian periods. To what are we to attribute the failure? To our love of dainties food, and more luxurious habits, than the great men of antiquity? To our physical and mental inferiority? Or to the crippling that the mind suffers, from its more multiplied ramifications? It is not easy to determine. I ended the above reflections with the conviction, that a great and honest lawyer is of inestimable value, and forms the brightest ornament of every civilized state.

Leaving the Amalthea, so pregnant with interesting recollections, we crossed the ferry of the Garigliano, opposite the Dominican convent, and after passing through vines ripening fast, and bending with purple clusters, presently reached the ruins of a bridge, called in the country, time immemorial, il ponte di Cicerone. The people believe that it was built by the orator, I suspect rather by his father; for we read in the second book, 'De Legibus,' 'Vides villam latius ædificatam patris nostri studio, qui cum esset infirmus valetudine, hic ferè ætatem egit in litteris; sed hoc ipso in loco cum avus viveret, et antiquo more parva esset villa, ut illa Curiana in Sabinis, me scito esse natum.' The bridge is evidently a Roman work, almost concealed by brambles and aquatic herbs, and of remote antiquity; it is peculiar in being thrown obliquely over the river, forming on either bank a very acute and obtuse angle. It consisted of three arches, one of which alone remains.

The fourth, fifth, and sixth books 'De Legibus,' are wanting; but Macrobius has preserved a fragment of the fifth, which introduces Atticus thus speaking: 'Visne, quoniam sol paullum à meridie jam deflexus videtur, neque nondum satis ab his arboribus opacatur, descendamus ad Lirim, eaque quæ restant, in illis aliorum umbraculis prosequamur?'

The Liris, shaded still by poplars, and wide spreading oaks, is now called Il Garigliano; it rises near the Fucine lake, from a mountain called the rock of Cappadocia. Passing by Sora, it receives the Fibrenus; lower down, the Taleno; and near the ancient Pregella, the Melpes. Pursuing its course through a well cultivated country, it waters the territory of Sessa, (Sesia, renowned for its grape), washes the ruins of Minturnæ, celebrated for the catastrophe of Marius, and of which a considerable aqueduct still crosses the road that leads from Gaëta to Capua. After desolating the neighbouring country with marsh miasma during the autumnal heats, it disembogues in silence into the Tyrrhenæ sea. According to Strabo, it was more anciently called Clanis. The water is of a

bright turquoise colour, owing to its sulphureous quality, alluded to by Plinius, and Silius Italicus. The epithet 'taciturnus,' applied to this stream by Horace,* can only be understood of the latter part of its course. No rivers in Italy are so noisy as the Liris about Arpino. For the space of a mile and a half, after receiving the Fibrenus, it forms no less than six pleasing falls, which vary in height from about three to twenty feet. Close to the village of Isola, the stream divides; to the left, it forms a perpendicular fall of eighty feet; while, to the right, the main body of the river is precipitated down a very broken inclined plane, of no less than five hundred feet; presenting a magnificent union of cataract and cascade, in my opinion more striking than the Rheinfall at Schaffhausen. The fall of the Velino, at Terni, can alone be compared with it; and no doubt it would be as often visited, were it not in the heart of the Appennines.

Following the course of Atticus, by the poplars which shade the Garigliano, we took the lesser falls in succession, one of which glides without foam, in the manner that Ruysdael paints his cascades; a second forms a complete horse-shoe fall; and another shoots, in a very oblique direction, across the river. We reached the verge of the great cataract: 'Ces eaux qui tombent, se relèvent, jaillissent, se détournent, s'amoncellent, s'échappent, se précipitent, s'abiment,' as some French traveller happily portrays a cataract. No fall in Switzerland, or Italy, is so easily approachable as this; and nothing hinders you from commanding it in its whole extent. We saw it by the full blaze of the mid-day sun; and the splendour of the foam affected our eyes with sensible pain. The depth of the Liris above the falls, varies from about twenty to twenty-five feet. The sky had been hitherto serene, and the sun very powerful; but some light clouds hovering above Sora discharged, about noon, a few heat-drops, while thunder muttered from the Appennines:

'Partibus intonuit cœli pater ipse sinistris,
Cæsaris et clarum firmavit Jupiter omen;†

or to speak in plain prose, the thunder rather reminded us of Dicesaris and his banditti, than the evils of wet clothes; and after visiting a second time the great falls of the Liris, we bade a final farewell to the Amalthea, and 'conspiciæ felicitatis Arpinum;' not without being convinced, that very few things in Italy can impress the traveller with such pleasing recollections as the remembrance of Tullius at the place of his birth.

About a mile from the Arpine villa there is a paper manufactory,

* '——— Rura quæ Liris quieta
Mordet aqua taciturnus amnis.'

In describing the country about Cicero's villa, we should read:

'——— Rura quæ Liris sonora
Mordet aqua violentus amnis.'

† Cicero. Fragment. Marii.

where we found, to our surprise, a native of Berkshire, who acted as the superintendent. He presented us with a roll of his 'Arpinæ chartæ,' not inscribed, indeed, with the 'Pro Archiâ,' or the 'Pro Regibus Alexandrino, et Deiotaro,' but blank as Arpino itself would prove, without the remembrance of its genius. The picture that he gave of the state of the country was deplorable; for scarcely a day had elapsed, the preceding year, without a robbery, which was generally accompanied by assassination. The attacks were most frequent between Isola and Sora. This is explained by considering the situation of Arpino and its environs, which, being on the confines of the two states, makes its neighbourhood a convenient asylum for ruffians, who, as they may be pursued in one or other territory, abscond in the skirts of either.

These circumstances suggested a 'Divinatio' on the most advisable way of returning to Rome, and escaping the tusk of that Verres of the Appennines, Dicesaris. Sometimes we thought of passing by the Reatine Temple.* Further delay was dangerous; and it was high time to withdraw, 'De Finibus Arpinatium;' the 'Topica' of which were so doubtful and unclear; for since Dicesaris, like his great prototype, sat the 'De Legibus' at defiance, and consequently the 'De Officiis,' an attack in the woods was by no means a 'Paradoxon.' The fatigue and heat, too, made it necessary to take measures 'De ægritudine leniendâ;' which, if postponed, might have terminated in the 'De morte contemnendâ.'

The sum total of these considerations accelerated our departure; and we resolved on striking across the country by a by-road through the woods to Frusinone, a town distant from Arpino about twenty miles.

This, also, is a most ancient city of the Volsci, 'Ferocior ad rebellandum quàm ad bellandum gens,' as they are described by Livius. The obstinacy with which they resisted Rome, and their activity in fomenting the revolt of the Hernici, cost them dear, as we learn from the same author: 'Frusinates tertiâ parte agri damnati, quod Hernicos ab iis sollicitatos compertum; capitaque conjunctionis virgis cæsi, securi percussi.' It was long before they obtained the good will of the capital; for they first submitted to a præfecture, while the more favoured cities enjoyed the privileges of a municipium. We passed two or three monumental crosses, where travellers had forfeited their lives to banditti; and we saw to the left, on a lofty steep, Bauco, supposed to be on the site of the Boyllan or Litterian villa of Quintus Cicero.* 'Saranno ammaz-

* 'Reatini me ad sua Tempe invitarunt,' says the orator, invited by the inhabitants to plead their cause against the 'Interamnates.'

* His brother tells us, that some of his improvements in the Lâterian villa offended the Arpinates: 'Arpinatium incredibilis est fremitus de Laterio.' Ad Att. iv. ep. 7.

zati' were the words with which some passengers greeted us, as we mounted the hill on which Frusinone stands :

— Duris quæ rupibus hæret
Bellator Frusino.*

SIL. ITAL.

The town commands an extensive plain, surrounded on all sides by bold promontories of Appennines.

The same listlessness, the same filth, the same indifference in realising the few joys that life affords, is as conspicuous at Frusinone, as at Veroli and Alatri. South of the town there is a terrace laid out in walks, and adorned with a few ancient statues, of indifferent workmanship. There are also inscriptions, commemorating the votive offerings of some legionary officers. None are worth recording. But in a private house the following, containing poetry not destitute of pathos, may deserve attention :

D. M. S.

N. CLODIO. N. F. AN. SABINIANO.
FIGIO. PISSIMO. N. CLODIUS. SABINUS.
ET. FLAVIA. HESPERIS. PARENTES.

Omine susceptus primo, votisque parentum,
Cum jam his senos explesset floridas annos,
Quinque etiam menses, numero superante dierum,
Viveret innocuus, blandâ pietate colendus,
Occidit—heu nimium celeres in funere Parcae
Vitali trepidos nato privare parentes
Audetis, incestosque gravi circumdare luctu!

The landscape which this terrace commands is equal, perhaps, to that in the environs of Arpino. No wonder that the great satirist, when he exhorts his countrymen to quit the stench and corruption of the Suburra, exclaims :

Si potes avelli Circensibus, optima Soræ,
Aut Fabrateriæ domus, aut Frusinone paratur,
Quanti nunc tenebras unum conducis in annum.

Cicero had a farm in the environs, as we discover from two passages in the 'Letters to Atticus': 'Accepi ab Isidoro literas, et postea datas binas; ex proximis cognovi prædia non venisse; videbis igitur ut sustentetur partim de Frusinati . . . De fundo Frusinati redimendo jam pridem intellexisti voluntatem meam.' We may conclude that the ancient city was populous; for an old chronicle, which records the donation of lands to the monastery of Casamari, describes them as being 'penes amphitheatrum Frusinonis.' † Frusinone has given two pontiffs to the chair of St. Peter; it is also the birth-place of my friend Ludovico Angeloni, whose 'Life of Guido d'Arezzo,' the inventor of musical notes, declares him an accomplished scholar, his 'Ragionamenti d'Italia' a patriot, luminous, and firm.

* Ad Att. xi. ep. 4. 13.

† De Matteis Storia di Frusinone.

The dark scowls of several individuals, wrapped in their brown capotes, who had the appearance of being scouts in the service of Dicesaris, made us prefer the pestilential Circus and Suburra, even the 'Cloaca maxima' itself, to the purer air of Frusinone, in spite of Juvénal; and taking advantage of a fine moonlight, we followed the course of Hannibal, in a coach and four, to the capital, distant fifty-six miles. Titus Livius tells us that the Carthaginian general treated this tract of country with severity, because the inhabitants had cut away the bridges: 'Hannibal infestis perpopulato agro prægellino, propter incisos pontes, per Frusinatem, Ferentinatem, et Anagninum agrum, in Labicanum venit.* At break of day we were under Anagni, the ancient Anagnia, built on an eminence. Here there are some remains of a theatre. The inhabitants of this town came down from their steepes to salute Marcus Antonius, as we learn from the second 'Philippic,' and were severely handled, in consequence, by the orator: 'Stulte Aquinates; sed tamen in viâ habitabant. Quid Anagnini? qui cum essent devii, descenderant; ut istum, tanquam si esset consul, salutarent. Incredibile dictu; tamen inter omnes constabat neminem esse resalutatum; præsertim cum duos Anagninos haberet secum, Mustelam et Laconem, quorum alter gladiatorum est princeps, alter poculorum.' Anagni was also the scene of a singular occurrence in the middle ages. A. D. 1297. Boniface VIII., being at war with the Colonnas, excommunicated that family, together with Philip-le-bel, their ally, who convoked a council at Paris, at which one Noguairet proposed to seize the person of the pontiff. He was charged with the execution of the project, and soon appeared under the walls of Anagni with an armed force. Noguairet, aided by the Colonnas, surprised the town; and Sciarra Colonna, having taken the Pope prisoner, gave him a slap on the face, which so affected the pontiff, that he died a prey to irritation and vexation.

We had also Segni, the ancient Segnia, on an eminence to the left. It is mentioned in the Captives of Plautus. Here Tarquinius Superbus erected a fortress to keep the Volscians in check; here, too, according to Sickler, are the remains of an ancient temple dedicated to Jupiter Asturius, and some of those gigantic walls, called by some, Pelasgic, by others Cyclopien, but probably raised by the Italian Aborigenes.

The cold of the autumnal nights in the defiles of the Appennines contrasted with the heat of the day, is very trying to travellers, but scarcely had the sun risen an hour, than we regretted the past freshness of the night, and on reaching Valmontone to breakfast, the air was filled with a stifling buzz of the insect tribe, put in motion by the increasing heat; the varieties were numerous and brilliant. The coffee-house in the Piazza, filthier than many out-houses in England for lumber or poultry, furnished us with a beys-

* Liv. xxvi. c. 6.

rage like the scourings of the coffee-pot in France, which was tempered only by rancid goat's milk; the people being so stupid and idle, as not to take advantage of their cows feeding on as fragrant pasture as any in the world among the vallies of the Appennines.

Three miles further we reached Lugnano, the ancient Longianum, and the scene of a sanguinary battle won by the Consul Lucretius over the united forces of the Æqui and Volsci, in which, according to Livius, upwards of thirteen thousand of the latter were cut to pieces.

We had now cleared the defiles of the Appennines, and, as we flattered ourselves, the clutches of Dicesaris; and consequently enjoyed with fuller hearts the breezes which fanned Præneste on our right,

‘Quodeunque et gelido prominet Algidus,’

on our left. The woods which surround the temple of the Algidensian Diana, the substructions of which are still visible, are much infested with banditti. The lines of Statius, then, are not inapplicable to these marauders:

‘Hos Præneste sacrum, nemus hos glaciale Dianæ,
Algidus aut horrens, aut Tuscula protegit umbra.’

As we stopped to bait the horses under Algidum, I could not help contrasting the actual appearance of the village, with what it must have exhibited formerly. The priestesses and virgins moving in procession to venerate that modification of power developed by the Deity in the woods and mountains, to which were added the beautiful attributes of chastity, and all the paraphernalia of the chase, one of the healthiest and most pleasing recreations of man; the gates of the temple of the Algidensian goddess flung open, and displaying a Grecian statue, not to be adored itself, as some canting and self-interested hypocrites would induce us to believe, but merely exposed as a visible type of the above attributes; which, by a greater extension, were afterwards identified with the silver orb of night, not to be contemplated without inspiring ideas of purity; and thus gradually lost in the unknown First Cause. The chorusses of healthy and white-clad virgins making the woods resound with the hymn,

‘Dianam teneræ dicite virgines,’

Or

‘Montium custos, nemorumque virgo,
Quæ laborantes utero puellas
Ter vocata audis, adimisque leto,
Diva triformis!’

The actual appearance of the village consisted in three or four priests yelling, rather than chaunting, service, before a Madonna crowned with a bit of tin, and attired as if by the vulgarest ‘lavadaja’ of Trastevere; some ten or dozen paupers lousing themselves on the steps of a plastered church, a happy production of one of the Borrominis of the country, and exhaling an odour compounded of

putrefaction of carcasses, and adulterated frankincense; the building itself dedicated to some ‘Vaticani montis imago;’ or, to speak synonymously, some saint, whose hooded effigy, or ‘os sacrum,’ it was meritorious to kiss. I considered, and compared.

Nothing was wanting to complete the picture, but a Calvinistic missionary, or sour Presbyterian, to menace the whole village with eternal tortures.

‘Ahi serva Italia, di dolore ostello,
Nave senza nocchiero in tempesta,
Non donna di provincie, ma bordello!’ *

Palestrina, situated, like Tivoli, on a declivity, occupies the site of the ancient temple of Fortune at Præneste. It was more magnificent than all the other fanes dedicated to that goddess, not excepting the celebrated one at Antium. Prusias, king of Bithynia, came there to sacrifice in person; and the philosopher Carneades, on his return from Rome to Greece, observed that he never witnessed a Fortune more fortunate than the Prænestine. Numerous authors speak of the ‘sortes Prænestinae,’ as much consulted by the Lesbiæ and Lydiæ of Rome, as the Gretna Green blacksmith by those of England. Pyrrhus pitched his camp under the walls, and Hannibal reconnoitred Rome from the heights. Like Tibur, it was much frequented by the opulent Romans during the summer heats; and we did not forget, that Horace read over his Homer at Præneste,† Antium, Ostia, and Præneste, offer the richest mines of sculpture to antiquaries out of the capital.

But the environs of Palestrina are memorable, as having been the scene of that desperate battle between Sylla and the younger Marius, consul; of which so interesting an account has been transmitted to us by Appian. Political disturbances in modern times, however dreadful, cannot be put in competition with the horrors of ‘Syllana illa tempora,’ as Cicero emphatically styles them. One of the most striking incidents in the history of the latter period of the republic, is the message which Sylla sent to the senate, complaining of the ill treatment which he had experienced from the government, when all Rome turned pale at the perusal. They recollected that it was written by the man who lined the road from Terracina to Capua with gibbets. We cannot contemplate Sylla with the least satisfaction; for he was unrelenting at a period when he might have pardoned his enemies without much personal hazard. He had none of the civil grandeur of Julius and Augustus to compensate for his military ferocity. If, after having laid the corrupt republic at his feet, he had shewn clemency, corrected existing abuses, diminished the military power, then retired, as he did, to private life, he would have left one of the most brilliant and singular names recorded in all history.

* Dante.
† ‘Trojani belli scriptorem, maxime Lolli,
Dum tu declamas Romæ, Præneste relegi.
Ep. ad Lollium.’

After all, we are apt to admire these same Romans too much. Their influence on the destinies of nations, and on their literature, is, and always will be very considerable; but in our estimation of several of their conspicuous characters, we do not take sufficient care to discriminate and sift their principle of action, which will generally be found to be flagrantly unjust. Any fifty years of the Venetian history are worth all the Roman annals in interest; for the mind soon becomes surfeited with the acts of a nation that adopted nothing but military aggression for its principle of action. It may be questioned whether Rome produced such interesting heroes as the Venetian Admiral Carlo Zeno; Francesco Sforza, Duke of Milan; Louis IX. and Henry IV. of France; Alfonso the Great, and Gonsalvo of Spain; or the Black Prince of England.

We presently had the village of Colonna, on an eminence, to our left, the ancient Labicum. It was famous for its grapes, which Capitolinus tells us Caracalla turned to good account: 'Centum Persica campana, et melones Ostienses decem, et uvam Labicanam pondo viginti,' did the self-denying emperor devour at one breakfast. Here Julius Cæsar had a villa, where, about half a year before his death, he made his will, as we learn from Suetonius: 'Postulante ergo L. Pisone, testamentum ejus aperitur, recitaturque in Antonii domo, quod Id. Septembribus proximis, in Labiennio suo facerat.' Two miles or a little more beyond, we passed the site of the villa of M. Porcius Cato; and the superincumbent hill retains the name of Monte Porzio. There are also the Prati Porzii. The fine lines of Lucan, in which he is described as letting his hair grow at the breaking out of the civil war, shot across my mind:

'Ille nec horrificam sancto dimovit ab ore
Cæsariem, duroque admisit gaudia vultu,
Ut primum tolli feralia viderat arma,
Intonsos rigidam in frontem descendere canos
Passus erat, moestanque genis increscere barbam.'

To our right was the extinct volcano, now a lake three miles in circuit, near which stood the ancient Gabii, the discovery of which is due to Gavin Hamilton; and the remains of a temple of Juno, a theatre, and forum, together with numerous fragments which enrich the Borghese cabinet, have been the fruit of his researches.

The Campagna was now fully developed to our view; and three successive ranges of aqueducts which transported the Felice, Alexandrine, and Virginal waters to the capital, stretched their dark arcades in broken lines along the landscape, which harmonized with the fallen grandeur of the Niobe of nations. The walls of the city, in which it is easy to observe at least three distinct dates, presented upon their venerable curtains; and after passing the church, wherein the ashes of Helena, the mother of Constantine repose, we reached the bridge of the Vatican, where an interesting but perilous circuit of one hundred and eighty miles.

POLITICAL CLAIMS OF INDO-BRITONS.

[Communicated by an Indian Correspondent for the 'Oriental Herald']

THE impulses, principles, and feelings of men are so entirely regulated by their education and subsequent habits of life, that dissensions on the characters of particular individuals, or distinct portions of the Community, may be almost hazarded from a consideration merely of the moral causes on which have depended the effects we wish to delineate.

For instance, if injudicious flattery be lavished on a child, and if in his infancy he be made to look down upon his equals with contempt and scorn, pride will inevitably be the ruling passion of his after years; if, on the contrary, the rod of tyranny break his infant spirits, he will for ever be incapable of great exertion; humility and obedience will be his characteristic features, and he will bless the hand that permits him the enjoyment even of a comparative degree of liberty. The character of a nation, or an isolated portion of it, acquires a certain bias on the same principle as well as that of the individual. Thus, we see the free-born Englishman jealous of the slightest encroachment on the liberty of his person—thus it is we behold the Turk reconciled to tyranny, not from the circumstance of any natural mental imbecility, but solely because he has suffered himself to be too long made the sport of tyrants and the willing victim of oppression. Indeed the fact is indisputable, that when the influence of despotism extends over a whole nation, it reduces it, in the political scale and retards its progress towards civilization and improvement; further, when its operation is most severely felt by a particular class of the community (a conquered race for instance) the contemplation of their comparative degradation to others around them has such an effect on the feelings of the majority of this class, as makes them entertain a contemptible opinion of themselves. These are results that cannot in the very nature of things be effectually prevented; patriotism may exert her utmost energies—the vigour and independence of a few may furnish noble examples of devotion to the common cause—the high-minded may even stem the current of oppression, and sink for want of common sympathy, but so long as the majority of these unhappy victims of weak and odious tyranny contentedly suffer themselves to be debased from the natural rights of man—the exertions of justice and philanthropy in their behalf will be powerless and ineffectual. It is consolatory to add, however, that the light of knowledge invariably overcomes these obstacles, and paves the way to the attainment of that general disposition for political advancement which is the sure forerunner of it.

We have been led into this train of reflections from a column of the press, which contains a notice of the Indo-Britons, a body of men who have been lately established in India, and who are still labouring under a marked degradation.

Oriental Herald, Vol. 15.

from the privileges enjoyed by British-born subjects resident in this country.* Bred in the religion of their fathers, educated under their direction, speaking the English language, apparelled in English dress, and living on terms of familiar intercourse with Englishmen,—this class has nevertheless been looked upon by the ruling powers as aboriginal natives of the country! Its members are not consequently held amenable to the impartiality of British justice—they are scrupulously shut out of all places of trust, emolument, and influence under the state—they are scoffed at as a race undeserving of public confidence—and their feelings are daily lacerated by unequivocal demonstrations on the part of the local Government, of its resolution to continue them in the degraded position which they have hitherto occupied in Society.

It may be wondered at, that these powerful inducements to degeneracy have not reduced the Indo-Britons to the level of the natives. It is a fact, however, that although an enlightened Government has doomed them to be subject to Hindoo and Mohammedan laws, and thus afforded them indirect encouragement to the legal commission of acts that to their feelings as Christians cannot but be highly revolting and derogatory—although the same fountain of all local dignity and honor has, by its example, infected society with an undeserved prejudice against this body of the community,—its members have still unanimously spurned at the facilities and encouragements to retrogression in the political scale which have been held out to them; and although convinced of the insurmountable nature of the obstacles which have prevented their rising higher, still kept in view the injustice of their exclusion from all political importance, and depending on their own resources, persevered in the occupation of that middle station in society, *above* which the strong arm of power has not permitted them to soar—*below* which, their feelings alone, as Christians and as men, have not permitted them to sink.

It would argue but little knowledge of human nature were we to suppose, that the accumulated load of legal and political disabilities, under which they have so long groaned, has not had some effect in reconciling the members of this class to the temporary endurance of their grievances. A large portion of them indeed, satisfied with their lot, are undesirous of, or indifferent to, political elevation; but there are, at the same time, others who keenly feel the degradation there are, at the same time, others who gladly hail any patriotic effort to of their countrymen, and would gladly hail any patriotic effort to of their countrymen, and would gladly hail any patriotic effort to bring about a better state of things. The voice of remonstrance raised by them has hitherto been of no avail—the legislature of England, slumbering at its post, has disregarded the justice of their appeals; but the bad success of their praiseworthy efforts has not humbled the vigour of their minds; it has on the contrary acquired new elasticity from heartless opposition, and the general diffusion of the light of knowledge is now resorted to by them as the only

remedy for a system of unjustifiable exclusion from the reasonable rights of Christians—a system that has been planned by tyranny and prejudice on the one part, and suffered to operate by ignorance on the other.

* The beneficial effects that cannot but result from the spread of knowledge, may perhaps at no very distant period develop themselves in British India. The spirit of the age has recognised the principle that 'knowledge is power,' and the hard-earned experience of centuries has shewn, that to the prevalence of ignorance and not to any inherent infirmity in the nature of Man, is to be ascribed the monopoly of power and influence, with all the concomitant evils which have hitherto disturbed the harmony of Society. This is a truth that requires no elucidation from our humble pen; it has been canvassed by the greatest men of the age and established on the concurrent testimony of reason and philosophy. Its tacit acknowledgment, therefore, by the Indo-Britons, may be looked upon as a sure presage of that improvement in their character and political condition, which is so essentially necessary in order to advance not only *their own* welfare, but the welfare of their native land.

We have already said that the Indo-Britons have hitherto occupied a middle station in society, and that they have been strictly excluded from the possession of all power and influence in India;—we shall now examine the expediency, or otherwise, of continuing the maintenance of the same policy.

In respect to the enjoyment of all political rank, emolument, and power in India by British-born subjects only, it may be urged by the advocates of *things as they are*—that as the giver is always at perfect liberty to dispose of places under him according as he thinks proper, and as the East India Company are alone responsible for the due and proper management of affairs in the East, they cannot be blamed for the mere exercise of their rightful prerogative in confiding their concerns into the hands of such as, in their opinion, are best calculated to do justice to the interests of their employers. All this is very plausible, and we are not disposed to quarrel with those who conscientiously entertain such sentiments; nay, we recognise the principle as far as it maintains the propriety of leaving it optional with masters to employ their own servants; but viewing its operation in the wide latitude embraced by the present question, we cannot but qualify our acquiescence by the consideration, that the exercise of this right be attended with no positive injury to the community at large, or to any certain portion of it in particular. In England, the exclusion of any body of men from Government employ, or from those higher offices in the State to which ambition or talent may aspire with pride, is not felt as an evil of sufficient magnitude to prejudice society against them; and they do not, in consequence, experience any obstacles to their turning their attention to other lucrative and honorable sources of employment;—in fact,

as tradesmen they have a prospect of earning a respectable and honest livelihood—as men of worth and education they occupy their proper station in society, and run no risk of encountering at every turn the taunts and sarcasms of those, who, without any merit of their own, happen to form one of the aristocracy of the land. But in India, the inhabitants of which are almost to a man dependant in some measure on the Government, the base is far otherwise. Here 'the Service' alone is the badge of gentility, and those out of its pale are considered as occupying an inferior station in society—the members of 'the Service' alone can hope to arrive at any political distinction, and they consequently engross *all the respect of the Natives*. The public sense of any class of people being deemed by the supreme authorities ineligible to situations of emolument and trust, has, therefore, an immediate tendency to create a prejudice against its members, the sensible influence of which paralyses their exertions to command respectability in any department of life, and throws them on the utmost stretch of their resources for the provision of common sustenance. The fact has been clearly exemplified in the case of Indo-Britons, who, laboring under the simple disqualification of being born and bred in the country, are considered, on that account, unworthy to assist in the slightest measure in the Government of it. It would be idle here to maintain, that if the means of promoting the well-being of the greatest portion of its subjects, be the peculiar object of the Indian Government, none can be found better calculated as instruments for this purpose, than those who have been cradled on the spot—it would be worse than useless, we contend, to attempt to prove, that if philanthropy sway the measures of our rulers, none can be found more willing and *interested* to assist them in advancing the welfare of India than those who have been suckled at her breast—arguments like these are uncongenial to the atmosphere of Oriental despotism, and we shall not indulge in them; expediency is the order of the day, and we shall bring our reasoning, such as it is, to bear upon this point alone.

It has been urged by the advocates of monopoly, that Indo-Britons are generally unfit, on the score of mental incapacity, to be trusted with the exclusive management of an important public office—that it would, in short, be impolitic to arm them with power, considering their maternal stock,—and that instead of repining at their exclusion from offices of respectability under Government, and seeking employment within the precincts of Calcutta only, they should turn their attention to the extensive trade and agriculture of the country.

The objection on the score of mental incapacity will be rightly understood by our readers; when we call their attention to the fact of nearly all the official business of the state being actually transacted at the present day, by this despised race; the merit of their services being placed of course to the account of those who are paid

like princes for the trouble of affixing their signatures in authentication of the same! But admitting, even for the sake of argument, that Indo-Britons are wanting in the qualifications necessary to fit them for covenanted servants of the Honorable East India Company, can the fact of their general deficiency in knowledge be imputed to them as a fault, when it is considered that they have not been permitted the *smallest inducement* to stimulate and encourage them to that degree of mental improvement, which the *better prospects* of Englishmen enable them to pursue and eventually arrive at? Can the Indo-British parent be blamed for restraining the expansion of his son's intellect when he reflects on his own poverty—the claims of a numerous and perhaps increasing family—the little likelihood of a liberal education serving his children in the day of need, or enabling them to occupy that respectable station in Society to which it *should* entitle them? Surely not—necessity compels his refusal of this inestimable gift to them—and if blame is to attach anywhere, it can alone fix in the quarter which has *created* the necessity and upholds it with bigotted care and vigilance. The objection, then, on the ground of mental incapacity, is extremely futile—it is built on a mistaken assumption of the *cause* for the effect, the *effect* for the *cause*—and it is an argument that, on the very face of it, involves only the disgrace of those who are so imprudent as to indulge Britons in it the oftenest.

We shall now consider the alleged impolicy of entrusting Indo-Britons with extensive power and influence.

It is true that this class, partaking in some measure of Asiatic parentage, and being mostly born and bred in the Country, must in consequence feel more interested in its welfare than those who are temporary sojourners on its soil, and have their attention constantly directed to the speediest means of revisiting their native land in wealth and affluence; but this consideration pleads nothing in justification of their exclusion from offices of emolument and trust under the State, as they have no community of feeling with the natives, and could not, therefore, feel interested in making common cause with them in any political convulsion that might agitate the peace and tranquility of India. This point has been a *stunning* block to all those who have expressed themselves against the policy of conceding the rights and privileges of British-born subjects to the Indo-Britons, without that acquaintance with the constitution of Indian society which can alone render such opinions valuable. These writers, confining themselves to vague generalities, have contended—that as illegitimate children are the property of the mother, and reared by her *in consequence*, their minds must be stored with such early notions as she may choose to instil into them; and this argument has been made to serve against the Indo-Britons, by the gratuitously inferred impolicy of entrusting them with power, implied in (as they are falsely represented to be) with Asiatic notions, Asiatic

principles, and Asiatic enmity to British sovereignty in the East. Such is the gross fallacy and misrepresentation to which the dearest interests of the Indo-Britons have been sacrificed. That the illegitimate children of European fathers and native mothers are made *by law* the property of the latter, no one will venture to dispute; but we fearlessly appeal to the experience of all India, and challenge the denial of our assertion when we say, that such offsprings have always *in point of fact* been the actual property of the former. Those so circumstanced may in the helpless state of infancy have been tended by the watchful eye of maternal care, but their maintenance and education have devolved upon their fathers, and the trust has been executed by the latter with such fidelity and honorable devotion to the interests of their own native country, that the feelings, and principles of their progeny have been *entirely English*, at least without the slightest political bias in favor of those who are inimical to British sway in India.

We have here spoken in allusion to the illegitimate children of European and Asiatic parentage, who sprung into existence (as might have been anticipated) in consequence of the paucity of European females in India, when the British authority was yet in its incipient state; but as the cause which produced this body of men has gradually waned away, their numbers have been at a stand, and the class itself will very probably be extinct in a very short time. It is, however, for the numerous and increasing race of *Christians* which these have generated by means of inter-marriages among themselves and with European foreigners and Britons, that we advocate the rights of freemen—it is for these, their children, and their children's children, that we require the removal of those impolitic and odious disabilities which degrade them in the land of their birth, and which are calculated to make them *in time* dangerously disaffected towards those who have it *now* in their power to bind them for ever to the interests of Britain. And yet the exclusion of this intelligent and increasing body of the community is supported on the ground of their 'attachment to the natives'—'disaffection to the British'—'relative situation to both' and the consequent impolicy of arming them with power that may be exerted in behalf of their friends and to the disadvantage of their enemies! The besotted advocates of monopoly and despotism here labor under a complete delusion. If the direct progeny of European fathers and Native mothers have followed in the footsteps of the former, and betrayed no unreasonable predilection for their maternal relatives and friends—it is ridiculous and *unnatural* to suppose that their progeny (who have no more communication with the Natives than British-born subjects themselves) can possibly entertain any such predilection. So much, then, for the flimsy texture of that argument, which, bolstered up on the assumption of a plausible falsehood, would advocate the continued subjection of *Christians* to Heathen and Mohammedan laws—so much for the charitable consistency of those

who profess to be swayed by the benign influence of Christianity, but would at the same time doom its votaries to worship at the feet of Baal!

If *expediency* is to be the touchstone of this and every other public question—if it is to be the watchword of those who guard 'the brightest gem in the crown of England'—be it so—but let the conservators of British interests in India be at least *consistent* in their conduct and their notions; and let them not blindly *create* the very evil they would wish to avoid. They complain that Indo-Britons are discontented with the conquerors of Hindoostan—if so, let them not be insensibly prejudiced against the truth, that, without originating in any attachment to the natives, the just discontentment of this class has arisen from the operation of the very system that has been adopted with the delusive view of *preventing* discontentment; and keeping dangerous disaffection under. *Expediency*, then, far from requiring the maintenance of the same policy that has been all along observed towards the Indo-Britons, denounces it as dangerous to the British interests, and suggests an immediate resort to conciliatory measures, as being best calculated to awaken feelings of gratitude, affection and friendship in their breasts.

We shall now briefly express ourselves touching the clamour continually raised against the Indo-Britons for seeking employment solely in the Government Offices and commercial establishments in Calcutta, instead of dispersing themselves throughout the country, and turning their attention to trade and agriculture.

We by no means approve of this crowding, as it were, into a small focus for subsistence; but we are prepared to shew that considering their slender means and political disabilities, necessity and self-interest have in a great measure operated in deterring Indo-Britons from seeking their livelihood by *other* means.

In the first place it will be readily admitted by all, that trading speculations to be successful in this country, should be *above* the competition of the Natives; as the retail profit which satisfies them is scarcely adequate to the maintenance of Europeans in general, be their ideas of comfort ever so limited and humble. The adventurer should, in the second place, command a capital of his own; or the want of an established character to support him, and the accumulating load of debt which form a necessary preliminary in such matters, will entail his certain ruin, ere he can bring himself to notice, and secure a portion of the public patronage. Their general inability to command these resources, added to the discouraging prospect of proceeding on a borrowed capital appear to us to be the reasons which have induced Indo-Britons to prefer a small but *sure* income, to the precarious means by which a fortune may be acquired or *personal liberty* lost for ever! Besides, the flattering prospect open to tradesmen in England do not, in this country, encourage the sacrifice; on the contrary, the tradesman here is not only ineligible

to any political distinction but absolutely beneath the dignity of every mushroom member of 'the service!' It cannot, therefore, be expected, that a body of men possessed of such slender means as the Indo-Britons, will ever be seized by the *mania* of following an occupation that is attended with every risk, without any encouragement to balance its obvious disadvantages.

In respect to *agriculture*, the same difficulties present themselves; in fact *greater*, as the natives, who have now all the harvest to themselves, would not only be the active competitors, but the secret enemies of those who would undertake to dispossess them (as they would perhaps imagine) of a portion of the monopoly they have so long enjoyed. This consideration, sufficiently strong in itself, is abetted by the unconquerable disinclination of Indo-Britons to reside in the interior, as they thereby render themselves liable to the jurisdiction of the Mofussil courts of law—a liability, that on their betaking themselves to *agriculture*, would be quickly proved something more than *merely nominal*, considering the obnoxious relation which they would then bear to the jealous and overwhelming mass of their native rivals. These appear to us the chief reasons of that apparent apathy to the laborious and enterprising pursuits of *trade* and *agriculture*, which is considered by some as the prominent characteristic of the Indo-Britons. We much lament the existence of this general feeling ourselves—but we lament still more, the existence of those *causes* of which it is merely the *effect*.

Excluded from all offices of respectability under the State—without the rights and privileges of Britons in the Mofussil—without the means necessary to insure the *chance* of success in trade—it is not to be wondered at, therefore, that Indo-Britons are almost necessitated to rest all their hopes of livelihood upon such situations in *Calcutta*, as their education and abilities may enable them to undertake. Hitherto, nearly the whole of them have succeeded in finding employment within this contracted sphere; but as their numbers are increasing, they dare scarcely calculate on similar provision for their children. The present is but the gloomy *présage* of the future. What measures they may yet have recourse to, for the purpose of securing themselves and their posterity against the dreadful consequences which must result from the continued influx of monopolizing strangers—what may be the longer duration of their grievances—is buried in the womb of darkness, and defies the humble power of human prophecy!

If restrictions are to be maintained—if this ill-starred race is doomed to be subject to political disabilities so long as the British flag waves in proud triumph on the plains and battlements of Hindoostan, if they must labor under a false and unreasonable suspicion of 'attachment to the natives'—let the legislature at least *enlarge* their sphere of action, ere the measure be rendered unavoidable by the plaintive and heart-rending cries of despair and grief—or the

more formidable language of *confidence* and *power*! We have already said that the voice of remonstrance raised by them has hitherto been of no avail; but silence under the mortification of disappointment cannot be *perpetual*—the justice of their complaints *may* inspire common sympathy in the breast of their countrymen, *unanimity* may follow—and who that can look into futurity with a calm and unprejudiced eye, but must pause ere he decide on the possibility or otherwise of their working out for themselves that extrication from the thralldom of unmerited disabilities, which in their present weak and infant state, they would gratefully accept as a *boon* at the hands of the British government.—The notion is not altogether so chimerical as some may be disposed to imagine. The tender sapling may be enclosed within a narrow compass—its budding shoots may be directed into any channel,—but as it acquires a firm foundation, and advancing to maturity, spreads out its lusty and luxuriant arms—it breaks through the weak inclosure that would cramp its growth, and revels in the wide expanse of Heaven! *May not the simile be emblematical of the rising body of Indo-Britons!*

We cannot dismiss the subject of the present article, without advertg to the recent voluntary recognition, by the British Parliament, of the right of Indo-Britons to be impaneled as jurors of the Supreme Courts of Judicature at the Indian presidencies. This is but one of the many proofs we have lately had of the liberal spirit and enlightened policy which actuates the measures of the present Administration; and we hope—sincerely hope—that its wholesome vigilance will be still farther exercised over the system of monopoly and coercive silence which broods over the fairest portion of the East. The philanthropic eye of the British Ministry cannot be directed to a higher calling, than that of attending to the wants of millions, and discouraging the baneful influence of tyranny and prejudice. May it, therefore, not be wanting in a *duty* that is enjoined by the laws of God and man, and the neglect of which is the wilful sacrifice of justice and humanity.

THE LION HUNT.

Mount! mount for the hunting with musket and spear;
Call our friends to the field, for the Lion is near:
Call Arends and Ekhard and Groepe * to the spoor;†
Call Prinsloe and Coetzer and Lucas Van Vuur;‡
Ride up Skirly-cleugh, and blow loudly the bugle;
Call Slinger and Allic and Dikkop and Dugal;§
* Names of Mulattoes, tenants on the lands of the Scottish settlers at Bavian's River, South Africa.
† Spoor, the track of an animal.
‡ Names of Dutch-African Boors in the vicinity of the Scottish settlement.
§ Names of Hottentot herdsmen.

And Gert, with the elephant-gun on his shoulder—
In a perilous pinch none is better or bolder.

In the gorge of the glen lie the bones of my steed,
And the hoofs of a heifer of Fatherland's breed :
But mount, my brave friends, if our rifles prove true,
We'll soon make the spoiler his ravages rue.

Ho!—the Hottentot boys have discover'd his track :
To his den in the desert we'll follow him back ;
But tighten your girths, and look well to your flints,
For heavy and fresh are the villain's foot-prints.

Through the rough rocky kloof, through the grey shaggy glen,
By the wild-olive brake where the wolf has his den,
By mountain and forest, by fountain and vlei, *
We have track'd him at length to the coverts of Kei. †

Mark that black bushy mound where the blood-hounds are howling ;
Hark ! that hoarse sullen sound, like the deep thunder growling—
'Tis his lair—'tis his voice !—from your saddles alight,
For the bold schelm-beast is preparing for fight. ‡

Leave the horses behind—and be still every man ;
Let the Mullers and Rennie advance in the van ;
Keep fast in a clump ;—by the yell of yon hound,
The savage, I guess, will be out with a bound.

He comes ! the tall jungle before him loud crashing,
His mane bristled fiercely, his fiery eyes flashing ;
With a roar of disdain, he leaps forth in his wrath,
To challenge the foe that dare league his path.

He couches—aye ! now we'll have mischief, I dread ;
Quick—level your rifles, and aim at his head :
Thrust forward the spears, and unsheath every knife—§
St. George ! he's upon us !—Now fire, lads, for life !

He's wounded ! but yet he'll draw blood ere he falls ;
Ha ! under his paw see Bezuidenhout sprawls—
Now, Diederik ! Christian ! right in the brain
Plant each man his bullet :—Hurra ! he is slain !

Bezuidenhout—up, man ! 'tis only a scratch—
(You were always a scamp, and have met with your match—)
What a glorious lion !—what sinews—what claws !
And seven feet ten from the tail to the jaws.

Come, off with his hide. Why his head's like a bull's ;
(To the wise folks we'll send it who lecture on skulls !)
He has shown a good pluck, too—and after we dine,
We'll drink to his dirge, boys, a flask of good wine.

T. PRINGLE.

* *Vlei*, or *Valei*, a marsh or small lake.

† The Kei is a considerable river on the frontier of Cafferland.

‡ *Schelm*, rascal, villain.

§ The African boors all wear a short stout knife, sheathed on their right loin, which is used for cutting up the game they shoot, and other ordinary purposes ; and also for self-defence on any dangerous emergency.

SKETCH OF THE HISTORY AND CHARACTER OF THE JANIZARIES OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

At the moment when the eyes of all Europe are turned towards the revolution which is in progress at Constantinople, those who have observed, on the spot, the customs and institutions of the Ottomans, are struck by the erroneous notions which prevail in the western parts of Europe, and of which they meet with daily proofs in the journals and other works of political writers with regard to the Janizaries.

The Janizaries of our days bear but a very slight resemblance to the militia of that denomination created by Amurath, so intrepid, docile, and devoted to their chief, and who proved so fatal to the Christians under the haughty Mahomet II.

As fast as Osman and his descendants extended and consolidated their conquests in Asia, they distributed a part of the conquered lands into fiefs, which their favourites and their officers held of them on condition of following them to the war with a certain number of men, armed and maintained. With these feudal troops, united with adventurers, whom the hope of booty and rewards attached to the first sultans, those sovereigns drove the Christians out of Asia, and carried the war into Europe. The Christians of that epoch not having armies in any wise better organised, the religious fanaticism, a sole command, and the example of the chief, insured the victory to the Musulmen.

It was not long, however, before the Sultans perceived the defects of the feudal troops, who being bound to serve for a limited period only in each year, returned to their hearths, or deserted, when the bad season approached. They therefore felt the necessity of increasing the number of their permanent troops, and with this view Amurath formed, from his young prisoners of war, a body of infantry, under the name of *jèni-tcheri* (new soldiers). This corps received regular pay and rations ; it was subjected to a very severe discipline ; it was recruited and augmented, in the sequel, by the incorporation of a fifth of the prisoners, and of a tenth of the children of the Christian villages tributary to the Crescent. These youths, seduced by the priests of the Koran, soon forgot their paternal creed, to attach themselves to sovereigns, who, constantly victorious, treated them well, recompensed their devotion liberally, and connived at their pillage, provided they were brave.

Down to the reign of Soliman the Wise, the Janizaries raised the Ottoman power to its highest pinnacle ; but, under his effeminate successors, their discipline became relaxed. The Sultans then devoting themselves to the harem, softened by every sort of voluptuousness, delighted more in buying women and eunuchs than in paying soldiers. The corps of Janizaries became a burden to them. Yet not daring either to disband it, or to deprive it of its privileges,

the rewards of the great services it had rendered, they left off requiring from the Christians their portions of youth for recruiting it, and they gave permission to the Janizaries, who desired to marry, or to follow any trade, to reside out of the barracks. They thought by these means to weaken this formidable body, at the same time that they drew advantage from a pitiful saving on the score of provisions, which were only distributed to those who were lodged in the barracks; but soon making a profit of the advantage of belonging to a privileged body, who received pay without being bound to any service, the nobles had their numerous domestics enrolled in the corps, and the Janizaries, who had become artisans, did the same in regard to their children.

The youth of the Musulman race, whom the severity of the discipline had kept out of the corps, then sought, in crowds, the honour of entering it as volunteers, in order to participate in the quality, if not as respected the pay, at least as regarded the powerful protection of such a body, and of its privileges, of these privileges the principal were, that of being the first military corps of the state, and the guard of the prince in the field; that of being amenable only to their chiefs, and those chiefs to be chosen from the corps alone; that to their officers only were entrusted the command of fortified places, &c.

The Janizaries, without foregoing any of these rights, ceased, by the abuses and the false policy of the Sultans with regard to them, to be a body adapted for the defence of the state, and became nothing more than a civic guard, composed of all the valets of the nobles, and artisans of the towns; or rather a numerous corporation, turbulent, jealous to excess of its privileges, a burden to all classes, and formidable to their sovereigns.* From fifteen to twenty thousand wretches who wanted the activity or the industry necessary for the exercise of a profession, remained, even latterly, in the barracks of Constantinople, and of the other great towns of the empire, where

* The frequent consequences of the insurrections of the Janizaries are well known. Osman II. was killed in one of their tumults. In 1807 they deposed Selim III. and dispersed the regular corps of the *Nizam-djedid*, by the formation of which that Sultan had sought to commence a reform in his dominions. The following year they burnt in his palace Mustapha Bairahtar, become Grand Vizier of the present Sultan Mahmoud, whom he had placed on the throne, because that prime minister had revived, under the name of *Scimens*, the *Nizam-djedids* of Selim, and wished to adopt the plan of reform of that sovereign. After the death of Bairahtar, the *Scimens* were massacred, being proscribed throughout the empire; their barracks were burnt; the Ulemas pronounced their anathemas against them, and reformers of all sorts; and the Sultan Mahmoud owed his life, perhaps, only to the circumstance of his being without an heir.

The moment the Janizaries deemed that they had cause to complain of a Sultan, or a minister, as soon as any innovation seemed to threaten their privileges, they rose in insurrection. Their camp-kettles carried to

they performed the easy duty of a mere guard. They were to be known by a distinguishing girdle. In other respects their clothing and arms were not uniform. The Janizaries on duty at Constantinople, indeed, were allowed to be armed only with a stick; while the whole Musulman population, to the confectioner himself, constantly carried in their girdle a pair of pistols and a great poignard. Those who did lodge in the barracks performed no service, were never exercised, nor even assembled, and knew such of their officers only as distributed to them their quarterly pay. A great many of them sold, by anticipation, to speculators their pay for their whole lives.*

The corps of Janizaries was divided by *oda*. The *oda* in the beginning was nothing more than the soldiers' mess, and had only a small number of officers the same for all. But as certain *odas* enjoyed extraordinary reputation, or especial privileges, besides those common to the whole body, it followed that some of them reckoned as many as 10,000 names on their registers, whilst others had no more than 200.

The number of Janizaries throughout the empire who were in the receipt of pay, amounted to about 100,000; upwards of 300,000 were enrolled. Yet notwithstanding all that the Sultans could do during the late wars with the Russians, this corps never furnished more than 25,000 men, the half of which deserted before they arrived at Adrianople, although the army took more than a month to go that distance which is but a march of six and forty hours.†

In the first campaigns of the present war with the Greeks, the Turkish army counted some Janizaries; but for the three last years there had been no longer even one.

The square of the Hippodrome became the signal of revolt. Often even abusing the wise custom, which, on the breaking out of a fire, requires the Sultan, the Grand Vizier, and the principal members of the Divan to repair in person to the spot, they set fire to quarters of the capital, in order to compel the Grand Seigneur to come and hear their complaints and their menaces. Strange mode of exercising the right of petition!

There existed a usage characteristic not only of the Janizaries, but of the whole Turkish nation. In order to receive his quarterly pay every Janizary was obliged to appear before the chief of his *oda*, called the *otlar-badji*, (giver of soup,) and on quitting this description of colonel, he deposited, on a carpet placed for the purpose, what he thought proper to leave of his stipend. The poor give to the rich, the little to the great—it is a sort of homage.

A Turkish army is composed, besides the Janizaries, of feudal troops, a disorderly assemblage, rather burthensome than useful; the troops of Pashas, and the corps of the *Seratcoulis* (frontier troops) which constitute the principal force. The Porte has also standing corps of artillery and cavalry. Among the last the most considerable, that of the Spahis, which costs the state very dear, is no better disciplined than the Janizaries. A horde of valets, of suttlers, and higglers of all kinds, nearly in number to the combatants, always encumbers a Turkish camp.

The guard of the *Sandjak-Sherif* (the standard of the prophet,) was formerly confided to a certain *oda*. In later times, all pretended to this honour, because this sacred standard constantly accompanied the Grand Vizier; consequently the division with which it remained, was the principal body of the army. Such is the absence of discipline among the Turks, that in one of the last campaigns, the Grand Vizier shut up in his camp at Choumla with 80,000 men, wanted the power of detaching from it 5,000 to go to the distance of five and twenty leagues to the relief of the fortress of Crassowa, attacked by the Russians. He was obliged to levy in the immediate country itself, and merely for that single operation, a body of men who dispersed as soon as they had executed it.

From all this, it is manifest that a reform was indispensable. Sultan Mahmoud, who had lived in intimacy with his cousin, the unfortunate Selim III., during the year which elapsed between the deposition and death of the latter, felt sensibly its necessity; but he felt also that as long as the Janizaries existed, no reform was practicable. The *Ulemas*, another privileged corporation, comprising the sacerdotal and magisterial offices, were scarcely less the enemies of innovation than the Janizaries themselves. These two corporations, without any reciprocal love, mutually aided each other in the preservation of the baneful privileges which they enjoyed; the *Ulemas*, however, being better informed, could be more easily brought over to consent to the reforms on which the very existence of the empire depended. It was these, and especially their head, the *Sheik-ul-Islam*, or the Mufty, whose *fetvas* (resembling the bulls of the ancient popes) have such an influence on the Musulman people, whom Mahmoud determined to gain. The oppression, besides, of the Janizaries, so burthensome to the other corporations, and to those even of their own body who desired to remain quiet when the rest were in mutiny; the imminent dangers which threatened the empire; the successful example of the Pasha of Egypt; these circumstances had commenced in the ideas of the Turks, a revolution which Mahmoud did but follow.

No doubt humanity shuddered at the measures which he took; but those who are acquainted with the nature of his people, will readily acknowledge that there was no alternative for him between killing and being killed. He has been reproached for having, as it were, in the face of an enemy, destroyed a force which, in the sequel, he has not been able to replace. What has been stated above, proves that it was not of a force, but of an opposition, that he got rid. Will his measure succeed? This question is too complicated for us to pretend to solve it. To have an army, finances are requisite; to have finances, an administration is indispensable. All this has yet to be formed; and what is worse still, has to be introduced in exchange for existing abuses. But what appears indisputable is, that there was no other way of commencing the reform than by the destruction of the corps of Janizaries.

VOYAGE UNDERTAKEN FROM INDIA IN SEARCH OF LA PEROUSE.

At the present moment, from the interest which Captain Dillon has excited in the public mind respecting the fate of the unfortunate La Perouse, it will be agreeable to our readers to be furnished with such facts as may serve to throw some light upon a subject which has deeply interested the most enlightened men in Europe. We therefore hasten to lay before them such information as we have been able to obtain. When D'Entrecasteaux left Brest, depositions had been obtained, stating that the natives of the Admiralty Isles had been seen clothed in the uniform of the French navy; no discovery of the kind was however made, nor any sort of effects found amongst them when the *Recherche* and *Esperance* reached that part of their destination.

That nothing was accomplished may be gathered; errors in judgment and supineness, appear throughout, in the adoption of any plan, when they reached the focus of their observations; it is amusing to read, that wherever they went, they had more the dread of Anthropophagi, or the ghosts of such, in the absence of other phantoms. Additions to Natural History occupied the principal portion of time; fixing geographical positions, and making experiments diverted the Expedition from the grand object of its research, and the indirect and timid manner of approaching the islands and shoals in the known track of the former intrepid navigator, was least likely by any chance to lead to a discovery of his fate.

What, for instance, could be expected from a second visit to the same part of the Admiralty Islands? After navigating round New Ireland and New Guinea to Ceram, thence round New Holland to the Cape of New Zealand, and thence to Tongataboo, the nearest of the Society Islands, taking only a view of the whole at a cautious distance?

D'Entrecasteaux was expressly directed to survey the western shore of New Caledonia; he did not do so, neither did he visit the Brampton Shoals, more immediately in La Perouse's track, when, in all probability, he gave up the idea, as he had hinted he might do, and not visit the Friendly Isles, but keep his course for New Guinea and La Louisade. From Tongataboo, D'Entrecasteaux sailed west for the island of Eranoan; in this situation he was at the foot of an equilateral triangle, distant 250 miles from the centre of the New Hebrides, or the Great Cyclades, as Bougainville had previously called the group, of which Malicolo and Captain Dillon's Paoul form part; and equally distant, due west, was the Observatory Island of Cook, at the north head of New Caledonia; thither he steered, came to an anchor, and remained from April 23 until May 1793. In the meanwhile, instead of seeking La Perouse, by

exploring the cluster of islands which stretch to the north of Caledonia and to the westward; instead of getting to the west side, where possibly some vestiges might have been discovered, he remained stationary, until a double canoe arrived, having on board seven men, and one woman, speaking the language of the Friendly Islands, who reported themselves to have come one day's sail from the eastward. This canoe was found to be planked with varnished or painted wood; upon this the conjecture is built that it might have been part of the wreck of *La Perouse's* ships, but they must have been more than one day at sea, if they came from the Malicolo group, on the line of the described triangle, 250 miles distant. Instead of the genius of *D'Entrecasteaux* leading him to due reflection, or to act in any manner upon this accidental circumstance, he suffered the canoe to depart to the westward for another island, where they said the planks had been found, and promised to return with additional information.

In the journal of this expedition mention is made, while passing away time, that *M. Duvelle* had his sword stolen by the natives; and on another occasion, when *M. Boulanvoir* was engaged in making astronomical observations, a native snatched up and ran away with his sword, the scabbard and belt of which were afterwards found suspended over a grave at an adjoining hamlet.

It does not appear that any conference was held, or determination made, what course should be adopted on leaving the north end of New Caledonia; the group of islands as well as the western coast, was abandoned, although their instructions were particular, not to omit exploring those parts; neither did they reconnoitre *Beaupre* islands, although so near them. Had they taken a north-east course two days, the Malicolo group might have been surveyed; how unfortunate not to have done so.

The Expedition steered to the north-west, and on the third day made *Moulin* Island and the *Huon* group, named after the Captain of the *Esperance*, which they were before acquainted with. From this a north course was made for *Egmont* Island, *Santa Cruz*, and the east end of *New Georgia*; leaving this on the 26th June to take a view of the *Arsacides*, or land of *Surville*; from *Cape Oriental* of the *Arsacides*, to *Cape Deliverance* on the east end of *La Louisade*, a few days elapsed, they made the latter on the 12th July. Here *D'Entrecasteaux* repeated the remark of the strength of the current, which invariably put him a head of his reckoning, when running to the westward. He sailed again for the *Admiralty Isles*, where, we believe, he paid the debt of nature; and thence the ship proceeded homeward.

La Louisade was decidedly the coast that *D'Entrecasteaux* ought to have examined, in order to find those he was sent in search of, as it formed the terminating object nearly, which *La Perouse* had kept in view, conformably to the line he had drawn on quitting *Notary*

Bay. We are unable to discover that *D'Entrecasteaux*, or any one else, has ever since pursued that track; therefore, upon reviewing and comparing notes, we are inclined to believe this last mentioned quarter, or between it and *New Guinea*, now to be the living tomb, if not the final destiny, of these hopeless and lamented voyagers, or of that portion which are said to have built a vessel at *Païou*, and were not again heard of. They in all probability followed the example of *Captain Bligh*, and endeavoured to reach the Dutch settlement of *Timor*. The circumstance, as related by the *Lascar*, whom *Martin Buchart* left behind at *Tucopia*, that many of the inhabitants of the Malicolo group speak the French language, is possible, allowing him to be capable of distinguishing it; his testimony from experience, is, however, good enough to warrant the belief that he well knew what constituted the materials of a wreck. Several ships have altogether disappeared after leaving this in search of sandal wood at the *Feejee* Islands, that might have taken a route through the *New Hebrides*, expecting there also to meet with that article of trade for the *China* market. Whether the sword-handle in *Captain Dillon's* possession be identically that of *La Perouse*, or belonging to those we have alluded to, it serves to establish the point that a communication is kept up occasionally by canoes to and from islands remotely situated, as the sword handle which came last from *Tucopia* was brought from the Malicolos, which is equi-distant from the north end of *New Caledonia*, upon a course that may be kept either way, by the steadiness of the prevailing south-east winds, and the tranquil state of the ocean, while the general clearness of the atmosphere enables the islanders in this part of the *Pacific* to perform long voyages with a degree of certainty, aided by the view of the heavens, where the compass is wanting.

Neither *M. Bougainville*, who was at *Leper's* Island, the central one of the *New Hebrides*, in 1768, nor *Captain Cook* in 1773, who passed through the whole range, gives a character of the people to justify the idea, that their manners are of a ferocious or inhospitable description; supposing them to be otherwise, therefore, had *La Perouse* really suffered shipwreck here, from the natural resources of a Frenchman's mind so proverbially evinced under calamity, we venture to assert that further attempts would have been made by the survivors to regain *Port Jackson*, or some nearer station to it, and that it is next to impossible that the parties in question would have quietly remained at the *New Hebrides* for so long a period, even though no ship had touched there.

Bougainville mentions having found on the sea-beach, buried under the sand, at *Bouka* Island, one of the *Arsacides*, part of a plate of lead, with marks of having been torn from the nails that affixed it to some particular spot: there remained of the inscription:

hor'd here

ick Majesty's.

Now, whether an-chored here his *Britann-ick* or *Cathol-ick* Majesty's ship is immaterial, as it is equally customary to leave these mementos in both languages.

This plate was found in 1788, but as Bougainville found it out of its place, it demonstrates our previous position, that certainty is not to be attached as to where such a relic might have been originally left, from the spot where it was found.

But to set on foot so praiseworthy an endeavour—to rescue La Perouse and his gallant companions, should any of them be still alive, is highly praiseworthy.

The interest excited by Captain Dillon's present voyage in search of this immortal navigator, is of no ordinary kind. It appears that Captain Dillon has in his suite a Prussian, of the name of Martin Buchert, who was for some time a resident in the Sandwich Islands, the scene of the *Research's* destination, who is also a very intelligent man. We shall be all expectation until the return of Captain Dillon, which we understand may take place in four or five months. The long residence of Martin Buchert on the island, it is said, made him intimately acquainted with the customs of the Malicolans; and as his account may be viewed as accurate and attractive, we are of opinion that there cannot be any great risk in amplifying upon so interesting a theme.

Captain Dillon was anxious to glean all the particulars he could concerning the Malicolans, and he closely questioned the Tucopians about them. The people of Tucopia asserted that their neighbours were not cannibals; that when an enemy falls into their hands he is immediately killed: his body is then deposited in sea water, and kept there until the bones are perfectly bare. The skeleton is then taken up, the bones of the extremities scraped and cut into various forms to point arrows and spears.

The arms of the Malicolans consist of heavy clubs, spears, and bows and arrows; they poison the latter with a kind of reddish gum, extracted from a species of tree peculiar to the Malicolos; when a man is wounded by a poisoned arrow in the limbs, the part is quickly cut out, and his life is sometimes saved: but if the wound happens to be in the body, where it cannot be easily excised, he resigns himself quietly to death without complaint, though he frequently lingers for four or five days in the most excruciating agony.

The Malicolans differ from almost all the other islanders in the South Sea: they are as black as negroes, with their short woolly hair too, and resemble them in their features: their religion also is different. The people of Tucopia informed Captain Dillon, that in every village in the Malicolos there is a house dedicated to the Deity. At the principal chapel the skulls of all the people who were killed belonging to the ship that grounded at Whanoo are still preserved: the people of Tucopia, unaccustomed to the sight of human bones, avoided as much as possible going near the sacred

house where the skulls had been offered, during their stay on the island.

The Tucopians themselves are an extremely mild and inoffensive race, hospitable and generous, as their reception of Buchert and a lascar sufficiently proves. They never had direct communication with any ship before the *Hunter*, in 1813; but they said that a very long time before the appearance of the *Hunter*, a ship, the first they had ever seen, came in sight of the island, which they imagined contained evil spirits, coming to destroy them. A boat was lowered down from the ship, which approached the shore, but they assembled in full force to oppose the landing, and brandished their weapons; the people in the boat made several attempts to land, but without effect, and returned to the ship, which immediately got under weigh, and was soon out of sight, to the great joy of the Tucopians. Captain Dillon supposes that this ship was the *Barwell*, in 1798. Some years afterwards, a canoe, and four men, was drifted to Tucopia from Rotuma or the Grenville Island of the Pandora, a distance of 460 miles; these visitors were informed of the appearance of the vessel with evil spirits, but the Rotumans undeceived them, and told them that they had frequently such visits in Rotuma, and that far from driving them away, they should have welcomed them, as instead of evil spirits the people on board were good men from a distant country who would give them cutlery and beads; the *Hunter* was the next vessel that came in sight of Tucopia, and they were very glad when they saw her.

Some of the customs of the Tucopians are very singular. Captain Dillon was surprised at the number of females on Tucopia, as it was at least treble that of the males: upon inquiry he found that all the male children, except the two eldest, are strangled the moment after their birth. The reason they assign for this cruel policy is, that if they were allowed to live the population of their little island is so dense that its produce could not support them all. Tucopia is only seven miles in circumference, but the soil is very luxuriant, yet there generally is a scarcity of provisions. They live chiefly on vegetable food, having neither hogs nor poultry, which are both so plentiful on the other islands. They at one time had both, but they were voted common nuisances and exterminated by general consent; the hogs destroyed their plantations of yams, sweet potatoes, taras, and bananas; these and the breadfruit and cocoanuts, with fish, are what they subsist on, but owing to the deep water round the island fish is by no means plentiful. Buchert complained much of the forced abstemiousness of his fare. For the first eleven years of his stay at Tucopia, he never tasted animal food, except now and then a little fish. An English whaler, which touched there, about a year before the *St. Patrick*, supplied him with two or three feasts of pork after his long fast, which it will readily be believed he relished exceedingly.

The island is governed by one principal Chief, with several petty ones, who act as magistrates: they live very peaceably, and never have any wars among themselves or with their neighbours; this probably may be attributed to their Pythagorean diet. But it does not restrain an intuitive propensity for thieving, and though the punishment in case of detection is very severe, the lower classes often rob each other's gardens and plantations. If the thief is caught, he is carried before one of the chiefs, and, if convicted, his property and ground are forfeited to the individual he has robbed.

A plurality of wives is allowed; the marriage ceremony is curious. When a man wishes to take a wife, he first politely consults the lady he has placed his affections on, and if she consents, and her parents agree, he sends three or four of his male friends to take her away by force,* as it were. He then sends presents of mats and provisions to the relations of the bride, and invites them to a feast at his house, which usually lasts for two days. They are very particular as to the faithfulness of married women; if caught sinning, she and her innamorato are put to death by the husband or his friends. There is no restraint placed on the inclinations of single females at all. Widows are not permitted to take a second husband.

When a child is born, the female friends of the father and mother assemble, and bring presents to the *nouvelle accouchée*: all the female children are allowed to live.

When a Native dies, his friends come to his house, and, with much ceremony, roll him carefully up in a new mat, and bury him in a deep hole, prepared near his dwelling. It is a very curious, and to those who disbelieve in the re-appearance of departed spirits, an unaccountable fact, that the belief is universal among the inhabitants of the South Sea Islands, and they surely could not have imbibed the idea from the old world. In Tucopia there is a large building, called in their language 'The Spirit House,' set apart for the use of disembodied spirits: they are supposed to reside in this building; on the approach of bad weather and thunder and lightning, which alarm the islanders extremely, they flock to the Spirit House, and remain there while the storm continues, making offerings of kava-root, cocoa-nuts, and other eatables. They imagine the storm is caused by the presiding spirit, who, when he is displeased, goes to the top of the highest land in the island and manifests his wrath by raising a tempest. When he is appeased by the offerings, he returns to the 'Hall of Ghosts.'

Their mode of cooking is common, we believe, to almost all barbarous nations. A circular hole is made in the earth, about one foot in depth and three in diameter. Into this hole they put a quantity of fire-wood, and when it is pretty well burnt, throw on it a number of small black stones, about a quarter of a pound in weight. These

* This is exactly similar to the Persian custom.

soon become red hot, and as the firewood is consumed they fall into the excavation, are levelled over the lower parts and sides, and covered neatly with green leaves or grass not apt to catch fire: on these again are placed the yams, bread fruit, sweet potatoes or whatever is to be cooked; three or four tier of leaves are put over the food, and the new earth dug out of the hole is thrown over all, and well beat down, and smoothed with a paddle, so as to prevent a particle of heat escaping. In about an hour the clay is scraped off and the provisions come out nicely baked and remarkably clean. The inhabitants of each house have an oven of this sort prepared every evening, and at sunset make a hearty meal: if there is any thing left it is reserved for the next morning's breakfast—if there be nothing they make a very slender breakfast on a cocoa-nut or a few plantains.

The Tucopians are of a bright copper colour and use the betel nut and chunam. They resemble the inhabitants of Tongataboo in stature and colour, and also those of the Anuto, the Cherry Island of the Pandora; they are exceedingly clean in their persons, and bathe several times in the day, in fine, clear, fresh-water rivulets, of which there are many in the island. There also is one fresh-water lake on the south side of the island, of great depth, on which there are generally many wild fowl.

The only craft the Tucopians have are small canoes that will not carry more than six men in a sea-way; they confine their voyages to Anuto Island, about sixty miles to windward, and Malicelo, about sixty leeward. During the months of December, January, February, and March, the north-west wind prevails at Tucopia, with heavy rains, thunder, and lightning. This Captain Dillon supposes to be the north-west monsoon, which prevails in the Banda seas during the same months: it blows with great violence.—*Sydney Gazette*.

THE CONSUMPTIVE.

You should have seen that fair form ere 't was faded,
You should have mark'd the rose bloom ere it fled,
And you had own'd that sorrow ne'er had shaded
A lovelier brow, or bow'd a brighter head.

You should have heard that voice in gladness soaring,
Like the sweet sky-lark's, to the morning sky;
You should have heard at eve its vesper pouring
In strain,—thou had'st deem'd descended seraphs nigh.

But yet 't is sweet to gaze, in spite of weakness
Of form, and tint, and voice, she's lovely still!
Lovelier, perchance, in that all-sainted meekness,—
That resignation to the Eternal's will.

Then when, in youth's gay pride, and beauty's glory,
She join'd the dance, and warbled in the song,
For now a ripening seraph is before ye,
Whose stay on this dark earth cannot be long.

BABYLON.

How is Babylon become a desolation among the nations!—Jer. 50, v. 23.

O'er the proud towers of Babylon,
Woe and destruction drear,
Unlook'd for, suddenly came down,
And mocked each dreaming seer;
Mysterious writing had unroll'd
The downfall of her throne,
The doom of other lands he told,
He could not read his own.

Fallen are her halls, her palaces,
The chambers of her kings,
And left a howling wilderness,
Where the night demon sings:
Here lies, to desolation given,
All that was bright and fair;
The tower, 'whose top should reach to heaven!'
Its relics moulder there.

From age to age her stream hath kept
Its joyous course along;
Its banks, as when the Hebrews wept,
Are echoless to song:
And he who asked the captive's lay
Of old, by 'Babel's stream,'
Is now as desolate as they,
His land, like their's, a dream.

For, lo! Heaven's cleaving curse foreshewn,
Hath swept the peopled land;
Chaldea's pride, and Salem's throne,
Have felt an equal hand:
But, Judah! yet shall happier days
Break on that night of thine,
And brighter than the noontide blaze
Thy evening star shall shine.

But o'er that city of the day,
The hope of morning never
Shall dawn; a home for beasts of prey
For ever and for ever:
Never to hear man's busy hum,
Nor echo to his tread,
While Desolation walks the dumb
Drear city of the dead!

Here, where in pride the monarch dwelt,
Where slaves their homage paid,
While to the sun the Magian knelt,
And the Chaldean prayed:
Alike the sunshine and the cloud,
The calm, the tempest's sweep,
No ray so bright, no voice so loud,
To break that iron sleep.

H. W. J.

Liverpool Mercury.

* Genesis, 11, 4.

JOURNEY ACROSS THE PENINSULA OF INDIA, FROM MADRAS TO
BOMBAY.

*Courg Territory—Elephant Travelling—Visit to the Rajah—
Buffaloes and Tigers.*

No. V.

ABOUT six o'clock in the morning, (March 12,) an elephant was brought to convey me to the capital of the Rajah of Mysore, and I was soon roused by the sound of his large bells. The music of these was deep toned and harmonious, one being tuned a third lower than the other. They may be heard at considerable distance, and produce a pleasing effect among the woods. The utility of this ornament sufficiently accounts for its adoption. The bells serve to keep a party together, which accident might otherwise separate in the interminable forests of these parts, and they must be especially useful when one of these valuable animals escapes from his master and re-enters his native labyrinth. On rising, I found the weather cold, and a thick fog on the preceeding morning obscured the view. As soon as I had taken breakfast, I set out, accompanied by many more attendants than before, and by one of the subadars, with whom I had become acquainted the night before, and who was mounted in the same manner as myself. From Virajapetta, our road did not differ much in character from that which I had been travelling in the after part of the preceding day; that is to say, it passed over hills and down dales, sometimes hanging on the sides of mountains, sometimes treading narrow defiles, beautifully wooded all along, and occasionally opening into well-cultivated valleys. No wheel-carriage could possibly be used in any part of Courg, from the extreme narrowness and precipitous steepness of many parts of the way. This is sometimes so much inclined, that in order to enable the traveller to pass at all, steps have been formed by large trees fixed across the path. The elephant, notwithstanding his apparent unwieldiness, goes up and down these with great ease, and from the caution with which he steps, feeling with his trunk every stump or stone that he suspects to be loose before he ventures to place his foot on it, the motion does not become unpleasantly rough, even in the most difficult places. On the contrary, his weight is so perfectly balanced on the other three legs, whilst he is posing the fourth, and he goes through the exertion so slowly, that one sometimes imagines he has stopped altogether.

The attention to European travellers passing through the Rajah of Courg's territories has already been noticed; a further proof of it was shown by my being presented with milk and raspberries by the villagers on my way, whilst amongst the attendants their was a person whose business it was to carry oranges, citrons, and pease, for my refreshment. These were, from time to time, offered me, and

the pease, which are here are exotic, were evidently supposed to be a delicate fruit intended to be eaten raw. My civility was somewhat put to the test when a large handful was placed in my lap; for although I could manage two or three pods, yet with so large a supply I was like the pilgrim in the fable, and much wished 'the liberty to boil my pease.'

After travelling about nine miles, we came to a broad river, running between the mountains. Its clear and limpid stream reflected the woods rising from its banks, and doubled the charms of the surrounding scenery. We descended a tremendous steep to enter it, and found that it was not above five feet, though we perceived by the marks on its banks that, like all the rivers of India, it was liable to sudden flushes. Our elephants would have found no difficulty in crossing it, even in its swollen state, as they are very expert swimmers. On ascending a still more perpendicular pass on the opposite bank, we came to a gate way at the top, and then arrived at a small bungalow. This was a resting-place purposely erected by the Rajah's orders, and consisted of a raised mud floor, with a thatched roof, supported on a few wooden posts around, while a mat-work was fixed on the outside of these which could be removed at pleasure.

Here again a rural repast was offered me, and a profusion of pine apples, rose apples, raspberries, plantains, guavas, oranges, &c., were laid out on a scarlet cloth spread on the floor. Among these fruits I observed two kinds which I had never before seen; the one resembled in shape and taste the hips, or fruit of the dog-rose, of England, while the other looked like a small sloe, and had a mealy and insipid taste. At this station, which was a half-way house, preparations were made for proceeding to the capital. Two fresh elephants were in waiting for the subadar and myself, and there were a new set of boys* for my palanquin. Although by imitating my companion I had learned to ride in a tolerably easy position, shortening the stirrups and sitting well back, yet the width of the seat had stretched my legs to a painful degree, and to relieve them I now preferred the palanquin. After riding in it for six miles we came to a very steep pass which made it difficult for the boys to descend, so that I again mounted my elephant. This beast was much larger than the last, and his pad was better stuffed; I shifted my position, by sitting sideways, as on a pillion, and found a great relief in this way. At length, after several miles of hilly woods, we reached a village, and then a fortified gateway, at the bottom of a mountain. Passing through, we wound up its side by a tolerably well-made but steep road, in some places as terrific as the celebrated

* This must not be confounded with the English word boy. It is, I believe, of Telooogo origin, and signifies a carrier or porter; probably the term boy, used to Native servants of all descriptions and ages, is thus derived, since the palanquin-bearers in most parts do much of the work about the house.

Penman Mawr, in North Wales, except, indeed, that the side of the precipices were in general covered with thick wood. The view from the top was magnificent, wooded mountains bounded the horizon on all sides, and an extensively cultivated valley appeared beneath. We now passed through a second fortified gateway, and over a bridge across a deep ditch. These were the outworks on the approach to the town of Madekery, which we reached after crossing a clear open space and descending a slight hill. This town is of a respectable size, and may, perhaps, contain 7000 or 8000 inhabitants; the houses are built of mud, but are covered with tiled roofs. After passing the fort, a well-built and perfectly new square fortification, on an elevated natural platform, and leaving an extensive elephant stable on our right, we entered a spacious orange garden, and thus approached a spacious mansion which the Rajah's brother built exclusively for the accommodation of European visitors. It was about three o'clock, and I found, on being ushered into the centre room, a long table spread, with a very handsome European repast, exclusively for my entertainment. The dishes were all dressed in good style, and there was no want of excellent beer and Madeira wine. Whilst I was partaking of this good cheer, sufficient in quantity for twenty people, three or four servants came in with hampers on their heads, which I was informed were filled with delicacies, that the Rajah sent, with his compliments from his own table. This was spread over the board as a second course. The dishes were all excellent, but very rich, consisting of rice dumplings, pancakes of rice and sugar, different kinds of pastry, and sweetmeats, curries of the most high-flavoured and delicious kind, fried pease, plantains, and messes looking like flummery. Of fruits, pine apples, guavas, oranges, citrons, raspberries, rose apples, almonds, and raisins. When I had satisfied my appetite and my curiosity with this variety, I signified my desire to pay the Rajah a visit; and as an elephant and palanquin waited my orders, my wishes were soon executed. We now again advanced towards the fort, where, after passing two gates and a court-yard, crowded with attendants, I found myself in a handsome and spacious square. Of this, one side was formed by the Rajah's palace, and the walls of the fort, with different offices, made up the rest. We approached the grand entrance in the centre of the building, and, mounting four or five steps, under a portico, advanced into a saloon crowded with musicians and singers.

The Rajah met me as I entered, shook me cordially by the hand, and led me into a side apartment, looking towards the square. Here we both took our seats, and his son, a youth of twelve years old, was placed in a chair at my side. Before us there was a little table covered with green baize, and on it a desk, also covered, together with a sabre, in a fine gilt sheath, and a steel-headed arrow. The Rajah spoke to me by an interpreter, and after inquiring about the Mysore Resident's health, the length of my journey, and one or two

other such questions, he sent for a very handsome doubled-barrelled gun, which, as well as the gilt sword, he assured me, was the work of a Native of Courg, who was then standing in the room. He had good reason to boast of this mechanic, for the gun could not, on the minutest inspection, be distinguished from one of Manton's that served as a pattern, and the gilding of the scabbard and ornament on the blade was exquisitely finished. My interpreter did not understand English very well, and I requested permission to explain myself in the Tamil language. Another person was immediately sent for, and the conversation became more familiar. I made known that I had some acquaintance with Hindoo works, and that I had turned my attention to the study of Sanscrit. The Rajah seemed somewhat incredulous, and begged that I would pronounce a word, sending at the same time for two of his Brahmin priests. It is scarcely to be imagined the pleasure he seemed to feel, when I repeated to him a sloka or two in his praise; no sooner had his pundits explained the meaning, than, staring with astonishment, he burst into a fit of laughter. He then asked me my age, and seemed to think it impossible that I should have learned so much since I was born; for, being quite unacquainted with the Sanscrit himself, and accustomed to consider it as the summit of human wisdom to attain a knowledge of it, his wonder was the natural effect of his ignorance.

He then jocularly adverted to his son, as fond of play and inattentive, which gave me an opportunity of quoting some stanzas in praise of learning. As these were out of the 'Hetopadesha,' a book not known in this part of India, the pundits themselves were at a loss to conceive where I had learned them, and I rose much in their estimation from that circumstance. In this way we passed about an hour, while music and singing were going on in the anti-chamber. I have mentioned that the room in which we were seated looked into the square, and, being on the ground-floor, it was on a level with it, so that when the blind was open we were close to the people on the outside. The Rajah now gave some orders, and two wild buffaloes were dragged into the area, by ropes fastened to their horns, at each end of which about ten men were placed. It was explained to me that these animals were too young to fight, but that combats were frequently exhibited here for the Rajah's entertainment. After I had sufficiently admired their size, which was more than double that of the domestic breed, and equal to that of the largest bull, they were led away. Enormous skeletons, heads of full grown buffaloes were also brought to show to what an enormous size these young ones would in time attain. The next exhibition was of two royal tigers, brought by ropes in the same way, but with much less caution than the buffaloes, for when they arrived before the window, the ropes were slackened, and they lay down very quietly.

This was showing a confidence in their good temper, which, as we

were within two yards of them, I could have foregone the pleasure of witnessing, for I recollected to have heard my friend say, that when he paid the Rajah a visit, the same thing was done, and one of the animals jumped into the window. When we had seen enough of them, they were also dragged away, but with considerable difficulty and much roaring, for although they were not at all irritated, they did not seem to like the being forced to move, and therefore hung back upon their collars, and clung to the ground with a force that twenty men with difficulty overcame. It was by this time when torch-bearers and lights being ranged on each side of the windows, a concourse of dancing girls next appeared. There were about twenty of them all dressed in white, and with gold belts round the waist. As I am rather short-sighted, and they were full ten yards distant, I could not distinguish their features, or even the ornaments of their dress, but I could perceive, from a comparison of their height with that of two or three standing behind, that they were all little girls of almost ten years of age. They continued dancing during the remainder of my visit, though the Rajah paid not the least attention to them. It was ludicrous enough to see them moving in the grave style of a Hindoo minuet to the tune of 'Molly put the kettle on,' and some popular airs which the musicians had learned to play out of compliment to Europeans. Our conversation turned on Hindoo literature and mythology, and as I had purposely placed Moor's Hindoo Pantheon into my palanquin, the Rajah was much amused by the subjects there engraved. I had also with me a small gilt pocket compass, and after purposely introducing the subject of shipping, I spoke of the method of guiding vessels, and pointed out the virtues of the magnet. This, the Rajah seemed never to have heard of, but when I had sufficiently raised his curiosity, I produced the compass. Of course the utmost astonishment was excited by it, and the greatest delight when I presented it as an instrument which would always serve to distinguish the cardinal points, a quality of no small importance to a Hindoo, who constantly requires to know them for the performance of various ceremonies. I prolonged my visit for a reason above mentioned, until I was permitted to take my leave, at about half past seven o'clock, the time of Poosa, or the ceremony of the anointment of the idol, at which the Rajah was about to assist in person. He was dressed in a loose gown of dark colored calico, with a tippet or cape of black silk, trimmed with a thin edging of fur, made up to the throat and falling over his shoulders. The cuffs of his sleeves were also of dark silk and fur: on his head he had a leathern cap with fur on the top; from the back to the front, between which and the leather, there was a border of narrow gold lace. Round his neck hung a double string of large pearls, to which was suspended a Palakum, or breast ornament, about the size of a common locket, and composed of diamonds and rubies. He held a white handkerchief in his hand and was constantly chewing beetel and cloves, which he occasionally spit into a silver vase

held by a servant behind him; rinsing his mouth at the same time with water; but this was done with great decency. The Rajahin person was of a middle size, and his face was indicative of good temper. His manners were condescending and mild, and to his own people he seemed to speak with affability, though evidently with authority. I have since learned, however, that he is extremely tyrannical, and occasionally cuts off the heads of his subjects without much ceremony. Their respect towards him seems to be unbounded. Every one in his presence, stood with his body inclined forwards, and his hands closed in the attitude of prayer or submission, and whenever the Rajah spoke, those whom he addressed showed their obsequious assent to what he said by repeating his name, Ma Samy, at every clause of his sentence.

The son, who was very fair, and had a round healthy face, seemed full of life and play, and was much annoyed by the importunate care which his attendants bestowed upon him. No sooner did he spring up to the windows to see the shows, than they put out their arms lest he should fall; even while standing still, they held his gown, and he was scarcely considered out of danger when quietly seated on a chair. He was dressed like his father, except that his garment was of sprigged calico, instead of plain, and that his breast ornament was smaller. Whenever I was able to do so, I addressed myself to the Pundits in Sanscrit, which pleased them much. I cannot, indeed, pretend to more than a slight knowledge of that language; but I took the pains, while learning it, to practice speaking, and to get by rote a number of common slokas, such as might apply to everyday subjects. This has been of great use since; and far from finding Sanscrit a useless study, even on the ground of commanding respect among the natives, which is an object of some importance to an European, the little that I know has frequently been serviceable. Had it not been for this, my visit on the present occasion must have been ceremonious and dull. But by using the little that I had learned, and taking care not to venture out of my depth, I was not only much entertained, but gave the natives a vast notion of my learning.

From the palace I passed through a street of guards out of the fort, and on again reaching the house, found a splendid dinner prepared for my entertainment; but as one such repast in a day was more than enough, and I was much fatigued, I retired to rest without touching a morsel.

SKETCH OF THE RUINS OF EPHEBUS.—FROM THE JOURNAL OF AN ARCHITECT.

THE marshy plain of Ayasalook, which is the name of the village that has risen out of the ruins of the ancient Ephesus, is interesting to three distinct classes of people, from very different causes. The traveller visits it on account of its ancient history, and the antiquities which lie profusely scattered over an immense extent of ground; to the Turk it is an object of interest, as associated with many important events closely connected with the establishment of that empire; and the devotee reveres it, as containing the tomb of St John, the inspired prophet of the Apocalypse.

Ephesus was the Delphi of Asia Minor; the one was under the tutelar protection of Apollo, the other acknowledged the powerful influence of his twin sister, the chaste Diana. The Pythian, in ungrammatical language and lame numbers, divulged the will of the Parnassian god, the Eunuch declared the oracles of the Ephesian deity; on both have depended some of the most important events in ancient history. The Greeks of Europe assembled their Amphictyonic Council within the sacred precincts of their magnificent temple; the States General of Asia held their deliberations under the roof of the splendid fane of Diana. Each has been the object of reverence or of rapine to the mightiest of kings and conquerors, as their admiration or their revenge dictated. Of the temple of Apollo scarce one block of marble remains to declare its site; every vestige of the temple of Diana lies engulfed in the deep bed of a morass.

Ephesus, inferior only to Rome and Athens in the extent of its magnificent ruins, offers a most attractive field for observation to the general traveller, and to the architect in particular; for the very lines which circumscribe a field of corn, a rising hillock, or a heap of stones, still direct his attention to the masses which form the component parts of this interesting plan, and suggest to him indications to fill up the general outline; the ensemble of which is extremely imposing. In comparison with the space comprised within the vast circuit of the walls, very few decorative details are to be found, and those generally Roman. Not one pure example of the Ionic or Doric orders is to be met with. The blocks of marble used in the constructions are immense, and in fact all the walls seem to have been built without the least attention to economy.

The feelings of the Turks are excited by the recollection of many a hard battle decided on this spot. In 1081, John Ducas, father-in-law to Alexis, whose daughter was the celebrated Anna Comnenes, defeated Tangripermes and Maraces, generals of the Mahommedans. Tamerlane, after the victory, which he gained in 1401 over Bajazet near Angora, summoned all the princes of Anatolia to meet him at

Ayaslook. Its commerce is now fled to Scala Nova and Smyrna, and the ravages of relentless conquerors, who could ill brook the partiality shown to the less fortunate rivals, have now reduced Ayaslook to a poor village.

As Ephesus, in former times, united under its ample colonnades and numerous porticoes, the inhabitants of European, as well as of Asiatic, Greece, in celebration of the mysteries of its goddess; so do its ruins now receive within the fallen walls, the superstitious devotee, to pay his adoration to the sacred relics of the saint. On the 30th of April, in every year, the Armenians from Scala Nova, Smyrna, Bergamo, Magnesia, and even more distant parts, pitch their tents on the summit of Prion, and accompanied by their wives, their children, and domestics, celebrate the festival of Saint John with music, dancing, and feasting. They thus endeavour to snatch a few days of repose from the cares and anxieties of business, and to drive from their memory for a short interval the consciousness of that slavery, which bows them to the dust.

From the top of this sacred hill, which was the ancient Acropolis, or citadel, may be had a commanding view of the Ephesian plain. The hills of Teos, Claros, and Samos, bound the distant horizon, and the plain is to the right confined by Mount Gallesius, at the foot of which lies the Selinarian lake, and the other one mentioned by Strabo. The Caystrus descending from the hills winds its tortuous stream, in humble imitation of the Meander, towards the sea, often inundating with its waters the greater part of the plain.

THE MIRAGE OF THE DESERT.*

Ye shadowy lakes, so brightly fair,
O why thus mock our anxious sight?
Ye rise but to beguile our care,
And sink us in a deeper night.
Hungry and faint we fondly bless
The kind relief your waters show;
Yet, though deceived, scarce love ye less,
That for a while ye calm'd our woe.
'Tis thus the faithless world betrays,
When fond reliance dares to prove;
'Tis false!—and most where it displays
The smile of friendship and of love.
Wreck'd by our fate, we fondly seek
Where truth seem'd lovely—but in vain;
It guides us through each tranquil creek,
To quit us on the raging main.

DELNA.

* The delusion caused by the rarefaction of the air, representing apparent lakes of water, frequent in the Deserts of Arabia.

FREE TRADE TO INDIA, CHINA, &c.

No. II.

'One fact during this journey has been impressed on my mind very forcibly: that the character and situation of the natives of these great countries are exceedingly little known, and in many instances grossly misrepresented, not only by the English public in general, but by a great proportion of those also who, though they have been in India, have taken their views of its population, manners, and productions from Calcutta, or at most from Bengal.'—*Bishop Heber.*

To the Right Hon. Charles Grant, President of the Board of Trade.

SIR,—In my last letter I adverted to the injurious effects which are produced in our intercourse with India by the high duty on East India sugar, and to the obstacles which are opposed to the internal improvement of our Indian empire, by the prohibitions by which British capitalists are debarred from settling there at pleasure, and becoming proprietors of the soil. I did not wish to interrupt the course of my argument, or to extend the limits of my letter, by adducing authorities in favour of my positions; but as there is such a general ignorance in this country of all that relates to India, I will now confirm and illustrate the views I then took, by a reference to the most authentic sources of information which we possess, respecting the actual condition of India.

From the degree of perfection to which the natives have carried some manufactures in that country, and from the facility with which they are acknowledged to turn from one art or profession to another, it is difficult to convince an Englishman of the very low state to which agriculture is there reduced. It is observed by Mill, in his 'History of British India,' 'It is allowed on all hands that the agriculture of Hindoostan is rude: but the progress of agriculture depends so much upon the laws relating to landed property, that the state of this art may continue very low in a country where other arts are carried to a high degree of perfection.'

A Hindoo field in the highest state of cultivation is described to be only so far changed by the plough as to afford a scanty supply of mould for covering the seed. Nothing can exceed the rudeness and insufficiency of Hindoo agriculture: the plough consists of a few pieces of wood put together with less adaptation to the end in view than has been elsewhere found among some of the rudest nations. It has no contrivance for turning over the mould, and the share having neither width nor depth, is incapable of stirring the soil. The operation of ploughing is described by the expressive term of *scratching*. Every thing which savours of ingenuity, even the most natural results of observation and good sense, are foreign to the agriculture of the Hindoos. The advantages

arising from the observation of the fittest season for sowing, are almost entirely neglected; for restoring fruitfulness to a field that is exhausted, no other expedient is known than suspending its cultivation. When the weeds, with which it is always plentifully stored, usurp undivided dominion, the most irrational practice that ever found existence in the agriculture of any nation, is general in India—that of sowing various species of seeds, mustard, flax, barley, wheat, millet, maize, and many others which ripen at different intervals, all indiscriminately on the same spot. As soon as the earliest of the crops is matured, the reapers are sent into the field, who pick out the stalks of the plant which is ripe, and tread down the rest with their feet.

Tennant observes, 'You frequently see a field, after one ploughing, appear as green as before, only a few scratches are perceptible here and there; more resembling the digging of a mole than the work of the plough.'

Dr. Buchanan remarks, 'I am afraid, in perusing the foregoing accounts, the reader will have formed an opinion of the native agriculture more favourable than it deserves. I have been obliged to use the English words ploughing, weeding, and hoeing, to express operations somewhat similar that are performed by the Natives, and the frequent repetitions of these might induce the reader to imagine that the ground was well wrought and kept remarkably clean. Quite the reverse, however, is the truth. Owing to the extreme imperfection of their implements, and want of strength in their cattle, a field, after six or eight ploughings, has numerous small bushes remaining as upright in it as before the labour, while the plough has not penetrated above three inches deep, and has turned over no part of the soil. The plough has neither coulter nor mould board; the other instruments are equally imperfect, and are more rudely formed than it was possible for my draftsman to represent.'

Such is the state of agriculture in India, as described by authors and eye-witnesses of unquestionable authority, and such, or nearly such, must it remain for centuries, if not stimulated by the introduction of European capital and skill. It is stated by a member of the Asiatic Society, in an excellent work on the Husbandry and Internal Commerce of Bengal, printed in Calcutta, in 1804, and reprinted in London, by the East India Company's booksellers, in 1806, that 'the want of capital in manufactures and agriculture prevents the division of labour. Every manufacturer, every artist working for his own account, conducts the whole process of his art, from the formation of his tools to the sale of his production. Unable to wait the market, or to anticipate its demand, he can only follow his regular occupation, as immediately called to it by the wants of his neighbours.'

Every labourer, every artisan, who has frequent occasion to recur to the labours of the field, becomes a husbandman. Such

farmers, are not qualified to plough or conduct a well-judged course of husbandry, and are idly employed, to the great waste of useful time, in carrying to market the paltry produce of their petty farms. If Bengal had a capital in the hands of enterprising and intelligent proprietors, who employed it in agriculture, manufactures, and internal commerce, these arts would be improved; and with more and better productions from the same labour, the situation of the labourers would be less precarious, and more affluent, although the greatest part of the profit might vest with the owners of the money adventured. In agriculture particularly, which is the basis of the prosperity of a country, the want of pecuniary funds is a bar to all improvement, while, on the contrary, the employment of money in agriculture would introduce large farms, and from these would flow every improvement that is wanted in husbandry; and such improvements must naturally extend from agriculture into every branch of arts and commerce. Without capital and enterprise improvement can never be obtained. Precept will never inculcate a better husbandry on the humble unenlightened peasant.'

And the same author adds, with respect to sugar :

From Benares to Rungpoor, from the borders of Assuam to those of Cuttack, there is scarcely a district in Bengal or its dependant provinces wherein the sugar-cane does not flourish. It thrives most especially in the provinces of Benares, Bihar, Rungpoor, Birbhoom, Birbhan, and Médnipur : it is successfully cultivated in all, and there seems to be no other bounds to the possible production of sugar in Bengal than the limits of the demand, and consequent vend of it. The growth for home consumption and for the inland trade is vast, and it only needs encouragement to equal the demand of Europe also.

It has, indeed, been said, as the same author remarks, ' that the great population could not avail to effect improvements, notwithstanding opportunities afforded for particular manufactures or raw produce, because professions are hereditary among the Hindoos, the offspring of men of one calling do not intrude into any other; and the produce of any particular manufacture cannot be extended according to the increase of the demand, but must depend on the population of the caste or tribe which works on that manufacture.'

After adducing several proofs of the fallacy of this opinion, he observes: 'In practice little attention is paid to the limitations to which we have here alluded. Daily observation shows even Brahmans exercising the menial profession of a Sudrah. We are aware that every caste forms itself into clubs or lodges, consisting of the several individuals of that caste residing within a small distance, and that these clubs or lodges govern themselves by particular rules and customs, or by-laws. But though some restrictions and limitations, not founded on religious prejudices, are found among their by-laws.

laws, it may be received as a general maxim, that the occupation appointed for each tribe is entitled merely to a preference. Every profession, with few exceptions, is open to every description of persons, and the discouragement arising from religious prejudices is not greater than what exists in Great Britain from the effects of municipal and corporation laws. In Bengal the numbers of people actually willing to apply to any particular occupation are sufficient for the unlimited extension of any manufacture.

'If these facts and observations be not considered as a conclusive refutation of the unfounded assertions made on this subject, we must appeal to the experience of every gentleman who may have resided in the provinces of Bengal, whether a change of occupation and profession does not frequently and indefinitely occur? Whether Brahmins are not employed in the most servile offices? And whether the Sudrah is not seen elevated to situations of respectability and importance? In short, whether the assertion above quoted be not altogether destitute of foundation?'

If such, then, be the condition of our Indian empire; if we really possess, in the eastern hemisphere, a country almost boundless in extent, and illimitable in resources and population, where, I would ask, but in our own arbitrary, unjust, and impolitic regulations, are to be found the obstacles to a commercial intercourse, unparalleled, perhaps, in its beneficial consequences both to Great Britain and India? No considerations connected with unfounded and preposterous claims to preference on the part of our colonies in the West; no superstitious reverence for a monopoly which has too long insulted the feelings and mocked the legitimate claims of the British merchant; no visionary and fallacious ideas of the possible political consequences at some remote and indefinite period, of the sprinkling of a British population among the native tribes, (possibly the very best means of preserving our sway over our Indian empire;) no silly reasonings on the danger of unrestrained intercourse with those whose manners, customs, and religion differ so widely from our own; no suggestions of ignorance, prejudice, or self-interest, will surely be allowed to perpetuate a system so absurd in its nature, and in its consequences so prejudicial to the substantial interests of both countries. The nature of Indian restrictions and the rights of British merchants, manufacturers, and consumers, are every day better understood; and it is to be hoped, too, that Great Britain begins more clearly to comprehend the obligations she has assumed to those conquered nations whom she has brought forcibly under her controul, and whose interests she is bound, by every consideration of duty and policy, most religiously to protect.

Liverpool Mercury.

A BRITISH MERCHANT.

RECOLLECTIONS OF CUMANÁ IN 1825.

FROM the animated description given of this city by one of our fellow passengers, we were all in high glee when our little dark hove in sight of the Colombian shores, and displayed the red flag of Old England. We soon reached the bay, which is extensive and safe; it was dark, however, ere we cast anchor, and we had not been moored more than five minutes before a six-oared boat came alongside, and one of the crew, in a stentorian voice, demanded the vessel's name, lading, and from whence we came. This personage, who was a coloured man, of a very forbidding aspect, dressed in trowsers which once had been white, a blue jacket adorned with a profusion of little metal buttons and a stripe of narrow gold lace across each shoulder, with a black cravat à la marine, but no waistcoat, described himself as the commander of a Colombian schooner of war, at anchor a short distance from us. He was very talkative, though not communicative. Spoke much about the prodigious extent of their navy, its achievements, and his individual mortification at not being permitted to cruise against those cowardly *Golos* (a term of contempt applied to all Spaniards.) This gentleman condescended to partake of a glass or two of our best Jamaica, and a couple of *Cabano's* prime cigars, and then, to our great satisfaction, took his leave. We drained the bottle we had uncorked to welcome our new acquaintance, and having regaled ourselves each with some three or four *Havanna's*, retired to our births impatient of the morning.

We were equipped by six o'clock, but were told that no person could be permitted to land till the *Capitan del Puerto* (Harbour Master) had visited the vessel. About eight this person's launch was seen coming down the river, Manzanares (which is navigable for small craft to the city) and in fifteen or twenty minutes we had the honour of being welcomed to Colombia by the gentleman in person, who, to do him justice, was a very accommodating kind of man, and much more polite than the generality of his countrymen. He was, in fact, so good as to offer us the use of his boat, which we readily accepted. She was pulled aground; the sailors then jumped into the water, and each took one of us Newcomers on his shoulders, and placed us all in good order and well-conditioned on the sandy shores of charming Colombia. This act of politeness we repaid in the shape of a couple of Spanish dollars (and they made no objection to the coin), and having formally saluted our good friend the Harbour Master, we turned our backs upon the element we had just left, to survey what our heated imaginations had depicted another Eden.

Directly before us was a small fort, surrounded by a few fishermen's huts; near to which was sort of a ship-yard, with a vessel of about 60 tons on the stocks. Whilst we were surveying this interesting

scene, a man, in a white jacket and trousers, with an old sword under his arm, accosted us, and gave us to understand, that we were to proceed forthwith, under his auspices, to *el General*. We therefore jogged on together; and in a short time were ushered into the august presence of General Bermudez, who was the Governor, or Intendant, of the department. The General received us with some degree of affability, and requested us to be seated. He is a very tall man, well proportioned, but badly marked with the small-pox; he wore large whiskers and mustachoes; has an austere countenance, though, when lighted up by a smile, it is tolerably pleasing; but his appearance altogether is not prepossessing. He was in his robe de chambre and slippers; and his pretty little wife, lolling in a hammock, with one leg gracefully displayed over its side, which she used occasionally by touching the ground with the point of her shoe, to give an undulation to her aerial couch, but did not rise on our entrance, and merely honoured us with a vacant stare. This was the General's villa, which is rather more than half a mile from the town. It has a good garden, and several tolerably-decent apartments. We did not detain his Excellency long. He inquired the news of the day; appeared solicitous about intelligence from England, and professed much friendship for the English nation, &c. &c.; asked each of us the object of our visit; hoped many others would follow; and, after the manner of the Spaniards, assured us all that his services were entirely at our disposal.

The following day the recognition of the independence of Columbia, by the British, was made known in Cumana. This news diffused a general joy throughout all classes who had sense enough to comprehend the meaning and importance of it. A *feu de joie* was instantly ordered. The General gave a grand dinner and a superb ball, and we, who were the only Englishmen in the place, were not invited to either. So much for Columbian compliments, and their great respect for the English nation, &c. &c.! but allowances must be made, as they are only slowly approaching towards a state of civilization; and the great Bermudez himself was, at the commencement of the Revolution, but a fag to a dealer in small-stores.

There was but one *posada* or inn in the city, and a most wretched place it was, and so full that we could not be accommodated. We traversed almost half the town, inquiring at every other door whether they could afford us shelter for the night, and the only satisfaction we could obtain, was a *No Senor*, which they drawled out as if they had been labouring under the cholera morbus. We had determined to go on board our vessel, when we luckily met with a person who came passenger with us, and upon our recounting to him the predicament in which we were, he very kindly offered us all the convenience his house afforded, and we took him at his word. We were shown into a small dirty place, and on the way to the apartment allotted to us, we encountered our host's two sons, of the

ages of three and five years, as naked as their mother ushered them into this breathing world, with this difference, that their little bodies were besmeared with the juice of the sugar cane, with a piece of which each of the urchins were provided and for which they seemed to have a prodigious fondness. By the way, the cane is very wholesome and refreshing if eaten in the morning. Our destined sleeping room was soon got ready by our kind hostess, one of whose legs was about the size of a fat grey-hound's body. This complaint arises from drinking impure waters, and is prevalent in most hot countries. This good lady had provided our chamber with a small German looking-glass, a deal table, on which was a ewer and a couple of strong Yankee chairs. She regretted that there was but one bed in the house, but told us that we could easily purchase hammocks, and that they were very comfortable when once accustomed to them; but as we conjectured she used the word *comfort* purely out of compliment to us, we declined her friendly suggestion, and having bedding with us, we soon got it on shore, and, spreading it on the polished surface, congratulated ourselves on our unexpected good fortune. Our landlord, who was a little lazy good-natured fellow, prepared some hot egg-punch, and supplied us with a lot of very fair cigars. We each took a chair, after the fashion of the country, and formed a circle outside the door, it being a beautifully fine moonlight night, where we were soon joined by two or three Natives and the *Alcalde*, (magistrate,) who grumbled sadly about the state of things *en el dia*, (now,) and began to draw invidious comparisons between a republican and a monarchical government, giving us plainly to know that he preferred the latter to the former; indeed, during the administration of Spain, Colombia was inhabited mostly by Catalans and Islanders, who are an industrious people, and Cumana was then in a flourishing state; but since the expulsion of the Spaniards, all things appear to have undergone a complete metamorphose. This it will be said is consequent on a revolution—granted; but what a different aspect would that country have now exhibited, had not the ignorance of its rulers exterminated all Spaniards without reference to their opinions. How many well-intentioned wealthy men have been robbed of their property, and peremptorily ordered to quit the country within a stated time, merely because they were Spaniards! How many unfortunate Spaniards are there now in Britain, barely existing on British bounty, who would cheerfully lay down their lives in the cause of freedom, and who would be so many ornaments amongst the horde of ignorants in that miserably populated and uncivilized nation! But to our narrative.

After our *tertulia* was ended, which lasted till nearly eleven, we retired to our *apostento*, and we slept as soundly as if we had been reposing on a down bed at Long's or the London Tavern.

Cumana then reckoned some 1000 or a 1100 houses, built of mud, laths, and canes, brick floors, well tiled, and white-washed inside and out, but not overburdened with furniture;—a hammock in the hall, with a common deal table, and a few sturdy chairs, composed the moveables of most of the inhabitants, and a many had not even these luxuries to boast of. The city is built on a sandy soil at the foot of a mountainous country, and about a mile and a half from the sea-shore. It is pretty well laid out, though not with much regularity, and a very few of the streets only are partially paved, in the careless manner in which the stones are laid deserve the term. The slightest gust of wind, therefore, brings with it immeasurable clouds of dust, which none but physicians and washerwomen rejoice at. The Palacio, or Government House, is a huge mass of wood, mud, and stone, without a single architectural ornament, and nothing to attract the eye, unless it be his Excellency's Guard, with bronzed faces and ragged vestments. The town is well fortified, although the fortifications exhibit traces of shameful neglect. There are several churches, but none of them remarkable for either beauty or embellishment. Very little respect is paid to religion, notwithstanding the people are both superstitious and bigotted in the extreme. The burial-ground is situate in the suburbs, between the city and the shore, and a most disgraceful sight it is; the graves are seldom more than from two to three feet deep, and as few will incur the expense, or care about erecting a stone over their departed relatives or friends, the grave-digger fixes upon the next spot where chance may direct his spade to dig a hole for the next comer; as decomposition is rapid in that climate, he seldom fails to turn up some relic of the former occupant, and as this practice is constantly performed, there is, as may be supposed, a great display of bleached bones and skulls in every part of this sacred place. Protestants or heretics cannot be interred within the walls of this hallowed spot. A native of one of the British West India Islands died whilst we were there, and was buried in a field adjoining the cemetery, and one of our party officiated as priest. The time appointed for the interment was about dusk. We waited a considerable while, however, for the corpse, and were about retiring from the ground, when we heard at a distance a shouting and whistling; and shortly afterwards we saw the grave-digger, a coloured man, who was crying, *Aquí viene el blanco*—here comes the white. The corpse was in a plain deal-coffin, borne by four soldiers at double quick time, and followed by a serjeant of marines, a fine young Englishman, who was attached to a vessel of war, commanded by Captain M——, a North American, and an accomplished man. This gentleman having known the deceased, defrayed the expense of the burial himself.

There are three small *plazas* or squares—the first, near the entrance to the town and close to the bridge over the river, is appropriated for the sale of *entables* of every description, and in which are the stores or warehouses of all the importers. On a morning, in

this place, you may behold motly groups of miserably clad objects of all shades and complexions—some squatted on their hams, others standing, and the whole vociferating with all their might, lauding the articles they have for sale. The beef, if it deserves the name, is intolerably bad—*fatless* and *bloodless* and of a brown-red hue—the mutton is little better—the few vegetables and fruits are very fine, but by no means such as the soil would yield if the least attention were devoted to their culture. Here and there may be seen a piece of fat pork resembling the lumps of 'gemine bear's grease' which are exhibited in some of the barber's shops in London. Plantains, bananas, and sweet potatoes in abundance—fried fish in a variety of shapes, and stripes of *tajaso* (jerked beef,) of which the Natives are immoderately fond. The eggs of the iguana (a species of lizard) form another favourite article of food—good fish is plentiful and cheap. Wild fowl is sometimes brought to this place. Poultry is scarce and dear—there are plenty of fresh eggs, milk, and good bread, but the Natives are passionately fond of *arropa*, which is ground Indian corn well kneaded and baked, and then has the appearance of our Yorkshire cakes, but not quite so palatable.

There is no theatre, nor any public place of entertainment, but there are several wretched *cafés* and billiard tables, which are frequented day and night by a set of idle fellows, who play for money (when they have any) and punch. The only diversion that possesses any merit is cock-fighting; and on a Sunday morning, the day set apart for this amusement by general consent, almost every pedestrian has a cock of some size or colour under his arm, hastening to the scene of fun and money, but the latter is their avowed object; they all gamble, from the priest to the peasant. I would advise any traveller, who wishes to be thought well of by the heads of Cumana, to carry with him a good collection of cocks, should he ever be induced to visit that delectable spot. Pork is plentiful enough, since pigs are to be seen in almost every street and lane throughout the town, although there is an express order to kill them wherever found; but the command is seldom executed. The mode adopted is by employing a certain number of Indians who may have committed any petty crime; these men are provided with a wooden lance with an iron spike at one end, and are guarded by two or three soldiers, but they have seldom an opportunity of exercising their calling, were they so disposed, as the pig proprietors are always on the alert, and as soon as the body guard is descried, a hue and cry is instantaneously commenced, which apprizes the beast owners of the approaching danger, and the pigs themselves, conscious of their nefarious practices, begin to grunt and trot off as fast as their legs will carry them to their respective homes.

There are many native Indians in this neighbourhood; the women are stout, with immense shoulders, and their countenances not unpleasant, though few Europeans like so broad a face as nature

has bestowed upon this race of beings. The population of the city and its environs may be estimated at 5000, of which two-thirds are either black or coloured. Almost the whole of the troops, and many of the officers, have dark complexions. The soldiers are generally well made, stout, and capable of enduring almost any fatigue or deprivation. They are well clothed, and there is a good deal of uniformity in their dress, but the greater part have neither shoes nor stockings. Some of the regiments have a few European officers, and these perform their manoeuvres with accuracy and promptitude. One poor soldier brought us a *vale*, a sort of Government security, for 60 dollars, which he offered to sell for eight, but as we were only birds of passage, and not having much faith in Colombian promises, we declined the temptation.

There are a few shops or stores pretty well supplied with manufactures and hardware, &c., chiefly British; these goods are brought from St. Thomas's, this being the principal place with which the trade is carried on, and which is confined to some six or seven individuals. The Columbians are bad paymasters; if you sell on a credit of three or four months, you have frequently to wait six, or eight, or twelve months after, for the money or produce, as the case may be, and must be content with such a proportion as they may find it convenient to offer at a time; however, by proper management, there is much to be gained even on these terms. The exports are cocoa, coffee, cotton, tobacco, a little indigo and a variety of skins.

The society which Cumana affords to a well-cultivated mind is exceedingly uninteresting, and the only solace is the acquaintance of the few resident foreigners ; there is, as may be supposed, a great mixture of Europeans, and others, of light characters, connected with the army and navy, and these gentry conceive themselves entitled to claim your friendship on the first introduction, or indeed, without any introduction at all. Every man who has any regard for his peace, must countenance these intruders, however disagreeable the practice may be to his feelings. The natives are ignorant, haughty, and prejudiced, and consequently most intolerant as associates. As a proof of their ignorance and ingratitude, I need only mention the fact, that a proclamation was issued at Caraccas, a short time prior to our arrival in Colombia, purporting that no foreigner should be permitted to keep either a wholesale or retail store, unless he took a creole into partnership, under the penalty of confiscation of property, though at that very moment foreigners actually fought their battles, armed, clothed, and fed them ! but the folly of this step was soon seen, and the order was therefore rescinded.

The Cumana folks are not the most polite in the world ; our letters of introduction served merely to inform the parties to whom they were addressed that such beings as the bearers were in existence.

We were, however, invited to meet a party at the house of a Spanish gentleman, (the only one there, and, perhaps, the second in all Colombia, a perfect stranger to us) who received us very cordially and entertained us in as sumptuous a manner as the country could afford. We had a sufficiency of everything that was in season, and he expressed his extreme regret that he had not been able to procure any oysters, although he had employed two lads for that purpose the whole of the morning: he having heard that one of us was very partial to this fish. One custom afforded matter of speculation to some of the party; our host rose at each remove, and we followed his example, and stretched our legs in the *Patio*, or court, adjoining the *Sala*, or hall, and this exercise was repeated either four or five times: a pleasant custom too, as it creates a zest for the next course. We sat until a late hour, and then took leave of our very kind friend Mr. V——, and his amiable family, with the most lively feelings of respect and pleasure.

The ladies of Cumana are not particularly engaging, and do not possess that vivacity for which the Spanish ladies are so remarkable. Indeed, they are rather silent ; but this does not proceed from any diffidence on their part, but rather from the great neglect in the material points of their education, combined with their indolent habits. They dress something in the French style, and seldom venture out till late in the evening, when they indulge in long walks about the town. They are, like the inhabitants of all warm climates, passionately fond of dancing, which is confined to Spanish country dances and waltzing. The Colombians are rather indifferent musicians, though the natives will not believe this.

We were detained a day longer than we had expected, as one of our party had to procure some documents from the Government Secretary ; which having obtained, he waited upon this gentleman, and in the presence of the General himself, presented him with a gold breast-pin, which might have been worth six or seven dollars, and expressed his acknowledgments for the promptitude with which his request had been attended to. His donation was most graciously received. We then paid our devoirs to his Excellency, procured our passports from his secretary, which are given gratis, and bade farewell to the charming city of Cumana.

1. The first step is to identify the problem. This involves understanding the situation and the goal.

2. The second step is to analyze the problem. This involves breaking down the problem into smaller parts and identifying the causes.

3. The third step is to develop a solution. This involves brainstorming ideas and selecting the best one.

4. The fourth step is to implement the solution. This involves putting the solution into action and monitoring the results.

5. The fifth step is to evaluate the solution. This involves assessing the effectiveness of the solution and making adjustments if necessary.

[illegible]

SONG TO THE RIVER YARRA.

By R. HILL, Esq.

The Catholic religion has consecrated to rural festivity on particular saints' days, the different little village settlements in the Spanish Colonies of America. During the period of their celebration these inhabitants of the neighbouring towns flock to these places of gaiety, as parties to a *fête champêtre*, and resign themselves to free and unrestrained mirth in the out-door luxury of the beautiful moonlight evenings of a tropical climate—when the fragrance of the land-breeze, nestling through the feathery branches of the clustered palms, or fanning the blossoms of flowers that open only to the night, adds peculiar beauty to this scene of light hearts and happy spirits. The festival of a picturesque village on the borders of a wild and woody stream on the south side of the Island of Cuba, inhabited by the cultivators of tobacco, is the subject of the following verses:

Oh, day of love, thou'rt bright and fair
When thou thy Yarra greetest—
And smiling faces beaming there,
Make Yarra's banks the sweetest.

How happy then,—how lovely they,
The youths in Yarra's bowers,
Who sparkling come, like birds at play,
Amid the leaves and flowers.

And there with garland-braided hair
Are seen the dark-eyed daughters,
And white Garzotas* wander there,
The genii of the waters.

Away, away, while the hours are gay,
And the pulse of life is fleetest—
The charms that beam on Yarra's stream
Make Yarra's banks the sweetest.

Oh, day of love, thou'rt bright and fair
When thou thy Yarra greetest,
And smiling faces beaming there,
Make Yarra's banks the sweetest.

But Yarra's banks are sweeter far,
When Night her charms revealing—
Gives music to the light guitar,
To lovers' hearts their feeling.

And sweeter is Night's castanet
Than songs when hours are lightest—
For 'tis the sound of lovers met,
When lovers' eyes are brightest.

Then oh, away, while the hours are gay,
And the pulse of life is fleetest—
The charms that beam on Yarra's stream
Make Yarra's banks the sweetest.

* The Garzotas are birds of the heron kind, perfectly white, and domesticated in the cottages on the river banks of Cuba.

ORIGIN AND OBJECT OF THE LATE TREATY WITH SIAM.

THE final establishment of commercial relations with Siam, on a footing calculated to be beneficial to the trade of British India, with that country, renders it of some importance and interest, that the arrangements agreed upon should be duly appreciated. We have been favoured with some valuable information on this head, explanatory of the origin and object of the principal stipulations of the late Treaty of a commercial character, which we propose to lay before our readers. That which we at present submit, refers especially to the measures adopted to determine a fixed rate of port and custom charges, in place of the arbitrary and uncertain demands previously enforced. It is not a little curious, however, that the past system, such as it was, originated in some measure with ourselves, at a period sufficiently remote, to give the Siamese the credit of steadily adhering to stipulations, which they considered final.

Agreeably to the past practice of the Siamese Court, the King has always been the principal merchant in his dominions, but upon the accession to the throne of the present King of Siam, he made a declaration, that he was determined not to be a *King-merchant*, and not to maintain any monopolies, but to permit a general free trade. The exclusive sale of Sticklac, Sapan wood, Aquila wood, Ivory, Gamboge and Pepper, which the late King of Siam monopolized, was abolished, and the collection of the duties upon those articles was farmed out. The trade in those articles was made free; that is, only when His Majesty had no supply of them for sale. Unfortunately the King receives a great portion of his revenues in kind. The Siamese troops, when not otherwise engaged, are employed in cultivation, and in cutting Timber and Sapan wood for His Majesty. The people of Laos pay their tribute in Sticklac, Ivory, Benzoin, and other articles. The inhabitants on its frontiers send down cotton and rafts of Teak timber. The inhabitants of the Siamese portion of Cambodia, send Gamboge, Aquila wood, Pepper and Cardamoms. The Chinese, who farm the collection of the duty upon Sugar, make their payments in that article. To get rid of all this produce, His Majesty is obliged to become a merchant, and his officers, of course, try to sell it for him on the highest possible terms. All these officers also, are allowed to engage in commerce. Although the system of monopolies was, in some measure, reduced by the present King of Siam, yet the trade of British subjects in Siam, had to contend against two very great evils; the claims of preemption exercised by the officers of the Siamese government, and an arbitrary and uncertain mode of levying the duties, and port charges. The P'hra K'hlang and his petty officers always endeavoured to prevent the inhabitants of Bangkok, from making any purchases, until they themselves had selected whatever articles they pleased,

and for which they would not settle at once a fair price, but would keep the foreign merchant waiting day after day, for a month or six weeks, until they either forced him to submit to their terms, or to lose the chance of selling his cargo to others to any advantage. No inhabitant of Bangkok dared make any other offer for what the P'hra K'hlang and his officers desired to possess, nor could he sell any article to the foreign merchant without the previous permission of the P'hra K'hlang, which was never given so long as that Minister or the King's merchant had any thing to dispose of. The foreign merchant could not go to the market unless clandestinely, and at the risk of losing his property, and bringing down most severe punishment upon the Siamese trader. He was, in fact, completely in the power of the P'hra K'hlang. Next to the P'hra K'hlang and his deputy P'hya Phiphut, which officer, in the time of Kœmpfer, was remarkable for 'pinching strangers,' the principal instruments, by which foreign trade was conducted on the above mischievous principles, were Luang Keo Ayat or Pomat, a natural brother of the P'hra K'hlang, P'hya Chula, the King's merchant, and K'hun Radsithi, his son. The two last have acquired great ascendancy over the mind of the P'hra K'hlang, and they are consulted by him on all occasions. The father professes to be a native of Persia, but is evidently a native of the coast of Coromandel. It was his special duty to settle a price for all articles required by the King from the European merchant; a duty he generally took several weeks to execute, offering the merchant, in the first instance, about one twentieth of the value of his goods. His son is the King's mercantile clerk, and accountant to the P'hra K'hlang; an office, in which his shrewdness, cunning, and quickness, render him extremely necessary and acceptable to the P'hra K'hlang.

The endeavours of the late Mission were, of course, strenuously directed towards correcting such a mischievous system, as is above described; and fairly opening the market to the English merchant; to which end the ministers were persuaded to insert in the treaty, negotiated with them, a clause in Article 6th, declaring that 'British merchants, and the inhabitants of the country, shall be allowed to buy and sell without the intervention of other persons,'—a stipulation which is repeated in Article 1st, of the Commercial Agreement, together with the words, 'with freedom and facility,' and that 'no export, import, or other duty, shall be levied upon the buyers and sellers from or to English subjects.'

On the arrival of the Mission at Bangkok, it found that the trade of British subjects was charged a general import duty of 8 per cent., heavy export duties, varying from 20 to 50 per cent., and a large sum for port and anchorage charges, sometimes styled, 'measurement duty.' The arrangement appears, from the authority of Hamilton, to have originated with ourselves.

In the year 1684, Captain Hamilton relates that the Siamese

envoys sent to France, visited London, and there concluded a commercial treaty with our nation. As this treaty was negotiated by King Charles the Second's Ministers, no notice or copy of it appears to exist among the records of the India Company. It would, however be satisfactory to examine a copy of it, not only to learn the nature of its provisions, but to ascertain what authority the Siamese envoys possessed, to execute such an instrument. Judging from such of the names of the ambassadors, whom the King of Siam formerly deputed to Europe, as can now be traced, we should believe them to have been men of subordinate rank, and the practice and habits of the Siamese Court must, indeed, have experienced a very great change, if to such men, or, indeed, to any Siamese agents, powers could be given to enter into treaties of alliance. No envoy, who might be now deputed by the Siamese monarch, would dare to enter into any engagements, or could perform any act which his master would consider it in any degree obligatory to ratify or confirm.—Captain Hamilton however declares, that in 1718, a Mr. Collet, Governor of Fort St. George, sent an agent to Siam to annul the Treaty of London, and to make a new one, detrimental to all British subjects except those employed by that Governor. The revised treaty stipulated, Hamilton states, that 'all British subjects that had not Collet's letter should be obliged to pay 8 per cent. new customs, and measurage for their ship, which came to about 500*l.* for a ship of 300 tons, to sell their cargoes to whom they pleased, but the money to be paid into the King's cash, that he might deliver goods for it, at his own prices, whether proper for their homeward markets or no.' This account shows, at least, the fidelity with which the Siamese can maintain the provisions of a treaty, that may be in their own favour, for the vexatious system and heavy rate of duties of which British merchants complained at Bangkok, are no more than what Mr. Collet appears to have introduced in 1718.

The European merchant, however, generally succeeded in evading the payment of a large portion, nay a moiety of the import duties. But the measurement duty, which was said to include certain fees to the master-attendant and officers of the P'hra K'hlang, was regulated by no fixed rule. The charges, in fact, were made by guess, under the direction of Radsithi, and no statement of particulars was ever given to the English merchant, who was made to pay the total communicated by Radsithi. Upon the death of the late King, an increased charge was made on account of the Wang-na and his officers, who were then appointed. A new fee of 28½ ticals, and sometimes 32½ ticals, was demanded for a pass for every cargo junk that a European merchant might hire, and the Governor of Paknam had lately increased his fee from 80 to 124 ticals, without declaring by whose authority, or for what reason such increase was made. The original Siamese of the document furnished to Mr. Crawford, was maintained not to mean an engagement on the part of the Siamese Government, not to increase the existing duties, but

a prohibition only to its officers against committing exaction or extortion. It became, therefore, the first object of the Mission to ascertain the precise rate of this measurement duty, and the particulars of the fees and other charges included under the head of 'anchorage dues.' After some discussion, the P'hra K'hlang drew out himself, and delivered to the Envoy, the subjoined list of the port and anchorage duties levied upon the ship *Hunter*, which happened then to be at Bangkok. A more absurd attempt to give a colour to imposition was, perhaps, never made, than what this official account exhibits. The obvious remedy for these arbitrary and irregular imposts was to persuade the Siamese Ministers to establish, in lieu of all others, one simple impost, in the form of a duty upon tonnage or measurement; a mode of proceeding which is conformable with the established usage of the Indo-Chinese nations. The Siamese would put no faith in any European registers or papers of a ship denoting her tonnage, and it was but prudent not to propose too great innovations at once, but to let them continue their own system of measuring the breadth only of a vessel. Although a vessel's capacity to carry cargo does not depend entirely on her length or breadth, any trifling inequality which may arise in practice, from the adoption of this principle, will be, probably, more than compensated by the exemption from vexatious interference which it will secure, and, at all events, such an arrangement will enable British subjects to ascertain with some exactness what trade can be carried on advantageously with Siam. The plan involved, however, a considerable reduction of the existing duties, not only that it might become a benefit to our merchants, who complained of the exorbitance of the existing charges, but that it might afford some counterbalance against the probable mal-practices of the P'hra K'hlang's department, which would attempt to add, in some way or other, to the amount stipulated, however high might be the rate.

The following is a list of the amount of import and export duties, and other charges, actually paid by several vessels which have visited Bangkok, during the last four or five years:

	Ticals.
Brig <i>Phoenix</i> , of 232 tons, and 4 Siamese fathoms in breadth . . .	11,245
Schooner <i>Mariana</i> , 126 tons, 3½ ditto . . . ditto . . .	6,913
Brig <i>Shannon</i> , 200 tons, 3½ . . . ditto . . . ditto . . .	8,821
Ship <i>Caroline</i> , 450 tons, 4½ . . . ditto . . . ditto . . .	10,157
Ditto, ditto, second time	12,457
American brig <i>Siren</i> , 175 tons, 3½ ditto . . . ditto . . .	4,340
American Ship <i>Liverpool Packet</i> , 400 tons, 4½ . . . ditto . . .	11,164
Ship <i>Hunter</i> , 235 tons, 4 . . . ditto . . . ditto . . .	8,688

The loss on the presents made to the king and officers of Siam, is included in the account of charges of only the two first of the above-mentioned vessels. The American vessels, with the exception of a few fire arms, visited Bangkok in ballast. None of the ships imported or exported more than half a cargo. The duties upon complete cargoes would have nearly doubled the sums quoted above, as having been actually paid by those vessels.

In addition to the data furnished by the foregoing list the Mission ascertained, that the following amount of port charges and duties was actually paid by country ships in China in 1821:

Ships of 513 tons, Spanish dollars 9406 57, or ticals . . .	10,410
Ditto, 412 ditto, 4775 50, or ticals	7,785
Brig of 168 ditto, 3500, or ticals	5,688

The Mission proposed a consolidated duty of 1500 ticals for each Siamese fathom in breadth of a vessel; and, after much discussion with the P'hra K'hlang and other officers, the King of Siam was pleased to order the Ministers to accept this proposition with respect to vessels visiting Bangkok in ballast, and to fix 1700 ticals per fathom for those arriving with an import cargo. The present King, when Prince Krom Chet, had, we understand, expressed his approbation of this mode of making one charge for the vessel and her cargo, as practised in China.

The Mission found it necessary, however, to insist upon a clause being introduced into the treaty, engaging that 'no import, export, or other duty, shall be levied upon the buyers or sellers, from or to English subjects.'

The charge for pilotage in Siam is trifling, 24 ticals for a ship and 16 for a brig; and with respect to the practice of making presents to the Siamese officers, a practice which tended to conciliate them, but the observance of which was in some degree optional, the Mission found, that if the presents made by an English trader consisted of muskets, cloths, or other articles, the market prices of which were well known, he had a chance of receiving from the King and P'hra K'hlang a fair return for them; but if they consisted of watches, clocks, or expensive toys, a return of one quarter of their value only was made. The presents were generally referred to Phya Chula, and his son Radsithi, to be appraised, and this duty they performed so unfairly, as to induce the P'hra K'hlang himself often to double the price fixed by them. There was a convenience, however, in this system of presents, a convenience which our merchants may, perhaps, still enjoy at Bangkok. Whenever a European merchant possessed some commodity for which he could find no sale, and to re-export which might not be desirable, he tendered it as a present to the King, Wang-na, or P'hra K'hlang, from whom he was certain of receiving some return that would, at least, prevent him from suffering a total loss.

By entering into a calculation of the amount that vessels of the breadth cited in the above list will now have to pay, and comparing it with the several duties they before actually paid, it will be seen, that with one exception, the American brig *Siren*, (the loss on the presents made by the commander of which vessel, however, is not known), the new arrangement possesses the advantage not only of fixing and regulating, but of reducing, the rate of impost.

Phoenix . . .	paid 11,245, would now have to pay 6,800 at 1700 per fathom.
Mariana . . .	6,913 5,950 ditto.
Shannon, exclusive of presents, }	8,821 5,950 ditto.
Caroline, second time,	12,457 7,650 ditto.
Siren	4,340 5,250 at 1500 ditto.
Liverpool Packet	11,164 6,750 ditto.
Hunter	8,688 6,800 at 1700 ditto.

The greatest reduction, it appears, will take place in the large class of vessels, but against them another expense and disadvantage must be set down. The bar at the mouth of the Menam obliges them to communicate with Bangkok, for the most part, by means of junks, the usual hire of which is about 24 ticals per 100 peculs.

A List of the Port and Anchorage Duties levied at Bangkok, in April 1826, upon the Ship Hunter, Capt. Johnson, 235 Tons, translated from the Siamese.

	Ticals.	Selungs	Total of each.
Measurement duty at 80 Ticals per Siamese fathom, the Hunter measuring 4 fathoms in breadth	320	0	
For a pass for departure	522	0	
Ditto for admission (to the capital,)	512	0	
			1334 0

On account of his Majesty the King of Siam.

Chow Phya Kosa Thibody, (Phra Khlang) for the vessel's arrival and departure	36	0	
Phya Phiphut Kosa, (his deputy,) for ditto ditto	24	0	
Phya Chula, (his Majesty's merchant,) for passage, for admission, and departure	24	0	
Luang Sora Sa-Khon, (Port-Captain,) for ditto ditto	24	0	
Khun Radsithi, Phya Chula's son, & his Majesty's Mercantile Clerk.			
For passes, for admission and departure	12	0	
For superintending weighing	6	0	
For superintending sale and purchase	3	0	
	21	0	
Four Interpreters	21	0	
Luang Keo Ayat, (Pomat, a brother of the P'hra K'hleng.)			
For keeping the account	6	0	
For superintending sale and purchase	3	0	
	9	0	
Khan Wisoot Sa Khon, for superintending the Interpreters	12	0	
Clerk of the Seals, (Samian Tra,) for 5 notes, at 2 ticals, 2 selungs each	14	2	
Clerk Wen, for 11 notes, at ditto ditto	27	2	
Phya Chula's Clerk, for 11 notes, at ditto ditto	27	2	
Luang Sora Sa K'hon or Port-Captain's Clerk, for 11 notes, at ditto ditto	27	2	
Radsithi's Clerk, for 11 notes, at 1 tical 2 selungs each	16	2	
Four Interpreters	16	2	
Clerk of the Godowns, who sat and superintended the accounts	15	0	
Luang Sunowarat, (Radsithi's brother,) and Luang Kopitan, (Subastian an Interpreter)	18	0	
Superintending Clerk, 8 notes, at 3 ticals each	24	0	
Provisions supplied to all the Clerks, or Weighmen, 24 men, at 4 ticals each	96	0	

Carried over 1814 0

Brought over 1814 0

On account of the Officers of the Wang-na.

Clerk of the Seals, for 4 Notes, at 1 Tical 1 Selung each	5	0
Clerk Wen, for 5 notes, at 1 tical 1 selung each	6	1
Clerk Luang Kaluht, for 5 notes, at 1 tical 1 selung each	6	1
Prah Surah Phassa's or Beneditto Wangna's Port Captain's Clerk, at ditto	6	1
Clerk Khun Noochit, for 5 notes, at 3 selungs each	3	3
Interpreter Thon Khun Noochit	3	3
Clerk Khun Siaynt, who sat two accounts, at 1 tical each	2	0*
Clerk of the Godowns, who sat and superintended two accounts, at 2 ticals 2 selungs each	5	0
Provisions for the Clerks or Weighmen, 6 men, at 4 ticals each	24	0
		62 1

Total of the charges at Bangkok, ticals 1876 1

List of the established charges upon a Vessel at the Guard Houses below Bangkok.

PAKNAM.

On account of the Governor.

One shawl, or in money	80	0
Nine yards of Chintz, or ditto	12	0
Two pieces of red cotton cloth, or ditto	8	0
Wide sarongs to the value of	2	0
Narrow ditto, to the value of	1	1
		103 1

On account of the Officers.

Passes for admission and departure, at 12 ticals each	24	0
Eight pieces of chintz, or in money	8	0
Pilotage	24	0
Inspecting officers	3	0
Charge of the guns	6	0
		65 0

PAKLAAT.

Upon Arrival.

Measurement charge	8	0
Eight pieces of chintz, or in money	4	0

Upon Departure.

Measurement charge	4	0
Inspecting officers	2	0
For taking a copy of the port clearance received at Bangkok	0	2

Total of the charges below Bangkok, ticals 186 3

Grand total, ticals 2062 4

Only two clerks and one weighman actually attended, and their attendance was limited to three hours a day, and most irregular. They applied for remuneration and food to Mr. Hunter, declaring that no portion of the charges made by the P'hra K'hleng, on such account, was ever received by them. Upon inquiry, the P'hra K'hleng stated, that these charges had been levied for a century past; and that whether a man performed the service described, or received the amount charged on his account, is immaterial, as the ancient customs

of the country direct the charges to be set down in the manner detailed in this account. The mistake of charging for interpreters *twice* was ingeniously explained, namely, that the second charge was for the *clerks* belonging to the interpreters; but as the interpreters have no such assistants, the money would be given to themselves. Neither the King's nor the Wang-na's port captain is allowed a clerk, and Radsithi is Phya Chula's clerk. Mr. Hunter, to whom the ship *Hunter* was consigned, never saw, nor until he was shown this list, did he ever hear of any of the numerous 'notes' for which his vessel is charged. The P'hra K'hlang explained that every intelligence notifying the arrival or departure of a vessel, and every order respecting her cargo, is put down in writing, for the information of the different Siamese officers by their clerks, who are authorized to charge for the receipt, as well as the transmission of a note. As no portion of the cargo of the *Hunter* was sold to or purchased from the P'hra K'hlang, the 'Clerks of the Godowns' were not employed, yet they are included in this list for superintending accounts which never existed. Great trouble is always given to the foreign merchant at Bangkok, by the P'hra K'hlang's clerks and weighmen, who seldom attend before twelve o'clock, and retire always before five. Without their joint presence, a vessel cannot receive her cargo, and a foreign merchant has daily the trouble of going himself in search of one of the two, and is often at a stand through the absence of both parties. Mr. Hunter was refused a detailed list, like the above, of the port and anchorage charges of the *Hunter*, but was obliged to pay at once an amount of 1876 ticals at Bangkok, and only 65 ticals at Paknam. Upon its being pointed out to the P'hra K'hlang that these sums were not in accordance with his list, which was subsequently given to the Mission, he stated that the difference had been remitted in favour of Mr. Hunter.

The Siamese Government have no idea of what is called 'a free and unrestricted trade,' and an article of a treaty with these words only, and without arranging and fixing the minutest details of port regulations and rates of duties and charges would have been a dead letter. The ministers also were so immediately interested in their system of conducting foreign trade, that any argument, as to a less restricted trade, proving a mutual benefit to both nations, would have been entirely lost upon them.

The Mission had great difficulty before it persuaded the Siamese ministers to include Surat merchants, and the Asiatic subjects of the British Government, in the benefits conceded to commerce by the treaty. Nothing can be more iniquitous than the conduct of the Siamese towards the Surat vessels. The P'hra K'hlang and his officers fix the price of every article of merchandize brought by those vessels, and take and distribute among themselves whatever portion of the cargo they please for the purpose of retailing the

same afterwards at a profit to themselves, in addition to the usual port charges and import and export duties.

The trade of native junks between Siam, and Penang, and Singapore, is conducted by private Chinese merchants of Bangkok, and it is one to which the Court of Siam is as yet indifferent, as a proof of which we may state, that during the whole of the negotiations of the late mission, no attempt was ever made to obtain any reciprocal advantage for that trade, or to secure a pledge even, that the present very moderate duties and anchorage charges levied upon it at our ports, should be continued. This indifference, however, on the part of the Court of Siam, an indifference under which the trade has increased and prospered, has begun to change, and during the last two years, many new duties have been imposed upon the Chinese junks trading between Bangkok and the Straits of Malacca. So much have these additional duties been increasing, that the Chinese traders, before the departure of the mission from Bangkok, petitioned the Court to place their commerce upon a fixed and more moderate system of duties, 'in the same *advantageous* manner as the English had secured by treaty.' There is, however, no security for the continuance of the trade with Siam by native junks, and, at any rate, it must not be forgotten, that whilst our ships can navigate at all seasons, those vessels make but one voyage during the year. Messrs. Hunter and Mallock, from whom the mission received, on every occasion, the most liberal and cordial assistance and co-operation, are decidedly of opinion, that much benefit may be derived from the trade of Siam, by making occasional visits to Bangkok; and that such a course is advantageous, no proof can be more striking than that afforded by the Surat traders, who, notwithstanding all the exactions and vexations of the present system, still send a vessel annually to Siam. The mission witnessed the distress and extortion experienced by the Nakhoda of a Surat vessel, in December 1825, and was much surprised, indeed, to find him go again last year, to pass through the same sufferings. Merchants will, of course, judge for themselves, as to the best mode of trading with Siam, and the provisions of the present treaty will, at least, supply them with better *data* than they have hitherto possessed, for estimating the probable amount of imposts to be levied at Bangkok upon their consignments. That this treaty will at once change a system which has existed for centuries, no one can presume to hope. Most probably, whenever the European merchant interferes with the speculations of the P'hra K'hlang and his officers, who are unhappily all traders, their influence will still be secretly and powerfully employed against him. But, as the present treaty was negotiated on terms of equality, by the representatives of the two nations; as it was not dictated by the Siamese; as it was discussed and originally written in their own tongue; and, above all, as it is the manifest interest and advantage of Siam to keep it, there are many

grounds for hoping that its provisions will be generally respected and maintained by that nation. We need hardly state, that the stipulations of this treaty are not to be enforced at Bangkok until the Siamese Court receive the Governor-General's ratification.

Whilst discussing the several articles of the treaty, repeated attempts were made to inscribe the different obligations in a more compressed form; to declare at once that 'neither the Siamese nor the English shall intrude,' &c. &c. But the Siamese ministers objected decidedly to such a construction of the sentences, stating, that it would be contrary to the Siamese customs, and that it could not possibly render the meaning of each article so clear and precise as it would be by putting down separately what each party engaged. It was also indispensable that the version of the treaty into the English language should be made as literal as possible, because it was well known that the translation would undergo much examination at Bangkok, and any omission or reduction of the sentences in the original, which is a language verbose and full of repetitions, would have been imputed by that jealous court to some evil intention that would have tended to destroy the whole value of the treaty. Some of the Mission had acquired a tolerable knowledge of the Siamese language, and had procured dictionaries and grammars of it from those Native Christians who understand Latin.—*Government Gazette.*

FORGET THEE.—BY THE REVEREND JONH MOULTRIE.

[From the 'Friendship's Offering.']

FORGET THEE—If to dream by night and muse on thee by day,
If all the worship deep and wild a poet's heart can pay,
If prayers in absence breathed for thee to heaven's protecting power,
If winged thoughts that flit to thee, a thousand in an hour,
If busy fancy blending thee with all my future lot,
If this thou callest forgetting—thou indeed shalt be forgot.

Forget thee?—Bid the forest birds forget their sweetest tune,
Forget thee?—Bid the sea forget to swell beneath the moon,
Bid the thirsty flowers forget to drink the eve's refreshing dew,
Thyself forget thine own dear land and its mountains wild and blue,
Forget each old familiar face, each long remembered spot;
When these things are forgot by thee—then thou shalt be forgot.

Keep as thou wilt thy maiden peace, still calm and fancy free,
For, God forbid thy gladsome heart should grow less glad for me;
Yet while that heart is still unwon, oh bid not mine to rove,
But let it muse its humble fate and uncomplaining love;
If these preserved for patient years at last avail me not,
Forget me then—but ne'er believe that thou can'st be forgot.

DOCTRINE OF SUMMARY COMMITMENT FOR CONSTRUCTIVE CONTEMPTS OF PARLIAMENT, AND OF COURTS OF JUSTICE.

No. II.

IN 1751 there were long debates on a paper, entitled 'Twelve Constitutional Queries earnestly recommended to the attention of every true Briton, turning chiefly on the interposition of a military force, in the suppression and punishment of civil disturbances.' Ordered to be burnt by the hangman, and the king addressed to take means to discover the author, printers, and publishers. These formidable queries were at the time ascribed to Lord Egmont, but were really written by Horace Walpole.*

In the same year occurred the case of the Honourable Alexander Murray, one of the most remarkable illustrations of the nature of a trial, not by twelve indifferent men, but by three or four hundred irritated accusers. Having been supposed to be guilty of some misconduct, at a contested election for Westminster, he was summoned to the bar to receive his sentence. The following is from 'Lord Orford's Memoirs of the last ten years of the Reign of George II.' vol. i. pp. 23, 43, 174, 181.

'It being carried by 163 to 40 that he should be brought on his knees, he was called in; he entered with an air of confidence, something between a martyr and a coxcomb. The Speaker called out, "Your obeisances! Sir, your obeisances," and then, "Sir, you must kneel." He replied, "Sir, I beg to be excused, I never kneel but to God." The Speaker repeated the command with great warmth. Murray replied, "Sir, I am sorry I cannot comply with your request, I would in any thing else." The Speaker cried, "Sir, I call upon you again, to consider of it." Murray answered, "Sir, when I have committed a crime, I kneel to God for pardon; but I know my own innocence and cannot kneel to any body else." The Speaker ordered the serjeant to take him away and secure him. He was going to reply; the Speaker would not suffer him. The Speaker then made a representation to the House of his contemptuous behaviour, and said, "However you may have differed in the debate, I hope you will be unanimous in his punishment! Pray consider on it, if he may with impunity behave thus there is an end of the dignity and power of this House." Mr. Fox went so far as to mention a place of confinement in the Tower, called "Little Ease;" but Mr. Pelham declined against such severe corporal punishment. Mr. Pitt hinted at a bill to be passed against him, if he would not comply. Admiral Vernon made such an outrageous speech against these proceedings, that he desiring to have Magna Charta referred to the Committee, that he was several times taken to order by the Speaker, Sir John Mordaunt,

* See 'Quarterly Review.'

and Mr. Pelham, and was on the brink of falling under the sentence of the house." "Mr. Pelham spoke much for moderate proceedings, (i. e. after the report of a Committee appointed to search for precedents had been read,) more moderate, indeed, it would have been difficult to pursue, after the length themselves and Murray had gone; but they who wanted to extort a submission from him for offences which he had not acknowledged, and were ready to release him after an outrage which he gloried in, and had no ways atoned."

'Sir W. Younge then moved to restrain every body but the physician, apothecary, and nurse, from visiting him, which, being opposed, particularly by Lord Egmont, who reflected on the want of precedents, the Speaker made a *warm and solemn speech for the honour of the House*, instanced in the Earl of Shaftesbury and others, who had knelt to receive the reprimand of the House of Lords, and said that the want of a precedent of such behaviour as Murray's, did but conclude more strongly against him.'

'The instant the Parliament was prorogued, the two Sheriffs of London, I forget their names, accompanied by Lord Carpenter and Sir G. Vandeput, went to Newgate, released Murray, and conducted him in paltry triumph to his own house. On the 28th, his case, scurrilously written by one Whitehead, a factious poet, was published, for which the printer was taken into custody. This Paul Whitehead was ordered to be taken into custody by the House of Lords for his satire, entitled "Manners." He also wrote "State Dunces," and according to Lord Orford, "was a man of most infamous character."'

November 18.—The House voted for remanding Murray to his imprisonment. Lord Egmont said, that to revive the sentence, which must be done every session, would be inflicting banishment, as Murray would prefer that to imprisonment,—a power which did not belong even to the Crown. Lord Coke then moved, 'that Murray should receive his sentence on his knees;' and his 'case' was unanimously voted a false, scandalous, and seditious libel. He would not move a censure on the sheriffs. Alderman Jansen said, 'that to have touched them would have raised a tumult.' November 25.—Lord Coke moved to call the Serjeant-at-arms, who reported that Murray was absconded. A reward of 500*l.* was voted, on a division of 98 to 26.

In pursuance of the order of the House, an information *ex officio* was filed by the Attorney-General, against William Owen, for printing the 'case' above-mentioned. On the trial, the Attorney-General said: 'What! shall a person appeal from the judgment of that Court, who are the only judges of things belonging to them, the House of Commons, I mean? An appeal? To whom? To a mob? Must justice be appealed from? To whom? To injustice? Appeal to the good people of England, particularly the inhabitants of Westminster? The House of Commons are the good people of

England, being the representatives of the people. The rest are what? Nothing: unless it be a mob. And what can be in a mob but confusion? Gentlemen, this libel, to whosoever reads it, will be found the most pungent invective which the skill of man could invent: I will not say the skill; but the wit, art, and false contrivance of man, instigated by Satan: an indirect pamphlet,—though not said plain—yet understood, as being understood, is a libel; and to say that this is not a libel, is to say that there is no justice, equity, or right in the world. There can be no court of justice, if the House of Commons is not; and if the House of Commons is not to be defended, and have protection and relief at common law, yourselves, your houses, cannot have the protection of the law.'—Verdict, NOT GUILTY.

In 1768 occurred the case of Bingley, a bookseller, who suffered two years imprisonment, for a constructive contempt of the Court of King's Bench, in refusing to answer interrogatories respecting his having sold the 'North Briton,' Numbers 50 and 51, which contained attacks on the conduct of Lord Mansfield. The case is stated so concisely by Mr. Clifford, in his postscript to the 'Report of the case of Benjamin Flower,' that we shall extract his statement. 'In Trinity Term, 1768, Bingley was called upon to show cause, why an attachment should not issue against him, for his contempts in publishing these libels. When he appeared in obedience to these rules, he denied the authority of the Court to punish him in this summary way; he asserted his right to be tried by a jury of his equals, and refused to answer interrogatories. He was committed to the custody of the Marshal, until he should find sufficient bail to answer interrogatories, or should submit to be sworn to answer them. The spirit of Bingley, however, did not desert him in his confinement; he kept attention alive to the hardships of his situation, by his firmness, by frequent appeals to the country and to individuals, and by an affidavit not to answer interrogatories, unless put to the torture. His sufferings, which at first had only excited the compassion, by their continuance roused the indignation of the public. Petitions in his behalf poured in, on all sides, from the principal corporations and cities in the kingdom.* At length, in Easter Term, 1770, after nearly two years imprisonment, but without any application being made on his part, a rule for his discharge was unexpectedly moved for by the Attorney-General, and as unexpectedly granted by the Court. The Attorney-General stated, as the ground of his application, that Mr. Bingley was an obstinate man, who, on that account, had suffered two years imprisonment, which, he believed, was longer than the Court would have confined him, even if he had answered interrogatories, and been found guilty. In other words, he moved that he might be discharged from the

* London, Bristol, Southwark, &c, &c.

punishment of his contempt, because he obstinately persisted in it. Lord Mansfield and the Court immediately acquiesced in this curious reasoning, and Bingley was discharged.* The fact is, the Court felt, though they had not the courage to avow it, that they had been guilty of an excess of jurisdiction; and they thought it more prudent to yield to the firmness of Bingley, and the feelings of the country, than to encounter the terrors of a Parliamentary inquiry, which they knew was on the point of being instituted, and would have been the inevitable consequence of their continuing him in custody.

In 1774, (February 11,) the Speaker, Sir Fletcher Norton, complained to the House of a letter which had been addressed to him in the 'Public Advertiser' of that day, signed, 'STRIKE—BUT HEAR,' charging him with injustice, and with a predilection for Mr. de Grey in the progress of the Tottington Inclosure Bill. Mr. Herbert moved that H. S. Woodfall, the printer of the 'Public Advertiser,' do attend that House. Sir Joseph Mawbey wished the House to abstain from noticing the libel. Mr. Fox was eager in support of the motion. 'It would be an absurdity to appeal to an inferior court for protection.' 'The House was now warm in the matter, and now, therefore, was the properest time to discuss, and go through with it.' Mr. Woodfall attended on the 14th, and informed the House that the Rev. John Horne was the author of the obnoxious paper. Mr. Herbert moved that Mr. Woodfall might be taken into custody of the Sergeant-at-Arms. Mr. Fox moved that he be committed to Newgate, 'although hints had been thrown out that the Sheriffs of London would not admit him.' Lord North thought it would be highly imprudent to force themselves into a contest with the City, and would, therefore, have him committed to the Gatehouse. Mr. Herbert's motion being carried, Mr. Woodfall was taken into the custody of the Sergeant-at-Arms, and the Rev. John Horne was ordered to attend the House on the 16th. He desired to know whether what Mr. Woodfall had said at the bar was the only evidence and charge against him. The Speaker said, it was the charge. Mr. Horne then said, it was very droll, for he had a charge against him. He concluded with saying, that he should plead there, as in every other court of justice, Not Guilty. *The House was embarrassed.* Mr. Woodfall was again called in, and confronted with Mr. Horne; but as he was implicated in the guilt of the publication, his testimony was not deemed admissible, and three of his journeymen

* "The courtly Sir James Burrow, has thought proper to omit in his reports any mention of this case of Bingley; but it ought never to be forgotten by those who reverence with filial affection our ancient laws, the best legacy of our fathers, and who set a value on the Constitutional rights and liberties of the people. The whole of the proceedings may be found in a small pamphlet, published in 1772, intitled 'The case of William Bingley, bookseller.'—*Clifford.*

were ordered to attend. They attended accordingly on the 18th, and were examined; but their evidence not going to fix the libel on Mr. Horne, Mr. Herbert apologized for the trouble he had given the House, and added, that as the evidence had not proved Mr. Horne the author of the libel, to evince his impartiality, he should move, That he be discharged out of the custody of the Sergeant-at-Arms. On the 2d of March, Captain Phipps having presented a petition from Mr. Woodfall, he was brought to the bar and discharged.

On the same day that the House was so dexterously foiled by Mr. Horne, (February 16,) Mr. Fox denounced a most contemptible Jacobitical letter in the 'Public Advertiser' and 'Morning Chronicle,' signed, 'A SOUTH BRITON.' He said, 'Sir, I esteem it one of the highest and most atrocious calumnies; one of the vilest libels on the constitution of this country that ever was published. It is not an abuse of this person, or of that person, but of the Constitution of this kingdom: it is a libel upon the glorious Revolution in 1688, and terms it expressly a rebellion against King James. Sir, I am so much an enemy to all libels—to all licentiousness of the press, though a friend to the legal liberty of it—that I am induced to bring libels of all denominations on the carpet. I am expressly for putting a stop, and an effectual one, to so scandalous a practice: and this which I hold in my hand is of so abominable a nature, that I am confident there is not a gentleman in the House who will disagree with me on this occasion.' It was ordered that Mr. Attorney-General do forthwith prosecute the author, printers, and publishers, of the said false, scandalous, and traitorous libel.*

In giving judgments of reversal of the outlawry of Mr. Wilkes, June 8, 1768, Lord Mansfield said, 'I pass over many anonymous letters I have received. Those in print are public: and some of them have been brought judicially before the Court. Whoever the writers are, they take the wrong way. I will do my duty unawed. What am I to fear? The lies of calumny carry no terror to me. I trust that my temper of mind, and the colour and conduct of my life have given me a suit of armour against these arrows.' The lies of calumny do indeed carry no terror with them, provided restraints on the press do not give them a semblance of truth, and taint with suspicion all the replies that can be made to

* The trial of Mr. William Woodfall, for printing the said libel in the 'Morning Chronicle,' came on in the Court of King's Bench on the 11th of July following, before Lord Mansfield and a special Jury. The trial lasted about an hour; when the Jury went out, and, after staying five hours, brought in their verdict,—Guilty. Immediately after came on the trial of Mr. H. S. Woodfall for printing the said letter in the 'Public Advertiser,' which lasted half an hour; when the Jury went out, returned in half an hour, and brought in their verdict,—Guilty. They were afterwards sentenced to pay each a fine of 200 marks, and suffer three months' imprisonment in the King's Bench.

them; but since Lord Mansfield considered calumny as so harmless a thing, why was the language of all his charges to juries, and judgments on defendants, in cases of libel, so much at variance with such a sentiment? How could he reconcile it with his declaration (in the case of the Dean of St. Asaph) that 'the licentiousness of the press (*i. e.* the lies of calumny) is Pandora's box, the source of every evil.'

In 1788, (February 7th) Sir Elijah Impey complained to the House of having been attacked in some daily prints of that and the preceding day, respecting the answer he had given to the first charge. Mr. W. Grenville moved, 'that the said papers contain a scandalous libel, grossly reflecting on this House, and the members thereof, and tending to prejudice the defence of a person answering at the bar to articles of high crimes and misdemeanours against him by a member of this House. Should this preliminary motion be agreed to, Mr. Grenville said he would move to address his Majesty, that he would give orders to the Attorney-General to prosecute the authors, printers, and publishers of the papers complained of. Mr. Fox urged the necessity, in a case so peculiarly their own, to keep it within their own jurisdiction; and reminded the House, that when once they committed the prosecution to the law courts, they had no further command of it, and however inclined they might be to show lenity, they would not have it in their power. He asked if any person could tell him that a breach of the privileges of that House could be made a count in any information or indictment? He declared, he believed that it could not, and contended against the absurdity of punishing the contempt of one court in another court, and of adopting that mode of prosecuting a complaint which was of all modes the least adapted to the nature of it. The House would be left without redress, should the sentence inflicted be too light and inadequate; and they would be equally deprived of the power of pardon, supposing that sentence too severe.' The motions of Mr. W. Grenville were agreed to.

June 18, 1789, the Attorney-General was questioned by Mr. Grey, and answered at some length, and, in conclusion, expressed his wish, that gentlemen would not hastily, and on the spur of indignation, rise and move a prosecution, but would suppress their resentment, and consider well the whole of the probable consequences which might attend a prosecution, before they moved it.

A few days afterwards, (February 14,) on the motion of Mr. Fox, the House resolved, 'that a pamphlet written by the Rev. John Logan, entitled "A Review of the Principal Charges against Warren Hastings, Esq.," contains passages highly disrespectful to this House, and indecent observations, reflecting upon the motives which induced this House to prefer the impeachment against Warren Hastings, Esq., and addressed the King, that he would order the Attorney-General to prosecute the authors, printers, &c.'

• On the 9th of December, 1789, the trial of Mr. Stockdale for the said libel, came on in the Court of King's Bench, before Lord Kenyon, on which occasion Mr. Erskine delivered a well-known, powerful, and splendid address to the jury, who, after two hours deliberation, returned a verdict of *Not Guilty*. The House were thus left without redress!!

In 1789 (June 16th), Mr. Marsham moved an address to his Majesty that he would direct the Attorney-General to prosecute the printer* and publisher of 'The World,' for the following passage which had appeared in it that morning: 'Mr Hastings's trial is to be put off to another session, unless the Lords have spirit enough to put an end to so shameful a business.' Mr Burke said, 'It was, in his opinion, better upon the whole that the public should receive no information at all than information which was false. He hoped, therefore, the honourable gentleman would take up the whole body of misrepresentation to which he had alluded, and bring ALL the libels touching the trial before a court of justice.' 'He had been backward in taking any notice of these irregularities, because, as far as regarded himself, he had been long used to them, and despised them, being satisfied that such personal attacks as from time to time had been made on the managers, injured no person's character when made singly; but when joined to a gross falsification of facts, they became more serious, and necessarily called for proper reprehension.'

Perhaps the explanation of this paradox, that men may be seriously affected collectively by attacks which cannot injure them individually, is, that a man's neighbours regard the attacks made on him with considerable indifference and impartiality, but that when a whole party are stung, when each man acts, not from the impulse of languid sympathy, but of direct personal resentment, and only a vote is required to punish the offender, then the matter 'becomes more serious, and necessarily calls for proper reprehension.'

June 18th, Mr. Grey having asked the Attorney-General why he had not prosecuted Mr. Stockdale, as voted by the House, February 14, 1788, gave occasion to a further developement of Mr. Burke's sentiments as to constructive contempts. He said, 'The House was bound to defend its solemn acts, and to guard them from ridicule and slander; but had he been consulted in regard to the prosecution in the case of Sir Elijah Impey, he would not have recommended a resort to any other tribunal than that House, which he should at all times contend was perfectly competent to support its privileges by an exertion of its own authority.' In all cases, unless of a very exaggerated nature, the safest mode of proceeding was to resort to their ancient and wholesome practice of attachment, where their own privileges were infringed or insulted.'

* He was convicted in May, 1790.

The House was in possession of his opinion on the subject, and had heard him declare, that, provoking and audacious, as that libel was (in 'The World' of June 16), it was nothing in comparison to the many and repeated false accounts which were daily given in the same paper concerning what passed in Westminster Hall.

Thus Mr. Burke thought, they should 'resort for protection to an inferior Court,' only in aggravated cases, when they might expect a verdict against the defendant, and the infliction of a severer punishment than the superior Court could award; but that, in lighter cases, they should make sure of their man, by being themselves prosecutors, jury, and judge. Let us contrast what Mr. Burke said of this 'ancient and wholesome practice,' twenty years before, when the Ministerial party were the objects of attack, with what he said when the Opposition were the theme of libellers. In 1770, he said: 'But if the habit prevails of going beyond the law, and superseding this judicature, of carrying offences, real or supposed, into the legislative bodies, who shall establish themselves into courts of criminal equity, (so the Star Chamber has been called by Lord Bacon), all the evils of the Star Chamber are revived. A large and liberal construction in ascertaining offences, and a discretionary power in punishing them, is the idea of criminal equity,—which is, in truth, a monster in jurisprudence.' And February 7, 1771, he said: 'The House of Commons, as it is the most powerful, is the most corruptible part of the whole Constitution. Our public wounds cannot be concealed,—to be cured they must be laid open. The public does think we are a corrupt body. In our legislative capacity we are, in most instances, esteemed a very wise body. In our judicial, we have no credit, no character at all. Our judgments stink in the nostrils of the people. They think us to be not only without virtue, but without shame. Therefore the greatness of our power, and the great and just opinion of our corruptibility and corruption, render it necessary to fix some bound, to plant some land mark, which we are never to exceed.'

As exercised by the Ministry in support of their own violence, criminal equity was a monster in jurisprudence; but used in defence of himself, and the other managers of an impeachment, it is an ancient, and wholesome, and safe practice. It is to be observed, however, that neither of the above passages contains an unqualified declaration against the exercise of a criminal jurisdiction by the House of Commons, though the first of them is often quoted as if it did. It is only to the too frequent 'habit' of permitting the 'monster' to aggravate his voice, and employ his fangs, that he objects.

REMARKABLE CAVERN IN SYLHET.

WE have been favoured with the following extract of a letter, giving an account of a remarkable cave, which has been lately visited by Captain Fisher, Surveyor in Sylhet, and on the accuracy of which we may therefore depend. We believe, it is the cavern of which a description, in French, containing more fiction than fact, was published some years ago.

The cavern of Booban is situated in one of the lower ranges of the Cossya Mountains, at the distance of about three hours' walk, in a north east direction from the Bazaar of Pundua, and at an elevation, probably of six hundred feet above the adjacent plains. The access to it, is by no means difficult, though the passage of three hills, which occur in the last hour's journey towards it, is fatiguing, as the ascents though short, are singularly steep, one of them actually subtending an angle of 46°. These hills are composed of sand stone, but their bases are strewn with fragments of various rocks, chiefly granite and lime stone, apparently the debris from the higher regions of the mountain chain. The mouth of the cavern, which is found in the face of a lime stone mountain, is not in itself remarkable, neither do any external circumstances indicate the existence of the vast hollows, to which it affords access. The aperture is small, its dimensions precluding the intrusion of more than one person at a time, and the entrance is completed by a scrambling descent of about thirty feet over, and masses of rock to a comparatively level space, which, however, is involved in total darkness. By the aid of lighted torches, it may be here seen, that the cavern has already expanded considerably, and that its sides are covered with numerous stalactites, crystals, and petrifications, all, however, of the lime stone family, of which rock alone the cavern is entirely formed. The passage here, is about twelve to fifteen feet in width, and the height varies from about twenty to forty feet, estimated from the base to the highest part of the naturally arched roof. In advancing, this latter dimension of the cavern is found to vary greatly sometimes increasing to seventy or eighty feet, and at others diminishing to ten or twelve. The breadth, however, continues nearly uniform. These remarks apply solely to the branch, which appears to have been always followed by the few Europeans, who have visited the cavern, and which has been explored from the entrance to the distance of about a mile, where a steep and wide cavity fills up the whole breadth of the passage, and presents an obstacle to further ingress, which, owing either to want of time or proper conveniences, no one has yet surmounted. The general direction of this branch is north east, a course from which may be inferred the probable existence of a debouche in the opposite face of the mountain,—an inference which is strengthened by the fact, that a current of air is sensibly felt in most parts of the cavern. Perhaps the most remarkable appearances which offer themselves to notice, in an examination, however cursory, of this

curious phenomenon, are the numerous fissures or openings, which occur at various altitudes in the sides, and which seem to form the entrances of new branches or ramifications, by which the mountain should appear to be perforated in every direction.

With the few and imperfect observations, which we at present possess, conjecture as to the mode in which these caverns have been formed, is altogether vain, yet, though the philosopher demand facts, as the basis of theory, more speculative dispositions have readily formed hypotheses, by which to account for the appearances. By some of these, the agency of water is supposed to have effected the fissures, while others attribute them to a convulsion of nature, which has hurled two mountains together. The latter opinion is not, perhaps, ill founded, particularly if we suppose that the mountain was detached from the higher regions of the chain, a conjecture which should seem to derive countenance from the steepness of the parts opposite to it, and the crumbling condition of the perforated mass, which, under this supposition, in fact, resembles a vast pile of rocks overgrown with wood and jungle. It must be confessed, however, that the want of accurate and detailed examination of the whole mountain and its neighbourhood, renders any speculation on this subject necessarily extremely vague and unsatisfactory.—*Government Gazette.*

MY FAR-OFF HOME.

(Written at Sea.)

My far-off home! my home of love,
Each passing hour to thee I fly,
I rarely raise my eyes above,
But prayer is pleading in my eye.
If smiles the morn—if stars look bright
In heaven's clear splendid dome,
I sigh half sad in that pure light,
And ask if all be bright at home.
Some thought, some hope, to thee all true,
Upon my heart is ever waking,
While thousand fears what time may do,
Still keep its restless pulses aching.
If seas run smooth, and all aloft
Looks fair, as o'er the waves we roam,
I fondly trust an air as soft
Is breathing health around my home.
Does aught provoke a laugh or smile,
As fancy calls some thought away—
Oh! even then I pause awhile,
To ask if all at home be gay.
But oh! when sad and lone I lean
In musings o'er the gliding sea,
I ask, if looks as sad are seen
In eyes that weep warm tears for me?

TRAVELS IN ITALY IN 1823 AND 1824.

[Continued from the last Number of the 'Oriental Herald,' p. 281.]

I ONE morning breakfasted with several Milanese of talent and wit, by one of whom I was afterwards conducted to the house of the painter Carlone, to see a painting ordered by the Count Sommariva. This piece represents one of the fêtes of Sparta, in which the young lads and lasses might make their choice without fear of being deceived; and among the women exhibited, adorned only with the charms nature had bestowed on them, are introduced, I was told, the figures, taken from the life, of many Milanese ladies. While we were examining this singular composition, our looks were also turned occasionally towards a lady who was present, and who seemed to be waiting to have her portrait continued. One of our party was acquainted with her, and, after having paid the Signor Carlone the ordinary compliments, we entered into conversation with La Signora Contessa, for the unknown was a Countess. Suddenly, and with an easy and natural air, she took up a miniature case lying shut on the table. 'I wish to see,' she said, 'if you will know who this is:' and opening the case herself, she presented us her portrait, in a dress and in an attitude which I must not describe. Not the least discomposure in her countenance—not the slightest blush, as every body enlarged on such an accumulation of charms. 'It is some years,' she added, 'since this was done, and perhaps in that time I am somewhat changed. To circumstances of this nature Italian ladies in general attach little importance, and all the world knows the anecdote of the august Princess, who sat as a model to Canova. 'It must have been distressing to you,' said one of her friends. 'Distressing—not at all my dear; there was a good fire in the stove!'

Our traveller quitted Milan on the 8th of October, and, after visiting on his route Bergamo and Brescia, he arrived on the 10th at Desenzano, on the Lake of Garda. From that place he wrote as follows:

'We had promised ourselves a treat this morning, thinking to enjoy from the windows of our inn the view of the whole lake of Garda, and thence to look upon the charming peninsula of *Sirmio*, where Catullus passed his joyous hours with his faithful friends and fickle mistresses; but all this appeared to us only through a dense veil of rain and vapour, and we were reduced to ecstasie on trust. On trust also had we to admire the celebrated fortress of *Peschiera*, where, for the twentieth time, perhaps, since we were let out of the gates of Milan, we had to endure the plague of the gendarmes. There is nothing like a tour in Lombardy for proving the physical constitution of a passport, and that of mine already sadly shaken, sunk under the trial that awaited it on entering *Verona*. There two dozen of hands, at least, turned it from side to side, from corner to corner, and half a dozen signatures were added to those which already covered it

After its Congress the most remarkable thing in Verona is its amphitheatre, and having seen the site of the former, to the latter every traveller pays his second visit. How many affecting homilies and eloquent rhapsodies have its gladiatorial combats inspired! On the other hand how many lofty phrases on its massive construction, *'the aspect of which crushes us under the weight of our own insignificance, and forces our astonished minds to take refuge within itself.'* As there is not an Itinerary in which these descriptions, ready cut and dried, are not to be found, I also might give reins to my imagination, and transport myself, in idea, among these sanguinary sports, behold the seats rising one above the other, covered with an eager and tumultuous crowd, and even distinguish the magistrates, warriors, and Roman dames. Nothing more easy for me than to hear their shouts of joy, and their ferocious plaudits. On that sand, in short, robust and valorous men would appear to me contending with the panther and the tiger, to make me shudder first, and then pen some common-places of philanthropic morality. The English, who delight in their pugilistic combats, are never at a loss for such tirades. But I, who without delighting in either the one or the other, am aware of the force of habit among a people, content myself with admiring the beauty of the edifice. Smaller than that of Nîmes, the amphitheatre of Verona has over the former a very great advantage, which is that of its better preservation, and that it presents to view five and forty ranges of seats, as they existed seventeen centuries ago. The flights of steps and the vomitories, the dens for the wild beasts, and even remains of a vast gallery which crowned the edifice, all still exist, all combine to complete the illusion. One would think that no longer ago than twenty years from twenty-five to thirty thousand Veronese were still in the habit of assembling in it. In 1821 the Allied Sovereigns were present at a grand fete given in the amphitheatre. Catalani sung and the people squeezed.*

To enjoy thoroughly a tour in Italy we ought to be able to sojourn several days in every town, for all contain curiosities without number, and to lionise by the hour to me appears torment. We start from our hotel in the morning all zeal and ardour. At first, nothing escapes our observation; nothing presents itself which does not excite our interest, and from which we do not derive a pleasure; but soon both the body and mind become fatigued. Under the guidance of a boring Ciccone we drag along with pain from church to church, from gallery to gallery. 'Other fine things' we exclaim on casting a look almost sad, on statues and paintings incessantly presenting themselves. Thus we return to our temporary abode, our heads full of what we saw during the first two hours, while all the rest is

* Our traveller might have added also, Rossini composed, since that master wrote a piece expressly for the occasion, which, if we mistake not, acquired for him the honour of knighthood.—Ed.

forgotten. Such are the sensations which I have felt in Verona. Of all the churches, the most curious certainly is that of Saint Zenone built by Pepin the son of Charlemagne, and which is stamped with all the characters of that rude and grand age. I was there particularly struck by a strange statue of Saint Zenone. Nothing can surpass the jovial expression of his face: it is a compound of Momus and Silenus, and must more than once have seemed to mock the serious visages of both priests and votaries. The Palace Carrossa is also well worthy of being visited. It contains a vast collection of petrified fish brought from the mountain of Bolca. The fish of China are there intermingled with those of America, and every zone, in short, appears to have brought its tribute. But that I had read M. Cuvier, this would have been an inexplicable enigma.

The country of Vespasian, of Titus, of Cornelius Nepos, of Catullus, of Pliny the elder, of Vitruvius, of Maffei, Verona contains at this day 50,000 inhabitants. The town is built irregularly, according to the cautionary usage of the times when every street had to form a line of defence. Of all the tyrants who desolated the city in those ages, Ezzelino, I believe, was the most cruel; while the illustrious house of La Scala redeemed its despotism by some high qualities. The tombs of three of these are still existing to attest their power. They are Gothic, in all the richness and grotesque of the style, with their pinnacles, their fretwork, and their niches filled up with statues. A singular age must that have been when such a number of cities, close on one another, formed as many petty states, ever divided by war, in a constant state of revolution, and yet rich enough to build monuments, to raise palaces, and to produce the revival of the arts. Compare with this the state of France at the same epoch! For the rest, at this day, the condition of Verona is scarcely more settled than formerly. For a long time, of the two parts into which the Adige divides her, the Austrians held the one, the French the other. Soon after, the whole belonged to us; subsequently, she formed part of the kingdom of Italy, and, in 1814, she fell into the hands of the Germans; so that in the space of thirty years her inhabitants will have been successively Venetians, French, Austrians, Italians, and again Austrians. Where can they have learned patriotism?

Marble is as common at Verona as stone is in France. It is not only used for the houses, but in many parts for the foot-pavement of the streets. On returning to our hotel, we perceived, stretched on one of these pavements, a young girl covered with rags, with a piece of charcoal in her hand, with which she was intently occupied in drawing a female head on the white slab. Absorbed in her work, nothing could divert her attention; her eye followed with incredible solicitude the lines which her hand traced, and although in order not to efface it by his footstep some passer-by was at every moment obliged to turn from the pavement, she continued as calm and abstracted as the Baron Gerard in his painting-room. She

is well known, we were told, and several painters, conceiving great hopes from her talent, had taken her to their studies to give her lessons. But that sort of life never suited her, and, after submitting to it for a few days, she always returned to draw and beg in the streets. Sterre would have made something of this little Italian.

At Vicenza we arrived at the fourth city since leaving Milan, and of these no two offered the slightest similarity of character. At Bergamo we admired the singular and wild scenery in which it was placed, at Brescia the fine picture galleries and magnificent palaces; at Verona the representative of antiquity, in the amphitheatre; and those of the middle ages in the tombs of the Scaligers; Vicenza too presented us architecture of another grand epoch. It is, in short, the birth-place of Palladio, who has adorned the city with innumerable works. Many Vicentines ruined themselves to execute his designs. This has given cause for some to say that he thus revenged himself on his countrymen. However that may be, it was an artist's revenge, and posterity will find no difficulty in acquitting him. The Palazzo della Ragione, the Capitano, and the family palaces Barbarano and Chiericata are distinguished among a hundred others. For it appears as if Vicenza had been destroyed by fire about the time of Palladio, and been rebuilt entirely by him. The environs of the city, not less than the town itself, bears the marks of his genius. Here we see a triumphal arch, there an elegant rotunda; in another place an arcade more than a mile in length, conducting to the Madonna del Monte. But of all the edifices of Palladio, his most celebrated is, confessedly, his Olympic theatre, in which, guided by a few vague notions, his genius has in a degree divined the usages of the ancients. This theatre was erected with the intention of representing in it Greek pieces, according to the ideas of the learned, but Sophocles and Euripides are now quite out of fashion; and it was with difficulty that two performances were got up. The theatre itself, built of wood and stucco, is fast falling to decay.

There are sixty churches at Vicenza, all however of little interest. From that of *La Madonna*, the view extends over all the plain, the mountains of the Tyrol, the town of Padua, and even as far as that of Bassano, which appears as a dark speck in the distance. On that side also some villages, picturesquely grouped, appear on the slope of a hill. They are the *Sette Comuni*, which, founded, it is said, by some remains of the Cimbres and Teutones, after the victory gained by Marcus, have retained their manners, their character, and even their language. When the King of Denmark, some years since, came to Italy, he was eager to visit this singular people, and to his great surprise, found himself able to converse with them without an interpreter. In the same manner in the Basque district, bordered by France, Spain, and the Bearn, the original language continues to this day to be spoken, and an inhabi-

tant of the Basse Bretagne would understand a native of Wales. But in the case before me, the circumstance is still more remarkable, and I know no more profound subject for reflection than is offered by the history of this handful of men, who, through all the revolutions which Italy has undergone, has preserved its stock unchanged.

The theatre of Vicenza is completely wretched, and besides, of the five benches which compose the pit, there are always two kept by sentinels for Messieurs the Austrian officers. Few of them attend, and the benches often remain entirely empty; but they are nevertheless kept sacred, and the poor Vicentines are obliged to squeeze together behind, in the avenues and lobbies. This regulation, in fact, is common to all the towns of Lombardy. At Milan alone the Austrians have not been able to establish it.

Behold me on the 13th of October in Padua, the city which, in ancient times was sung by Virgil; was the country of Titus Livy; and which flourished again in the middle ages as the seat of science. What a desert it now appears! How profound the silence which reigns under the sombre arcades which border its streets. Scarcely 40,000 inhabitants can now be counted in a space which formerly contained 200,000. The University itself, so flourishing in the twelfth century, the University which, with pride, ranks among its students Petrarch, Galileo, and Christopher Columbus, now abandoned and almost in ruins, offers, but as a mere vain show, its anatomical theatre, its botanical garden, its cabinet of natural history, all the establishments, in short, which formerly constituted its glory. The grass grows in its courts, and under its arcades. A second decline indeed has seized this ancient bulwark of the Roman empire, and it is doubtful if a third era of prosperity can follow. Of the churches of Padua two have more particularly struck me: *Santa Justina*, a chef d'œuvre of Palladio, spacious, light and airy, a cheerful symbol of the Catholicism of the south; and *Il Santo*, a mis-shapen mass, a heavy heap of badly harmonising parts. In amends, nothing can be richer than the monuments it contains; nothing can surpass in dazzling splendour the tomb of Saint Anthony. While we were admiring it, some peasants devoutly approached it, and mumbling some orisons in an under voice, touched it from time to time with a piece of chalk. This our guide assured us was a sure mode of obtaining indulgencies.

Padua is not less rich in paintings and statues than the other cities. One very extraordinary group struck me particularly. This was sixty-six figures representing the fall of the rebellious angels; all are cut out of one block of marble, with exquisite skill, and in beholding them thus entangled and intermingled, one can hardly conceive how the chissel of the sculptor could have been able to distinguish them. We seem to have before our eyes, a pyramid of real arms, legs, and bodies. This pyramid was a labour of

twelve years, and I know no stronger example of human patience. To my misfortune, I attach but little value to a difficulty surmounted; and a *Pasta* affords me more pleasure than a thousand *Catalanis*.

It is at Padua that we begin to perceive the transition from the rude Milanese accent to the soft Venetian chirping. These variations of language, together with those of the currency, give infinite trouble to travellers. Pieces of gold and silver, like the words of the language, change in value as we proceed; and with a full Italian vocabulary we may become incapable of making ourselves understood, in the same manner, as with a purse full of coins, we may not know how to pay for a pair of gloves.

Happy would Italy be were these the worst consequences of her subdivided state!

'I am at last in Venice,' writes our author on the 15th of October, 'but what difficulties have I encountered to reach it! The Brenta, as is well known, is confined within its present channel by a causeway, which serves at once for a dyke and a road. Two days only previous to my arrival the waters had overflowed, broken down the mound, and inundated the country; and all the splendid palaces, to which the Venetian nobles used formerly to retire to enjoy their leisure, appeared like islands in the midst of a lake. As the Brenta had, at the same time, risen to a level with the bridges, the navigation of the river by boats was also prevented. Thanks, however, to an active Vetturino, we surmounted all these obstacles, and thanks to the sea, we are here in safety from the water. I know not how to describe my sensations, when, from the *terra firma*, I discovered in the distance this brilliant assemblage of towers, of churches, of palaces, this 'fleet at anchor,' as Madame de Stael calls it, with its masts gilded by the setting sun! How besides is it possible not to be moved at the aspect of this wonderful city, which, reposing in the midst of the waves, has seen so many revolutions pass over its head, without ever witnessing till the last century a foreign soldier take his seat in her halls as a master! In the mean time, the people of the customs and the gendarmes had visited our baggage and our passports, and we quickly passed the *oestuary*. Every stroke of the oar, as we approached Venice, added to our emotion. Behold us at last on her liquid streets furrowed by hundreds of black gondolas, and where the deep silence is only broken by the sound of the oars. It was already night: and nothing appeared distinctly; yet this very darkness presented to us Venice under an aspect such as we had already conceived it, delighting in the obscurity of shade,—enveloped in mystery. We are now at the hotel of the White Lion, the windows of which look on the Grand Canal, and we are starting to visit the Piazza St. Marco.

It is impossible to write much when we see much. This is what I experienced at Venice; employed from eight o'clock in the morning until six in the evening, in navigating from island to island,

from palace to palace, from church to church, from gallery to gallery. I dare not take up my pen to record all my recollections; and should I be so bold as to make the attempt, I know not where to stop. Out of the vast number of things which have struck me, I must therefore confine myself to the selection of two or three of the principal; and of these I must give precedence to the Piazza San Marco, where all combines so happily to make a lively and durable impression. This place is terminated at one end by the most remarkable temple in the world; an imitation, they say, of the church of Saint Sophia, at Constantinople. We find in it, in truth, all the luxury and bad taste of the Greeks of the lower Empire. Nothing can exceed in heaviness, and in darkness, the interior of this Christian mosque: but, at the same time, there can exist nothing richer. Marble of Africa, verd-antique, porphyry alabaster, crowd together in confusion in columns of every style. Its walls are covered with mosaics, and its vaulted roofs are gilded. One would think that, on the capture of Constantinople, the richness of that city had been thrown pell-mell into St. Mark's; its contents are in fact the spoils of Constantinople, and the recollection of this fact renders them particularly dear to the Venetians. Nor is it without gratification that they tread the hall where, thanks to their arms, Frederick Barbarossa kneeled to Alexander III.; and the four horses of Lysippus, which, since 1814, have resumed their stations over the portal of the cathedral, might also flatter their pride, but that, precisely in front of these, the Austrian banners wave on the three red standards, which formerly displayed the flags of the provinces conquered by the Republic. For the rest, in spite of its grotesque character, or perhaps even by very reason of it, the exterior of the church of St. Mark produces great effect. The same may be said of the tower, which stands detached in the Piazza, and which rises above and overlooks the whole city. Its form has nothing in it remarkably graceful, and yet one should regret that it were otherwise than as it is. From the top of this tower besides, a view is enjoyed at once the most singular and most delightful. Venice, encircled by the waters, crowned by cupolas and towers, and surrounded by a number of little islands, covered with splendid edifices, appears still the Queen of the Adriatic, in the midst of her throng of courtiers. But all this is now but vain appearance, and a glance on the mountains of the Tyrol is sufficient to dissipate the illusion.

The place of St. Mark has often been compared to our Palais Royal. On three sides, in fact, these two places have some resemblance, but, instead of our *galerie de bois*, we must figure to ourselves the church of which I have just spoken, and, at the end of that church, a second place, which, opening abruptly to the sea, presents a scene for the astonishment and admiration of every beholder. It is there that the lion of St. Mark and St. the first protector of the Republic, appear elevated on two columns, brought

from the Peloponnesus; it is there that the ancient palace of the Doge, a remarkable edifice, in which two orders of light arches support an enormous mass of brick, presents itself to awaken, by its imposing aspect, recollections the most grand and terrible. There the quiet waters of the *Lagune* repose on a level with the marble slabs which we pace, and, at short intervals of distance, the palaces and churches appear to rise from the *Lagunes* themselves, from those lagunes which, like the sea without horizon, have still the tranquillity and transparency of the purest lake. A fine moonlight increases twofold the charms of Venice. A whole night may be then spent, without a feeling of weariness, on the bank of its canals, its quays, and above all its Piazzetta. It does not surprise me that Lord Byron should have sojourned here for several years: no other land, if Venice can be called a land, seems so favourable to poetic inspiration. It is the country of contrasts. The prisons contiguous to the palace, adorn the quay of the *Schiavoni*, the ordinary theatre of the diversions of the populace; and it is thus, in front of the bridge of sighs, that *Punchinella* collects his auditory. It was in the most brilliant corner of the city, between the two columns brought away from Greece, and in the presence, as it were, of their lovely sea, that the executions formerly took place. Those, the state prisoners, vegetated above and below the rich apartments of the Doge; and the *Iron Mouth*, that receptacle of every calumny, presents itself at the top of the grand staircase, where the Doge was wont to be crowned. Thus, on visiting the ruins of this fallen power, we are hurried on from regret to joy, from admiration to horror. Behold the grand hall of the Council, and that of the Scrutiny. Every thing there tells of the glory of the Republic. On those ceilings, painted by the first Venetian masters, the triumphs of Venice still live. The portraits, with which the walls are hung, are those of the Doges; and, amongst these the black curtain, with the inscription, '*Hic est Louis Marini Falethri capitati pro criminibus*,' calls to mind a daring project and its just punishment. The staircase we ascend is the famous golden staircase, and the magnificent hall, with doors of cedar and ebony, is the hall of the Ambassadors. Farther on we find that in which the Senate held its assemblies, and here every thing still bears the stamp of grandeur: advancing a few paces, we arrive in the terrible chamber of the Council of the Ten; descending a few steps, we come to damp dungeons, deprived of air, and where the light penetrates only through a narrow crevice. Inscriptions, dictated by despair, cover the walls and the roofs; at the end of a gloomy passage we still behold the spot where the secret executions took place, and the narrow door at which the gondola waited to bear away the corpse. In short, every where in this palace, sorrow and power, terror and glory, are side by side. It must be confessed, that for a hundred years past, this system of oppression and terror has no longer existed at Venice; but with it the power of the Lion of St. Mark has also departed. Is this to be regretted?

Quitting the banks of the grand canals and penetrating into the heart of the city, a spectacle less beautiful perhaps, but still highly curious presents itself. I mean that of the smaller canals which intersect the city in all directions, and those light gondolas which directed by one man standing on the stern glide along with so much grace and agility. They cross each other and intermingle; but without ever jostling, thanks to the cry which, at every turning, the gondoliers raise to give notice of their approach while the little lamp which at night shines at the head of each boat, has the effect of a moving illumination. By a decree of the senate the gondolas were all obliged to be black, and since the fall of the Republic, this order has still been observed. From my window I behold them pass backward and forward along the grand canal bordered by half ruined palaces, and under the celebrated Rialto the only communication between the two halves into which the grand canal divides the city. It was on this canal that a few years since the songs of the gondoliers were heard, as answering one and another they chaunted the stanzas of Ariosto and Tasso: but these strains have now ceased, and the gondoliers are content at present to manage their oars with skill and vigor. At Venice now the seal of inevitable destruction is impressed on every object. She is as a woman, lovely still, but wasted by a sad consumption: one cannot look on her without emotion. The population formerly so thronging and bustling diminishes by two or three thousand souls every year; the palaces formerly so brilliant are abandoned; many want their window frames, and the upper stories are fast falling to decay. Lastly the grass grows in that powerful arsenal, the entrance to which is still guarded by the lions of the Piræus, and the galley-slaves lounge in idleness and silence in the midst of deserted workshops, worn out machinery, and ships in ruins. The hull of the old Bucentaur itself is mouldering into dust, and soon will this splendid witness of the marriage of the Doge with the sea have ceased to exist.

Yet on an evening when the Austrian band plays in the Piazza S. Marco we may fancy we still behold the ancient Venice. The population then throngs to the place; and we see squatting under this ancient bazaar a crowd of Turks, Greeks, and Armenians, who, clothed in the rich costume of their country, pass their listless lives in smoking and sipping coffee. Yesterday, especially, a feast-day, all was gay in the Piazza. The *caffés* were full of elegant women; musicians, jugglers, and improvisatori, collected circles around them, and water which is sold at Venice as wine is elsewhere, was retailed by numerous venders. To day every thing has resumed its former silence, and even the theatres breathe a frightful solitude. True it is, that of the seven Houses which Venice contains, there is not one at this moment capable of affording amusement: the music in all is execrable, and the tragedy is still worse than the music. In other respects Venice has preserved far more than Milan the character of the

ancient manners. The theatre does not open before nine o'clock; and when it closes the audience retire to their seats in the *cafes* until two or three in the morning. Women of the first society meet in these: they discourse there with warmth and without reserve, and from the most delicate mouths, there but too often issues very ugly words. The female population of the Piazza San Marco was a few years back of a very mixed character, but a decree of the Emperor of Austria purified it, on the very day on which the horses of Lysippus were restored. The people it is said did not look upon the amends as equivalent, and went about repeating every where: '*Bella cosa! guardi i suoi cavalli, e a lasci le nostre vacche!*' I withhold the translation.

When the wonders of the canals and lagunes have been thoroughly enjoyed, when the many churches and palaces, inexhaustible mines of beauty and riches, have all been visited; lastly, after being satiated with the *chefs d'œuvres* of the Venetian school, there still remain the little neighbouring isles to which charming excursions used to be made. Forty Armenian monks devoted to study and to the interpretation of the Oriental languages occupy one of these islands; and further on at the extremity of one of the morasses, is to be seen the dike which protects Venice from the sea. This is an immense wall of square stones extending from the island *Paestrum* to the Peninsula of Chioggia for a length of from twelve to sixteen miles. In the times of the Republic vast sums were devoted to its maintenance; but it is now allowed to go to ruin. The sea will some day carry it away, and what will then become of Venice?

To conclude, would you be witness to the expiring moments of a great city? Come to Venice. Come here if you delight in beholding sumptuous palaces, fine pictures, magnificent churches. If liquid streets of a people who a few years since knew a tree or a house only by description; if the most splendid marvels of art and nature have any power to interest your soul, come to Venice. Again, come here if historical recollections, still recent, if grand contrasts affect you. But is your sensibility above all things alive to the improvement of the human mind and to the progress of civilization among men? Do you desire to see every where opulence and happiness? Then flee far from Venice. There is nothing here for you. A few years and Venice will be what Athens and Syracuse are now. A few fishermen will occupy, as their huts, her deserted and falling palaces.

RECENTLY ACQUIRED TERRITORY IN ARRACAN.

We have been favoured with the following interesting sketch of a visit lately paid to some of the recently acquired territory on the Arracan coast.

On the 2d of January, the party started in the long boat of the Brougham, at eight in the morning, and after rowing through a number of small creeks, reached the village of Neown Khwa Keon on the morning of the 4th. This village is situated on the right bank of the Praweng Nullah, and consists of about 100 comfortable huts; it is the residence of the head man of the division, and is inhabited, principally, by *Mughhs*, who are chiefly employed in fishing. There is no cultivation in the immediate vicinity, but the fields are not far off. At three P. M. the party arrived at the hill village of Mringkan, inhabited by the Khyens or Mountaineers, whose language, dress, and habits, differ essentially from the people of the plains. The women make a singularly curious and grotesque appearance, being clad in a blue tunic and petticoat ornamented with needle work of yellow and red thread, and having their faces tattooed in a uniform manner; the tattooing commences with a circle on the forehead, a straight line bisects which, and extends to the tip of the nose—curved lines are carried along each cheek, converging towards the chin, where they end in a circle, whilst the outer lines, forming a curious edging, give to the face the semblance of being covered with a mask.

On the 5th January, the party arrived at Talak, which is situated on the right bank of a river of clear water, running in a pebbly bottom. This stream comes from the hills to the north east, winding round them in a semicircular direction. It first runs to the S. W. and then turns to the S. E. from whence it again follows a westerly course, sending off a small branch to the south. The village consists of above 100 huts, occupied chiefly by Burmese, who have established a bazaar and mart, which promise to become much frequented. The people from the opposite side of the Yon-ma-dong mountains, beginning to resort thither, bringing with them cotton, cotton thread, khut, bees' wax, elephants' teeth, and Burman silk dhotis, which they barter for betel nuts, tobacco, napet, baloobong, and British piece goods. To the N. E. of the village, and about four miles from the bank of the river, extends a chain of high mountains—the most conspicuous part is the Phoongee Dong, over which leads the pass by which the Burmans originally invaded Arracan, and through which a great part of their army retreated in 1825. These mountains are covered with a small kind of bamboo, and studded with small clumps of trees. The height of the Phoongee mountain, at the usual halting place, is above 1700 feet.

From Talak, the party proceeded on the same day to Aeng, where

they arrived on the evening of the 7th. The stream is so shallow below the village, for about five miles, that boats of heavy burden cannot get up to it, except at the spring tides. On reaching Aeng, several large Mugh boats were found there, which had come from Ramree, with cargoes of betel nut and piece goods, whilst from Salem-mew, in the Burman territories, a trader with 50 laden bullocks, had just arrived by land. The bullocks were strong animals, and in excellent condition, and were from Pegu.—Wild elephants are so numerous in the vicinity of Aeng, as to interrupt the cultivation, which is, consequently, limited to the banks of the river. Tobacco and cotton thrive here; ginger is abundant, and pepper of a good quality, grows wild in considerable quantities.

The pepper plant is a vine which twines round the trees in its vicinity, especially the mango; the leaf is pungent and aromatic, and the berries grow in clusters, like currants, close to the stalks. When ripe, the berries are gathered, and before being dried, are steeped in warm water, in order to preserve them from insects.

The route traversed in these excursions is described as partaking of a uniform character, leading from one winding rivulet, or creek, into another, in interminable succession; the banks of which are covered with a close jungle of the mangrove, soondry, jarool, and gurjun, intermixed with cane and bamboo. The rivers run between extensive chains of low hills, backed by loftier mountains, over which the bamboo jungle universally spreads. The superabundance of vegetation renders the country unhealthy, but both Talak and Aeng, standing on elevated sites, and on the bank of clear running streams, admit of being kept perfectly dry, even during the monsoon, which would, no doubt, render them comparatively salubrious.

After quitting Aeng, the party returned to the coast, by a tortuous passage, which occupied four days, during which, a number of villages were passed, to Saloon-deng, where eight large Burman sloops were encountered, laden with khut and shin-bin plank, for the Calcutta market. The next visit was paid to the harbour of Kheauk-pheo, at the north end of the island of Ramree, which is described as sufficiently large to accommodate the whole navy of Great Britain. The anchorage is from 8 to 15 fathoms throughout, and being land-locked on three sides, the west, east, and south, the harbour is completely secured against the south-west monsoon. The beach is of fine hard sand, strewn with beautiful white pebbles, from which the harbour and one of the islands take their names; Kheauk signifying a stone, and Pheo, white. On the southern extremity of this island is a ridge of low hills, amongst which are several volcanoes that are reported to emit flame occasionally, and throw out quantities of iron pyrites. In their tranquil state, a greasy mud bubbles up, mixed with a little petroleum. Small volcanoes abound in this neighbourhood. The Mughs worship volcanic hills, thinking them places by which the Naga, or serpent, on whose head the world reposes, gives vent to his uneasiness, when fatigued and distressed, in smoke and flame.—*Government Gazette.*

ABUSES OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

To the Editors.

GENTLEMEN,—The *British Merchant* who has addressed so able a letter to Mr. Charles Grant on the abuses of the India Company, should have added to those items of debt (which he has given from the letters of Mr. Creevy), the mass of wealth which the Company has wrung from the tea-drinkers alone, and which I was surprised not to see hinted at in his letter, because I suspect that this very intelligent and spirited merchant is the same who furnished the 'Edinburgh Review' with the details upon that subject some years ago, and which you lately revived; and, while the press is employed in showing the injustice of continuing its monopoly to this greedy Company, it may not be amiss to enumerate all the items of debt, and to suggest to some more accomplished an accountant than myself, the usefulness of some such form as this:

ACCOUNT CURRENT.

The 'Honourable' East India Company, with the 'Honest' Insolvent John Bull.

To eighteen years' annuity, which should have been paid to John from the renewal of the charter in 1793, at £500,000 a year.....	STERLING. £9,000,000
To simple interest, at 5 per cent., on the non-payment....	450,000
To cash borrowed of John, for the purpose of paying him one year of this annuity.....	1,500,000
Interest on the above million and a half.....	
1810, To cash borrowed by the Honourable Company of John to pay for the losses they had sustained that year, although the Honourable Company, notwithstanding they were losers on their trade to that amount, divided 10 per cent. profit on such losses.....	1,500,000
1827, To cash paid to Honourable Company, over and above what they were entitled by law to charge for tea furnished to John's wife, Mrs. Bullock; the imperial grocers being bound to sell to the said housewife at the same rate which was current at Antwerp or elsewhere, 24 millions a year, which, for sixteen years at the least, say, amounts to...	36,000,000
Interest upon the same.....	
	£48,450,000

Here is a pretty round sum; but when the professed accountants come to calculate interest, and rummage the day-books and journals of the parties, they will find the sum owing to the insolvent considerably increased, holding out to John's creditors, whenever he shall come to be gazetted, and assignees named, a fair prospect of a handsome dividend; and, when the partnership of this Honourable Company shall be dissolved, and the firm of Leadenhall-street be

broken up, no doubt the assignees at Whitehall (if they are serious in their anxieties 'to preserve national faith and national honour,' will bring their Asiatic estates to the hammer, should those landlords (who were incorporated by the Dutchman for the mere purpose of trade) be able to prove their titles to them.

The only set off to the above Dr. side seems to be this—Cr.
By cash for one year's payment, as stipulated by charter of 1793, and to pay which half million, Honourable Company had previously persuaded John to advance him one and a half million.....£500,000

While this subject is under inquiry, shall we not ask the late President of the Board of Trade why the Imperial grocers were not compelled to obey the law which bound them to supply us with tea at the prices at which it was to be had in any of the continental markets, and to which end I addressed him on the 3d of August, 27th of November, 24th of December, 1825, and 3d of January, 1826? Will his medical advisers prevent his answering for this neglect on the hustings? or will that advice, backed by the unanimous and very kind solicitude of his requisitionists, prevent the tea-drinker from putting that question to him? and, indeed, to learn from him his future intentions with regard to this nuisance, the Leadenhall monopoly?—*Liverpool Mercury*.

G. W.

STANZAS FOR MUSIC.

I DREAMT that all the earth and sea,
The sunny bowers, the coral caves
Were mine, and that my soul was free
To cleave the air, to walk the waves,
I dreamt—but still a stifled moan
Disturb'd that dream—I was alone
I dreamt that every rare delight,
All sounds of song, all scents of flowers,
Hung round my soul's eternal flight;
But days were years, and minutes hours.
I panted for a waking bliss,
A heart to soothe, a lip to kiss.
I dreamt that in a lowly cot,
Beset with pains and tedious cares,
I bore the humblest peasant's lot,
And wept the frailest mortal's tears—
Yet happy as the woodland dove,
I asked no pleasures—I had love.

THE ADVENTURES OF A CADET IN INDIA.

MR. ACKERMANN has just published an entertaining volume, under the title of 'Tom Raw, the Griffin.' It is a burlesque poem, after the style and manner of Lord Byron's 'Beppo,' and 'Don Juan;' and is illustrated with 25 engravings descriptive of the adventures of a Cadet, from the period of his first entering the Company's service, to that of his obtaining a Staff appointment in the Indian army. It is said to be written by a Civilian, and an Officer, on the Bengal establishment. From internal evidence we conclude that the civilian is Sir Charles Doyle, Bart., equally distinguished for his skill as an artist and his taste as a poet. The officer, we presume, from the same evidence to be Mr. James Atkinson, a surgeon (and therefore an officer) in the Bengal army, also well known in India as an amateur of painting, and a successful cultivator of the sister art of poetry. The execution of the work is well calculated to sustain their previously established reputation in both these departments of art.

It would be difficult to give a satisfactory analysis of a volume filled with such miscellaneous matter; we may say generally, however, that the incidents are all strictly within the limits of probability, and the description of them characterized by as much fidelity as humour. Throughout the poem, as well as among the plates, many real scenes and individual portraits will be recognised by those who are acquainted with the society and manners of Bengal.

We shall present our readers with the reasons assigned by this authors for their undertaking, as well as a descriptive list of the embellishments, and follow these up by extracts of the most striking portion of the poem itself, by which a tolerably accurate notion may be formed of the merits and character of the whole. To begin with the first, the authors say:

'In submitting the following work to the public, we consider it proper to explain the birth, parentage, and education of our motley bantling, that we may not be accused of voluntarily forcing ourselves on the notice of so grave a tribunal. It was undertaken at the request of a society of ladies of our acquaintance, who, like all ladies now-a-days, have albums opened for the reception of contributions literary and graphic. The sight of Atkins's admirable Symptoms, a series of comic predicaments, first led our imitative pencils to delineate similar ones in India; and the various adventures of a 'Griffin,' or Johnny Newcome in the East, afforded ample scope for the display of what talents we might possess in broad caricature. The encomiums on our works again led to the expression of a wish that we should undertake a connected series of drawings,

embracing the adventures of a Griffin, from his departure from England to some point of his Indian career; and that he should be of the military profession, as one in which there is naturally more humorous incident than in any other. Who can withstand the wishes of the fair? We could not, and immediately proceeded to indulge them; but when the first dozen was finished, we were assailed by another charmer, who suggested the expediency of having, as she said, a peg on which to hang our performances—in other words—a poem! ‘Heavens! ladies,’ we answered, ‘do you imagine we can do every thing? is it not enough that we have obeyed your commands in portraying the adventures of a Griffin?—Can it be expected that we should take up poetry as we have done our pencils, without possessing heaven-born powers of minstrelsy?’ ‘Oh!’ replied they, all in a breath, ‘there’s one among you whom we know to be a poet, because we have some of his effusions in our scrap-book.’—‘See here,’ said one; ‘Lines on a Musquito biting the shoulder of Miss — at the Conversazioni.’—‘And here,’ exclaimed another, ‘is an Impromptu on a Burra Couna.’—‘Look at this Monody on the Death of a favourite Sirdar Bearer, who was carried off in a few hours by the cholera morbus in Chandnee Choke. Translations from the Persian poem of Leila and Mujnoon; and various other pieces, which Mr. Quilldrive himself can’t deny that he composed,’ vociferated a third. ‘Do, pray, Mr. Quilldrive, try your hand at the Griffin,’ said all.

‘The trial was made, and succeeded. Its length was the result of the many new incidents from time to time collected, and thrown into the bag of materials, which might have swelled the work into more volumes than one, had not Mr. Quilldrive insisted on being allowed to exercise his discretion, and to confine himself to twelve cantos, which he said, and we thought, was quite enough, in all conscience.

‘The completion and perusal of the poem to indulgent hearers, led to the final proposition of its being published. Here we all stared. What, the Griffin to appear in print? to be perused by all the world, perhaps translated into the European, and, for aught we know, into the Hindostany, Persian, and Bengalie languages! But our vanity was tickled, whose would not have been? by such suggestions; and we consented, not without those gentle tremors and palpitations which always fill the bosoms of inexperienced authors.

‘This is the true history of our undertaking. It has many faults, no doubt, but some merit—the latter arising more from the novelty of the matter it contains, than from any powers of fancy it possesses. The adventures are, we have reason to know from experience, justly narrated. We have selected our hero from a class of as fine manly youths as ever graced the military profession, and if we have caricatured him, our only object was to assimilate him to the ludicrous predicaments in which we have necessarily placed

him. We disclaim all intention of throwing ridicule on the honourable profession of arms, or on the Griffins, in both of which characters stands one of the leaders of our literary band. All we aim at, is to excite good humour, and give a faithful delineation of some of the scenes, manners, and customs of a country very little known in our native land. We trust that the critic will think our work too insignificant to censure, and that the public will be too lenient to condemn it.

‘One word more: although pupils and admirers of Gilchrist, we have purposely deviated from his orthography of the Hindostany language, preferring that which will, we believe, be more adapted to the comprehension of our Western readers. We beg the Doctor’s pardon for an offence which we know he will think unworthy of his scholars.’

The embellishments are as follows:

1. Crossing the Line. This print displays the interior of a ship’s quarter deck, with the ceremony observed by the seamen, and the penances performed by passengers, who cross the equator for the first time.
2. Evening Party at the Cape of Good Hope. The figures of the Dutch gentlemen and ladies, in this scene, touch rather upon the limits of caricature, though without violating general fidelity.
3. The Cadet presenting Letters of Introduction to an Old Civil Servant of Calcutta. The interior of an Indian room is here well depicted; the Civil Servant is the *beau-ideal* of a superannuated-old Indian, and the Native figures in attendance are all strictly in keeping with the scene.
4. An Indian Dinner Party. At this the figures of a Bengal Judge, a Colonel of Native Infantry, an Officer of the King’s Lancers, and a buxom widow are most conspicuous. The Native servants are done to the life, and all the accompaniments of punkah, wall-shades, hookahs, &c. give great *vraisemblance* to the scene.
5. A Drive on the Calcutta Course. The accuracy and spirit of this print are equal to any of the preceding, while the astonishment of some of the personages expressed in it will be fully understood by those who read the tale.
6. The Calcutta Assembly. The representation of the Great Assembly Room, over the Town Hall, which is here attempted, would have been more perfect had the plate admitted of greater height; as it is, it is extremely defective; the characters by which it is filled, are, however, well grouped, and contain many well-known portraits.
7. The Cadet sitting for his Portrait. This is an exact representation of the painting room of Mr. Chinnery, the Sir Thomas Lawrence of the East. It is difficult to say whether the form, features,

ad attitude of the facetious and lively artist, or his black colour-rinder, be most happily hit off. No one who has ever entered that room and seen the persons alluded to, can fail to recognize in this print two as faithful portraits as Mr. Chinnery himself ever drew, and his pictures are inferior to none, in perfect resemblance to their originals.

8. Another view of the Calcutta Assembly-room; better than the preceding, and filled with a greater variety of characters.

9. Encounter of the Cadet with a French milliner; a little over-trained, and devoid of interest.

10. View of an Indian nautch. Nothing can surpass the accuracy of this. The Hindoo idols, the dancing girls, musicians, baboos, and their guests, are all executed to the life, and leave nothing to desire to complete it.

11. Interview of the Cadet with the Nabob of Bengal. This is a little extravagant in the principal group; but all the subordinate parts of the picture are strictly and characteristically accurate.

12. A Wild Boar Hunt; remarkable for its spirit in the general drawing, as well as for the humour of the principal incident described.

13. The Cadet mounting an Elephant for the first time. This, independently of the ludicrous point of the picture, which is striking, contains three very excellent delineations of that gigantic animal of Oriental state, the elephant.

14. A Royal Hindoo Hunt: a good representation of an armed and mounted procession.

15. The Ferocity of the Tiger: a very masterly delineation of a highly interesting scene.

16. Attack on an Elephant by a Tiger: superior even to the last, and combining much novelty, character, and spirit.

17. Palanquin Travelling. The incident described by this print is humorous, and not improbable; the bearers and surrounding scenery add much to the fidelity of the picture.

18. Introduction of the Cadet to his Colonel: an excellent representation of a commanding officer's bungalow, with its verandah, sentry, orderly-serjeant, easy chair, and hookah; and, above all, the loose-robed figure of the old officer himself.

19. The Cadet making a conquest of the Colonel's Daughter; The principal figures in this are bad, but all the rest, as well as the whole interior of the room, is as perfect as could be desired.

20. The Cadet in the midst of difficulties. This is not without its merits. An angry wife, three crying children, importunate duns, unpaid bills, and orders from the regiment, all assailing a man at once, are difficulties of no ordinary kind.

21. The Cadet on short allowance: He is now seen on the march, attended by all his family, and is practically convinced that population may so increase, as to press upon the means of subsistence.

22. Reading the Will: inferior in merit to the preceding.

23. The Cadet wounded: a spirited delineation of an action before an Indian fort.

24. The Cadet raised to the honour of a Staff appointment, and forming one of a party at a Great Man's house: In this also are several portraits, and the whole scene is well described.

25. The list is completed by the plate selected for the frontispiece, which represents the Cadet forwarded to Head-Quarters, and gives the interior of a budgerow, or Indian passage-vessel, with great fidelity.

We have been thus minute in our enumeration of the embellishments, from a conviction that they will to many form the chief attraction of the book. We hasten now to give our promised extracts from the text.

After some preliminary stanzas, the hero of the poem is thus first brought upon the stage:

'T is time, however, now, to introduce
The hero of our tale;—his nomenclature
Has puzzled us extremely, but we choose
Tom Raw, as applicable to his nature.
Some critics may object, but we so hate your
Romantic designations, that we rest
Contented with our choice.—In face and stature
He was not an Apollo—nor the best—
Looking young man I've seen, transported from the West:

But well enough—a round, unmeaning face,
Snub nose and dumpy form, complexion ruddy,
Limbs quite devoid of elegance and grace,
And then his small gray eyes were something muddy:
But, notwithstanding this, the little blood, he
Had germs intuitive of foppishness,
Had he but found the means its points to study:
Books and arithmetic caused him distress,
Orthography and writing, not a jot the less.

His fitting out with all the necessaries of his voyage is then described, and his separation from his parents, after which,

The blabbering youth pursues the lessening wherry
Till waving handkerchiefs are seen no more;
The first day he is any thing but merry,
The second sees the vessel and before
A favouring gale, and gaily bounding o'er
The swelling waves, the unexpected motion
Gives him sensations rather sad and sore,
He cannot eat, and turns from every potion,
Curses his cruel fate, and deprecates the ocean!

You'll find him at the gangway, if you search,
 Pallid as death, with, now and then, convulsions,
 But chiefly when the vessel gives a lurch,
 Attended with some terrible expulsions,
 Internal quakes, that cause severe repulsions.
 Sea sickness is the deuce,—yet very few
 To quell it, use or physic or emulsions:
 It comes like fate—it lasts awhile,—'tis true
 It goes!—and then—why then there's nothing more to do.'

The description of the passengers follows, which we must pass over, as well as the occupations of the voyage, until the ship reaches the Equator, when the following scene is thus described:

'First in a car,—a clumsy piece of work
 By the ship's carpenter, and lined with flags,
 Sits Neptune's representative—a Turk
 As much resembling, and, for long beard, tags
 Together oakum. Robed in coloured rags,
 As substitute for regal trident rears
 A large harpoon, which o'er his head he wags,
 Crown'd with gold diadem about his ears,
 By tritons and sea-monsters guarded, his grim peers.
 Rolling, moves on the car,—a cheer resounds
 The coming of the god! the quarter-deck
 With passengers and officers abounds;
 Silence is cried, the courtiers sternly beck,
 And even smiles incontinently check.
 He speaks!—"What's this here rumpus on my waves?
 "Without my passport do ye fear no wreck?
 "No storms that, rolling o'er my sea-weed caves,
 "May give you all (if I but bid 'em) wat'ry graves?
 "I smell a stranger! who would seek to go,
 "Taking French leave, to India,—where's the rascal,
 "That I may shave him? for you all must know
 "The customs of my realm.—Slaves! to your task all—
 "Seize, drag him here!—Go, wretches, for the cask all;
 "See that the Devil's soapsuds are well lathered;
 "Where is my barber, my good shaver, Pascal?"
 Poor Tom held back, when, from the crew, he gathered
 That all, save him, had this terrific tempest weathered.
 "Ay, by my trident!" roared the angry god,
 "This here's the fellow! he's a roguish smell,
 "Ay, ay, 'tis he,"—and gave a knowing nod;
 While the poor victim, hearing the ship's bell,
 Upon his marrow-bones devoutly fell.
 The barber's razor was a barrel's hoop,
 The soap was tar, (the substance did as well),
 He called the trembling Thomas Raw to stoop,
 And whispered, "If you have repented, do not droop."
 'The water-cask was brought, and on it placed
 A plank, and on the plank our hero seated;
 Great Neptune's chaplain, with a sermon graced
 The inauguration, while his clerk repeated
 "Amen."—His little wits had near retreated,

His pallid face was daubed with filthy tar,
 The razor flourished, in hot spirits heated,
 The plank flew off—and his unhappy star
 Plunged him in stinking brine, than ocean saltier far!

'And now resounded, from the jovial crew,
 Loud peals of merriment and sailor jokes,
 As from the cask they drag poor Tom to view,
 And shew him, dripping, to the laughing folks.
 And here, once more, he earnestly invokes
 The pity oft solicited in vain;
 Neptune, relenting, his command revokes,
 While his poor victim, wiping off the stain,
 Deals out his forfeit gin, and gaily smiles again.'

Nothing material occurs till their arrival at the Cape, which is thus characterized:

'The Cape's a kind of inn—a half-way house
 To India, breaking a long, tedious stage
 Famous for monstrous bays, and monstrous vrows
 Or women; fattening at a certain age,
Id est, when married; for they're quite the rage
 When young and buxom. There's the hill behind,
 With white clouds hanging o'er its flattened edge,
 Fit table-cloth for wind-gods, when inclined
 To feast the Devil with tremendous blasts of wind.

'And they do come,—and with a vengeance too,
 Swelling the ocean into mountain waves,
 O'er which the labouring ships reel to and fro,
 And under which they oft find watery graves,
 Plumping, unceremonious, in the caves
 Of Neptune's sub-marine dominions.—They
 Who do escape the tempest, while it raves,
 See death depicted in each horrid way,
 And might as well be killed as frightened into clay.'

The Cadet lands, in order to present his letters of introduction, and wanders about for a long time without knowing his way:

'When hope had nearly fled—from a high window,
 He heard his name in female accents called,
 And started, as astonishment makes men do,
 But, as he knew the voice, was not appalled.
 No time was lost, he knocked, and loudly bawled,
 And, entering, soon the introduction past;
 Among the vrows *Mynheer* the youth installed,
 And here he found his body jammed so fast
 That he could scarcely move his limbs—or breathe at last.

'The hostess, Madame Vander Sluggenbottom,
 Was twenty stone, at least;—her neighbour more;
 Such weights made people wonder how they got 'em,
 Or how their plumpness squeezed through the door.
 Tom stared at sights he'd never seen before,
 He felt ashamed to speak, and—took to blushing;
 The women, in broad Dutch, both bending o'er
 Th' embarrass'd youth, talked loud, then fell to pushing,
 Till the result seemed like to end in downright crushing.

The time arrives, however, for his quitting the Cape, to pursue his voyage still farther East, and the signal for this is thus given :

' Ere yet the sun had streaked the East with gold,
Or eyes could well the "Lion's rump" discern,
E'er yet the line of Table Mountain, bold
As was its outline, could observers learn,
When a stentorian voice was heard, to turn
The weary slumberers from their downy pillows :
It was the Captain's, who, in accents stern,
That might have waked the sleeping dead, as well as
The living, summoned them, once more, upon the billows.'

The voyage from Table Bay to the entrance of the Ganges, is a perfect blank ; the poet passing at once from the warning thus described to the following :

' At length the welcome shores of India burst
Upon their sight, though they had much to do
To spy things so extremely flat—Here, first,
Upon the mast, the pilot's signal flew ;
He comes on board, and safely guides her through
The narrow channels, till at Kedgerce,
She anchored,—Tom looked lamentably blue,
And so desirous to proceed, that he
To hire a half-swamped boat disbursed his first rupee.

' "Mud Point" was out of sight, and Diamond Harbour
Was past ; at Fulta he gave many a stare,
His hunger pressing—for the Captain's barber
Had talked of its hotel, and glorious fare,
And he'd have given two-pence to stop there.
Budge Budge allured him not, Fort Glos'ter less,
He shook at Melancholy Point for fear,
Seeing one hanging in an iron dress,
But could not ask the cause, or e'en its meaning guess.

Then Garden Reach—oh ! what a lovely reach,
Fit suburb of a city so renowned,
The eye pursues its bright enamell'd beach,
With airy villas fancifully crowned,
Where picturesque embellishments abound,
Till satisfied that such a spot must draw
The unlitigious to its peaceful ground—
You're wrong—in the indictment there's a flaw,
'Tis wholly occupied by long black gowns and law !

' And further on, as glides the dingy through
The Hooghly's winding stream, appears Fort William,
A well-constructed fort with nought to do
But to receive new regiments and grill 'em,
(If they arrive in May or June—to kill 'em).
But let us pause, for—just beyond—(what fun)
The palaced city's seen, and our delirium
Is such, that we must finish canto one
Before—*secundum artem*—canto two's begun.'

This terminates the first canto. The second opens with general reflections and descriptions, but speedily passes on to the continuation of the narrative :

' But while we hover on digressive wings,
Poor Tom is sweltering on a foreign strand ;
The Manjee soon his trunk and boat-cloak brings,
Demanding buxish—"I don't understand,"
Quoth Tom, "your boxes—there's the boat-cloak, and
My trunk and regulation sword—'Tis funny,"
"Buxush," the Manjee roars, with outstretched hand.
"Man want rupee," exclaimed a spruce Ram-Johnny,
Who, eagerly pressed near him—"man he want some money."

' "Money," cried Tom, "why that's extraordinary,
When I have paid the rascal for the trip
All that he asked, when first engaged to carry
Myself and this small luggage from the ship ;
I will not be imposed upon—so slip,"
Massa have palkee?"—"What the devil's a palkee?"
Off to the Ghaut Ram-Johnny's seen to skip,
And, bringing one, says, "Massa he not walkce :"
"Faith that I can't," sighed Tom, "and, therefore, will not
balk ye."

' Now new dilemmas rise ; he knew not how
To place himself in this strange long machine ;
One leg he lifts, and runs it through and through,
Spraining most grievously, his bended chine :
The bearers, who, to get their fare were keen,
Proceeded on, which made our hero hop,
Side-ways or crab-ways in a lateral line ;
Till, roaring lustily, he made them stop,
Got in, hard knocking, with his hatless head, the top.'

The hero passes his night in a punch-house, and the following morning, hiring a palanquin for the purpose, proceeds to deliver his letters of introduction in Calcutta :

' Buxoo the mandate (quite *artem secundum*,)
Immediately obeyed.—He knew the saib logue,
In Town, Chowringhee, Allipore, and Dumdum,
The offices, and Europe-shops in vogue,
Palmer and Co., and Davidson and Hogue ;
In short, he'd show his master all the lions ;
Tom in his palkee tumbled, while the rogue
Became a peon,—each servitory science,
Having well learned and practised—out of sheer complaisance.

' He hastens on—Chowringhee's road is full
Of chariots, buggies, carts, and champagnies,
Of people of all sorts—a brahmin bull
Or two, of women noisy companies,
Talking of pice—discordant symphonies,
Each raising, in the air, a dusty column,
Borne, by a southern gale, right in the eyes
Of our poor hero, who began to roil 'em,
And wipe his bran-new woollens with a visage solemn.

' Park Street they follow, and, at number three,
The palkee stops—"Is Mister A. at home?"
Cries Tom—"Don't know," says Buxoo, "but I see
"Ho! Durwan, ho!—ho! Durwanjee—he's dumb,
"He smoke his hookah, and he will not come."
"If there's a bell, go ring it with a vengeance,"
Replied his master, as he cocked his thumb.
The Durwan peeps, as he e'er peeps at plain gents,
And, yawning, proves you quite unworthy his attendance.

"Saib Ghur me hi?"—"Is Mr. A. within?"
Exclaimed the master and his squire at once,
"Hum poochinga," cried Cerberus, with a grin.
"Here, take my card," roared Tom,—"the man's a dunce!"
Then waiting full ten minutes in the sun's
O'erpowering influence, counting every throb
That beat upon his brain, the brute returns,
Throws back the portals that keep out the mob,
And with stentorian bawl, proclaims a Bar ke Saib!

He passes through the train of servants, and succeeding rooms,
till he arrives at the inner apartment of the house:

'There, seated, was a most cadaverous figure,
With sallow visage, long and wrinkled too,
A large hooked nose, and twinkling eyes—no bigger
Than gooseberries, with just their greenish hue;
His spindle shanks were twined with treble screw;
And the thin hoary honours of his head
Fell long and lank, and scraped into a queue;
His clothes might o'er him and his wife have spread,
And shoes of red nankeen he wore—stitched with white thread.

'Before a desk he sat—bestrewed with papers,
Some English correspondence, and some Persian,
A chamber candlestick with waxen tapers,
Law documents and missals in reversion,
Sewals, jewaubs, et cetera—a version
Of Ayn Akbarry—Nasdan Kyabooka,
A brass pheckdan, (our very great aversion)
The saliva receiver of a smoker
Who day and night puffs copiously—a gilded hookah.

The conversation that ensues ends in the Cadet being fairly bowed
out of his supposed patron's presence, when he unexpectedly meets
with another, and, as he supposes, a better friend:

'As, grumbling, back he jogged, a lowish stanhope,
Driven by a stylish cove, passed by him, and he
His features called to mind, and then began hope
To whisper that it was his old friend Randy,
Who, pulling up his horse, and backing handy,
Cried, "D—me, Tom, I'm devilish glad to see ye."
"How are you, Jack?" roared Tom; "give us your hand—eh!"
"Come, take a lift with me," said Jack, "I pray ye,
I'm going a round of visits—Come, come, I'll defray ye."

The following description of the Writers' Buildings, and of the
occupations of its young inhabitants, could only have been drawn
by one who had passed among these his due period of probation:

'There! to the northward, in one even line
The Writers' Buildings stand,—nineteen in number,
Where young Civilians prosper, or decline,
As study spurs them, or o'er books they slumber,
Or youthful follies haste to disencumber
The thoughtless of their prodigal receipts:
And they were often thought of as live lumber
By their employers on the upper seats,
Thinking much less of Persian than of rakish feats.

'In number one, a studious youth is seen,
Poring o'er Gilchrist, with his moonshee's aid,
In number five—a sporting magazine,
His teacher of the languages, afraid
Of hunting whips, across the table laid,
Slunks in a corner, with demcanour civil,
Requests his rookhsut, after having staid
Four useless hours, in his own thoughts to revel,
And then he gets—at last—a rookhsut—to the devil!

'Here Tom, alighting, found a jovial crew
Of youngsters round a spacious table placed,
Where peppered devils and a Burdwan stew,
Smoked on the board, and courted well the taste;
Pale ale frothed high, and ruby claret graced
The sumptuous tiffin—while some brisk champagne,
Sparkling, ran down their thirsty throats in haste.
The jest went round, the pun, and boist'rous strain,
Swelled the light heart, and overturned the giddy brain.'

He is at length invited to dine with the Civil Servant to whom he
had presented his first letter. The party is thus described:

'The company amounted to eighteen,
Two rich old Indian bachelors in Council,
Two Judges of Appeal, long, lank, and lean,
With daughters anxious their surnames to cancel,
Who played and sung in tune, and did not dance ill;
A buxom widow highly rouged, tho' *passée*,
With one lack of rupees, but more of frill,
Whose share of charms and wealth might be deemed *assez*
By any man of sense, however needy was he.

'There was a Colonel in the first battalion
Of the — regiment—native infantry,
Who wore full many a scar but—no medallion,
With epaulets hung perpendicularly,
And uniform whose best days had gone by:
And, as a contrast, there a lancer sits,
With curled mustachios and a sparkling eye,
Loaded with silver lace, and golden frills,
Red *cosmales*, *sabre tasche*, long spurs, and aiguillettes.

'The Colonel looks on the well-dressed Lieutenant
With wonder, and the badge of Waterloo,
On his young breast conspicuously pendant,
And sighs that all the battles he'd gone through,
Should not have gained him some distinction too,
For valour so acknowledged, felt, and known:
He longs to talk with him; but—'twill not do;
The dandy warrior, strutting up and down,
Displays his gorgeous dress,—and thinks of that alone.

'An old fat Khausumaun, with gait unsteady,
Bespeaks the host—"Saib kanna tyar hi,"
Who bawls out, "Gentlemen! the dinner's ready"—
Quoth honest Tom, aside—"And so am I,"
Now precedence he settles,—Mrs. Y.
Must be the burrah bibbee, for Sir Martin,
Though he's a baronet, is not so high
In rank 'mong senior merchants, so—for certain
He must hand Mrs. Y. before my Lady Merton.

'So Mrs. Y. is led, and Mr. Y.,
As burrah saib, the hostess fair escorts,
Sir Martin, next in seniority,
To the next dame upon the list resorts,
Just as they settle rank in foreign courts.
The blushing spinsters on their chairs remain
Fearing a shipwreck (while each blood disports
His distant figure in bright fashion's train),
Too modest to give hints, too timid to complain.

'O Tempora! O Mores!—as they say
In Latin, when the morals and the times
Are going to the devil their own way,
As well in this as in less barbarous climes,
Can youths the spinsters scorn? the worst of crimes
In Cupid's court, high treason, too, to beauty?—
But they are handed—for the hostess climbs
O'er difficulties to force them to do duty.
Paid by a yawning "Lord, ma'am, any thing to suit ye."

'And now they're seated round the groaning board,
Fish, flesh, and fowl, combine their greasy vapours,
Within a room with Khidmutgars well stored,
And warm reflections of a hundred tapers:
They point our hero to a seat—He capers,
Not knowing where to go from sheer alarm,
Till, 'twixt the two lean Indians,—like thread-papers,
He fortunately finds an empty form:
Cries Tom, aside, "All ports are equal in a storm!"

'The conversation, like all table-talk,
Turn'd on the daintiness of sav'ry dishes,
On the fat beef and delicate white pork,
The firmness wonderful of cockub fishes,
And tarts and puddings cooked up to one's wishes.
With—"Let me help you, sir, to this ragout,"—
"Did you say loll shraub?"—"Lord, sir, you're facetious"—
"I have the honour to—"—"Some of that stew,"—
"I like this giblet curry—Pray, ma'am, what say you?"

'And, in the pauses—"Punkah zoór si keencho,
"Tis very hot"—"A gurru panee bassun,"—
"I pledge you, ma'am—Loll shraub—this is white wine"—
"Pshaw!"—

"Pray, saw you P—I—as King Richard?"—"Porsun!
"There's too much garlick in these cutlets"—(cursing.)
Across our hero the two Judges chattered
Of Moodai, Moodallahi, and Russoom,
Which was to him no joke at all—bespattered
By two full greasy mouths, that more than wordings scattered.

'But now, the dinner ended, came in hookahs,
The Colonel's and the Judges', which provoke,
'Tis said, the conversation—"Well! odd zookers,"
Sighed, mentally, poor Tom, "I hope the smoke
Won't stifle me,"—again the Judges poke
Their long crane necks, speaking by turns and puffing,
Till in his face the murky columns broke,
And his eyes, nose, and mouth, there was enough in
To suffocate the youth—He wriggled quite with coughing.

'The ladies rise, the bottle moves about,
And conversation turns in various ways;
Some talk of regulations coming out,
And others on the coming out of plays;
On the gay lancer still the Colonel's gaze
Is rivetted. Mokuddemas, decrees,
Still form the subject of the Judges' lays.
The host begins to dose, and, by degrees,
SnORES, till awaked by—"Join the ladies, if you please!"

And here the fair ones, in a formal ring,
Sip on their tea, and scandal stir with sweets;
No one proposes to play, dance, or sing,
The gentlemen are screwed fast to their seats,
Smoking or dozing in their snug retreats,
Till the tired burrah bibbee makes a motion
To the more jaded hostess, and repeats,
"Tis very late,"—All hail the locomotion—
Cries Tom, "Of burrah konnahs I've a kind of notion!"

Canto the third, after an introduction of eight stanzas, resumes
the story of the hero of the poem. We give a portion of the intro-
duction itself:

'It's often struck us as a curious thing,
That England knows so little about India,
Consid'ring we return, and, with us bring
The wealth of Poona and the lacs of Scindia;
Still speaking in our native tongue,—our Hindoe, or
Persian discarded quite, and—given to chatter
But Laplanders, their sledges, dogs, and rein-deer,
Kamskatkans, or Americans, no matter,
Are more known than your Hindoe, Moslem, or Marhatta.

'We've heard it traced to envyings and jealousies
Of our rupees, and characters of Nabobs,
But you will find it traced to the very bones of the nation.

Obtained by acts that richly merit gallowses.
Our vulgar fondness for pillaws and cabobs,
Snatching the shawls and jewels, as the tray bobs
Under our noses at a grand Durbar;
In short, that *every* Indian *every* way robs.
We've heard that folks of ton have gone so far;
As to place 'gainst all Indian company a bar!

'And yet with all this ignorance and scoffing,
On Eastern things, they of the truth come short;
For instance—there's a duchess who went off, in
An Indian coarse silk petticoat, to court,
Which Khidmutgars a *buckishism* vote,
And are seen strutting in, of grandeur plenary:
There's Ackermann, a bank of England note
Of some amount would give—the sinner he—
For twelve good drawings of our lovely Indian scenery.'

A description of Indian auctions then follows: one of these, for the sale of almost every description of article, is held by two great auction houses, every alternate day, and is thus announced:

'Who has not seen, when passing down the street,
That, from the course emerging, fronts the church
Of famed St. Andrew's, where presbyters meet,
(Known by its lofty steeple, cock, and porch,
Leaving St. John's Cathedral in the lurch,)
Two large black boards their dusky heads display,
On which—if mod'rate purchases you search,
You gladly read—"An auction here to-day,"—
If none have seen them—'tis a pity—for they may.

'Or have you not, among the morning prints
That offer to your view diurnal knowledge,
Of politics, squibs editorial, hints
'Bout theatres, and public sales and college,
And every thing that's stirring ('tis a droll age),
Within the precincts of this noble city,
Observed some catalogue's concluding page
Containing horse-sales, and productions witty
By Wiltshire—if not, I repeat—the more's the pity.'

The Cadet having been easily persuaded by his friend, that a horse was indispensable to his good appearance and favourable reception among his companions, and finding in the catalogue of the day one that exactly suited his purpose, exclaims:

"Randy, my boy," he cries, "the very nag
To be disposed of to the highest bidder,
A capital half English horse—called Rag,
By Bag o' Bones; out of a large Cutch breeder,
Fifteen one inch with less of work than feed, or
Wouldn't be sold by 's owner Mr. Tag,
Who hunted him, and drove him tandem leader,
And warranted,"—"by Jove," said Tom, "I'll try him,
And—if I find him answer—hang me, but I'll buy him."

'And off they posted, after breakfasting,
To Tulloh's auction, where the nags were waiting
The awful hammer; they stood in a ring
In the veranda, where a crowd were staving
Their sentiments—the real truth abating.
Jockies and gentlemen, and stable keepers,
Jostling and elbowing, praising, underrating.
With Arab merchants, and your auction peepers,
Unthinking loungers, and idle amusement reapers.'

As might have been anticipated, he was taken in; the evening, however, approaches, on which he is to make trial of his steed. The Course (the Hyde Park of Calcutta) is thus happily described:

'The sun now sinking in fair Hooghly's stream,
His parting beams resplendently displays,
On Colvin's Ghaut;—and famed Bankshall the gleam
Reflects,—and on the Building's slant his rays;
The Custom House, and Clive Street's in a blaze,
And all the river's bank to Chitpore Ghaut;
And, as the rosy tint delightful plays
On every western front—though monstrous hot,
The evening drive approaches, which is—ne'er forgot.

'The tired civilian, from his daily toil
Released, hails relaxation and his chariot;
The soldier, doomed within the fort to broil,
Mounts his gay charger, anxious too to hurry out;
The plodding cit'zen with his palkee-garry out,
Enjoys his jaunt as fully as the best,
All hastening to the well-known Course, and tarry out
As long as light prolongs the driving zest;
In short, till hunger calls, and savoury meals are drest.

'Here a spruce cove, in low hung tilb'ry whirls,
And bloods equestrian evolutions sport,
Here blooming maidens, with long corkscrew curls
And hats Parisienne, admiration court,
Nod follows nod, and feathers, long and short,
Wave to the waving of new fashioned beavers,
Oftimes an ogle on the breeze is brought,
Delicious to the givers and receivers,
And besides, sometimes love is caught, and—sometimes favours.'

The horse runs away with his rider, and commits several unpremeditated assaults upon the vehicles of those who could not get out of his way in sufficient time to avoid the contact. Next follows a visit to the Government House, on the occasion of a *levée*, and a description of that building, which is too long to extract. It is marked, however, like all other adventures of the hero, by blunders and mishaps at every step. The next trick played off upon the unsuspecting youth, is to get him to give one of the young ladies from a Calcutta boarding-school an evening drive in his 'ilbury. To understand the joke of this, it is necessary to inform the English

reader, that the taking out of any lady by a gentleman in his gig, or carriage, to drive, is deemed equivalent to the publication of banns of marriage, and is always interpreted as a voluntary and unequivocal announcement of the gentleman's intention to make his fair companion his bride; a custom, we believe, peculiar to the capital of British India. The incident adverted to, is thus described:

'Randy, distressed for his unlucky crony,
A tilb'ry, and a smart flea-bitten horse
Had bought, for what he reckoned too much money,
Which he sold Tom for double price—of course,
Because he was a friend—without remorse.
With tricks they always did poor Thomas,—brown,
And bets were laid he'd not drive out Miss Cross
In his new tilb'ry—"Done!—your rhino down,"
Says Tom,—“I'll drive her out, this night 'fore all the town.”

They appeared on the Course, when the astonishment of all who beheld this indiscreet and precipitate exhibition was at its height:

'Randy shot past him, laughing with all might,
Congratulating him upon his bride,
And other friends he met, who, out of spite
Gave him their backs—deriding him aside.
Away our hero dashed, till—he descried
His patron Mr. A., who looked aghast:
Tom bent his body forwarder, to hide
His gay apparell'd partner as they pass'd,
Cries Tom, “I'm brought up fairly, by the Lord, at last.”

'Enchanted with the scene, poor Lucy gazed
At all the splendid carriages and buggies,
Confounded quite, and very much amazed;
Then sighing, whispered Tom, “This very snug is,
“When shall we drive again?”—aye, there the tug is
Thought he, but said, as often as he dared,
“But it is late,” and then began to flog his
Flea-bitten nag, and homeward bent, prepared
To house again the pretty damsel he had aired.

'He gained his bet; but, though he had a thick head,
His heart was tender, and no one could say
He was, in truth, intuitively wicked;
But dearly did he for his frolic pay.
Next morn he breakfasted with Mr. A.,
Who taxed him with a libertine pursuit,
And of the girl th' indecorous display.
(Tom bit his lips, blushed deeply, and was mute,
And Mrs. A., though prudish—seemed to look acute.)

Canto the fourth, begins with the termination of the rainy season:

“The rains are over!—plague upon their pouring
“So long and copiously—plague on the season,

“Five months in twelve continuously boring,
“With pitter-patter without rhyme or reason;
“Their watery vapours, every day, increasing,
“One's spirits damp in climate so monotonous,
“Prevent our morning rides, our evenings seize on,
“And mustify the raiment we have got on us,
“Too raw, without;—within, too hot to put a coat on us.

“Plague on the keeping us within our doors,
“Like jail-birds, groaning in their prisons pent,
“Biting our nails, and—oh!—the worst of bores,
“Yawning and dosing from sheer discontent,
“Which nothing in one's pow'r can circumvent:
“Plague on their veto to a snug flirtation,
“When on such innocent adventures bent,
“One's very blood forgets its circulation,
“And days drag listless on, in mis'erable stagnation!”

To this follows a description of an Indian toilette, and an enumeration of the various classes of domestics necessarily employed:

'In India servants are as thick as bees,
Hereditary taskmen—Bhaup to Bheta,
Each has his post, which he performs with ease,
A Sirdar bearer, Khidmutgar, and Mehter,
A Dhobee, Durzee, Bewurchee, and mate (or
None, if with bachelors)—a Khansumaun,
But call him *khan* sumaun—a wight to cater,
Not a consumer, though the man's a born
Consumer at the best—ten seers in every maun.

'I've not enumerated half the number,
And you may add, at least, as many more,
Who may be said to be so much live lumber,
(One English servant's worth of them a score):
Then they've their Castes—to lose which they deplore,
As they will shew you when you crave assistance,
Without their pale of duty.—You may roar
To Peons for dinner—Khidmutgars at distance—
And starve outright, as sure as you're in existence.

'And so it is throughout—your every function
Must be attended, separately, to:
Of different duties don't expect a junction,
They must all wait—as if the varlets grew
Like wens, or warts, or carbuncles on you:
Thus, when you wish to dress, you cry *Qui li?*
Reclining, listless, on your couch, when, lo!
Your stockings are put on, and, up your thigh,
Your pantaloons are drawn by bearers standing by.

A match at billiards next ensues, at which the Cadet is made the winner of a lottery ticket, which, in the end, however, turns out a blank. Soon after the rains have ceased the cold weather begins to approach, and then the festivities of the Indian capital commence:

' With the cold weather comes a revolution
Throughout the town, spreading from high to low,
All hail anticipated execution,
Some in entrapping hearts and some in show;
The spinster eyes more lovingly, her beau,
And bloods, like summer flies, come fluttering out,
Balmanno advertises a new flow
Of millinery now;—and all about
Its being the best investment ever ordered out.

' The bearers from the toil of puncah pulling
Eight months without cessation, cry, Wah! wah!
The aubdar ceases his saltpetre cooling,
The weather is so temperate—*Aur kea*,
The ayah wraps her oornee—with *O ma*!
While Acon, China shoemaker, quite jumps,
Within the narrow street of Cossitalla,
To see the time arrived for making pumps,
And off, with his long tail, and rattan bonnet stumps.

' The Respondentia—trotters, boldly stalk,
For, with the bracing wind, they have a new
Itinerant zest, and seek their favourite walk,
Flank'd, on each side, by a poor avenue
Of stunted trees—from cold not saving you;
And pale-faced babas renovate their roses;
The magistrates begin to shave anew
The cut up course—for all must know the course is
Essential to all physical and mental forces.

' Now Gunter sweeps the floor of the Town Hall,
And dusts the cobwebs from neglected pillars,
Whitewashers cleanse each damp and mouldy wall,
And artificial flow'rs are made, as well as
Confectionary of all sorts to swell us;
The variegated lamps are scoured amain,
The orchestra arranged for Rappa's fellows,
The canopies relieved from spot and stain,
All for the conversazioni's new campaign.

' All the musicians chuckle at the weather,
And fiddlers' elbows shake with full employ;
Learning the fash'nable quadrilles together,
Till Chitpore Road resounds with notes of joy,
Which Loll Bazar re-echoes to the sky.
To them the season brings nor fears nor doubt,
For public balls, and public one's ne'er cloy,
And though eight months' cessation might put out
Their elasticity—it, somehow,—comes about.'

The Cadet appears at the public assembly, which is well described,
and there again, as usual, makes a ludicrous display. The next
scene to which he is attracted is an Indian Nautch, which he
engages to attend:

' The matter fixed—through many a dirty lane
' And gully serpentine the party go

In palkees, roads yet splashy from the rain,
And bearers sliding through the muddy slough;
The Cossitolla gained, they anxious grow
At Churbee Doss's palace to arrive,
The Chitpore Road is followed where the show
Is held—numerically sixty-five,
Where paper lanterns swing, and with bright torches strive.

' If you expect in Oriental palaces
What the Arabian Nights so well unfold,
Or that our baboos own the solaces
Haroun Alraschid did—that prince of old,
Revelling in diamonds, emeralds, and gold,
You will be disappointed, and our story
Seem, in the contrast, very tame and cold;
Our fine descriptions dull and desultory:—
—But, proceed we at once, to lay the truth before ye.

' There are some splendid houses, 'tis allowed,
Externally built, after English models,
That look o'er Indian architecture proud;
But, inside,—it ne'er strikes their stupid noddles
To carry on the likeness—something muddles
Their taste, which, always, is a large square court,
Where one small room upon another huddles
On every side, save, where the hosts resort,
Spacious arcaded open halls for festive sport.

' The entrances are any thing but grand,
The houses being quite even with the street:
And basement floors are rented to a band
Of shopmen, for the sale of butcher's meat,
Confections with bad oil and ghee replete,
The scent of which regales the baboo's nose,
And noises that might wake the dead, and heat,
And clouds of dust to sweeten his repose:
But then they pay a rent, and,—thence his pleasure flows.

' These pigeon holes, or little cramped apartments,
All leading from an open arched saloon,
Are destined for those various assortments
Of wines—the Indian's duly sanctioned boon,
Putting connubial comfort out of tune
For preference—for, where many claim attention,
The greatest number are enraged—and soon
Discord succeeds, and scenes we may not mention,
Which prove polygamy a very sad invention;

' At least in the opinion of the moderate
And prudent man, who thinks that one's enough
To fill the duties of the marriage state,
If he prefers smooth paths to rude and rough.
What could he do with twenty dozen tough
Young dames, all pulling caps behind the curtain,
Crying and scratching, and such noisy stuff,
To gain his notice—all their rights asserting—
Why, his first thought would be self-murder, or deserting.

' Yet, by the number of their wives Behaudurs
 Their consequence proclaim—as their Sewarries
 Of elephants and steeds—and, on my word us
 Little considered too—A native marriage
 Another and another—as his star is
 Ascendant in the firmament of riches,
 His only comfort that the train he carries
 About him—and—the number of the witches
 Prevent them wearing, all, at once, his lordly breeches!'

This subject is pursued at greater length than we can follow the poet; we pass over, therefore, the dissertation upon Asiatic females and polygamy, to arrive at the business of the evening:

' To Churbee Doss's decorated hall
 The merry party went. 'Twas not arcaded
 Like those we have described,—no, not at all,
 But like an English drawing-room he'd made it:
 And with fine prints and chandeliers arrayed it:
 The fact was, Churbee, from his infancy,
 Had been 'mong Europeans, who had traded,
 And had acquired their taste; hence, men can see
 How possible—nay easy is, delinquency.'

' The fleshy mountain (Churbee Doss) advances,
 Wad'ling, like Falstaff, out of wind and blowing,
 Greeted the gay "saib logue" to his humble dances,
 And grins, his scarlet gums and black teeth showing,
 While with his breath, the stench of pawn bestowing.
 "Gentl'man, take chair—Lady, sit down, I pray."
 Ottah is handed round—rose-water flowing;
 Discordant strains succeed, and nautchness gay,
 Are introduced to grace the heterogeneous play.

' The girls advance, part impudent, and bold,
 Displaying full wide coloured draperies
 Of muslin trimmed with silver and with gold,
 And pendent veils—yet 'midst their aperies
 And wriggling turns, you see how taper is
 The slender waist, how round the well-formed limb,
 While, with a tread that far from caper is
 Slow measured, marking time, they lightly skim,
 And satisfy—if not the English taste—the whim.

' Behind,—are seen the attitudinarians,
 The band of each scrape loud their favourite strain.
 And beat a small tom-tom, the great barbarians
 Crying savash!—Wah! wah! and wah! again,
 One sees and hears these mountebanks with pain;
 But, at each swell, the damsels gather courage,
 Languish to all around, and stamp amain,
 (Whether youth justifies the languish—or age,)
 And bangles jingle louder with the greater stirrage.

' And now—unlike famed Catalani's singing,
 Which on the air like richest odour floats,
 Discordant shrieking through the hall is ringing,
 And tones obstreperous from convulsive throats.

The aiding hand still further strength denotes,
 As if they meant to squeeze out latent sounds.
 Ships' trumpets never louder call for boats,
 Nor boatswain's pipe all hands—in naval rounds,
 Nor the appalling yelling of a pack of hounds!'

Canto the fifth, begins with an eulogy on painting, and after several stanzas, devoted to its praise, thus continues:

' "But what's the meaning of this declamation
 On art?" we think we hear the eager cry.
 Why, gentle readers, 'tis a proclamation
 Before we usher in great Chinnery!
 Whom Tom knew not—the greater sinner—he),
 That giant man in face and scenery,
 Whose works have pleased alike in East and West,
 Who looks at nature with an eye bold and free,
 And steals her charms more keenly than the rest,
 Who, with less real merit, better line their nest.

' "You have not been at Chinnery's, I think?"
 Said Randy to his friend one afternoon.
 "No," replied Tom, "that is a wanting link
 In my career, which I must add, and soon."
 Well, then," cried Randy, "I will grant the boon
 Of showing you to this most skilled of painters:
 You'll be delighted with him, if in time;
 He's always in his shop, and will not stint us
 In hearty welcomes, as his lungs will soon acquaint us."

In Garston's Buildings, opposite the church,
 Formed of the overplus of Town Hall Brick,
 And just behind the houses of John Burch,
 Up a vile lane whose odour makes one sick,
 Resides this famous limner—never stick
 At vain preliminaries of rapping knockers,
 To see if he's at home—go in, and kick
 The peons, that, slumbering on the stair-case, look as
 (But yet they are not) barriers in your way. Odd zookers!

' Laugh as you please, till in his atelier
 You see the ablest limner in the land,
 With mild and gentle look inviting near,
 Palette on thumb and maplestick in hand,
 And saying, "Sirs, what may be your command?"

' "We would not interrupt you!—Mr Raw!"—
 "Your most obedient—Do I understand
 "Your friend desires to sit?—Pray, does he draw?"—
 "'Tis a great art, and always practised with a claw! (ecclt.)

' "What! always at your punning?"—"Pon my honour,
 "My good friend Randy, I delight in puns;
 "I relish them as epicures a konnah,
 "They go off just as sharp as Manton's guns.
 "Talking of fire-arms, I remember once
 "A friend informing me he could command
 "Four of them always ready to advance.
 "I said immediately,—You understand—
 "Then, certainly, you always have a stack in hand!

"But did you ever hear the pun I let off
 "Bout Wellington and the Green Man and Still?"—
 "Phoo! phoo!" said Randy, "when you're fairly set off,
 "There's no controlling you till you've had your fill.—
 "Come, show us all your portraits—Where's Miss Frill?—
 "Raw's gazing on your half-done things like mad."
 "Is he quite raw?" the punster whispered,—"Will
 "He bear a dressing? He's a comely lad,
 "Raw, dressing,—palate,—taste, eat up. Faith, not so bad!"

"At every word an equivoque was wrought,
 And conversation hobbled on in quirks,
 Or grave or merry—still it mattered nought,
 Bad puns ensued, with nostril-moving jerks,
 With notes and annotations, snorts and smirks,
 When comprehension failed their sense to take in.
 He drew them, even, from his beauteous works,
 From which the friends were all the beauties raking,
 And observations on his excellences making."

"And off he marched, with, "Gentlemen, good day,
 "I'm sorry that my duty interferes
 "With inclination—hast'ning me away,"—
 And then he tuck'd his locks above his ears.
 Did'st ever mark the monstrous comb he wears,
 A semi-circular of tortoiseshell?
 Which, like Diana's crescent, tops his hairs
 In inverse ratio—once it graced the swell
 Of crinal horrors that adorned an Indian belle!"

"Talk not of price, dear Randy,—when a friend
 "Whispers a wish—We'll settle that at leisure;
 "Meanwhile, to time I must, perforce, attend.
 "Where is my book?—I'm pressed beyond all measure,—
 "Days growing short—ships sailing—giving pleasure
 "To all—but—let us see,—Monday?—that's full,—
 "Tuesday, to finish Mrs. Roundhead's treasure,
 "A little ugly knave.—A young John Bull—
 "Wednesday,—Miss Frippe, Thursday,—(reading), "if it's cool."

"Lady Hysterie—reasonable condition!
 "When hours to me are just great heaps of gold!—
 "Friday, at ten, Miss Frill,—clever Ram Kishen—
 "We'll put the baboo off—He will not scold—
 "Friday, at half-past ten, then,—hot or cold,
 "I shall expect to see you—Mister Raw—
 "At two I have another sitter—hold—
 "The second sitting Thursday se'n'night—pshaw!
 "That's full-well—Friday—Next month I have time to draw!"

This is a portrait, to the life, of the artist described, the minutest points of which are as faithful as the general outline, and could only have been filled up by an intimate acquaintance. The following description of his painting room, is equally faithful:

"Imprimis, o'er the walls are charcoal dashings
 Of sudden thoughts, or imitative keys,

Hung on a nail—and various coloured splashings—
 The shape of frames, of houses, horses, trees,
 Prismatic circles—five dot effigies;
 Notes of short hand—a card for five o'clock,
 "Lord M. desires the honour of Mr. C.'s
 "Company," in conspicuous station stuck,
 To show the deference paid his talent—or his luck!

"Close to the window is a drawing table
 Where, erst, in miniatures engaged, he toiled,
 And near a chair and hookah, when he's able
 To contemplate the canvass he has oiled:
 In this enjoyment were he ever foiled,
 Adieu to talent.—'Tis his next great pleasure
 To painting, he has often said,—(and smiled),
 The sitting over,—to devote his leisure
 In smoky meditation o'er his new-wrought treasure.

"A tepoy groaning with odd tomes and scraps
 Of undigested journals, stands behind,
 Sketch books, surmounted by his flannel caps,
 Loose prints and notes,—some very far from kind,
 With pretty little chits from dames that wind
 Him round their finger—lawyers' letters, dunning,
 For clients, most solicitous to grind,
 And drafts of letters—full of wit and punning,
 And house accounts that still keep on for ever running."

The Calcutta races, which can be held, of course, only in the cold weather, and even then at a very early hour, to avoid the heat of the sun, are the next subject of the poet's description. The introduction describes, with great truth, the preparations among all classes for the enjoyment of this pleasure. They then set off toward the scene of action:

"The fam'ly coaches, sociables that hold
 A numerous party, landaus, landaulets,
 Tilburies, and phaetons, and buggies rolled,
 Chariots, and palkee garries, barouchettes,
 In which are huddled folks, in motley sets,
 Daughters and sons are they of curiosity;
 Horsemen in great abundance—some for bets,
 And others, other things—with great velocity
 All, all are hast'ning to the course from out this choice city.

"The whirl of wheels, the tramp of steeds combine
 To wake to life the most inveterate sleepers,
 People, who, suffering from the heat, incline
 To lay in bed, and gum their leaden peepers,
 Not caring aught for races, hunts, or leapers,
 Nor e'en of—landing or departing Gov'nors;
 In fact, who shun all sights and shows, and keep as
 Snug as they can—eat, drink, and sleep their seven hours,
 As greedy of repose, as—of good food the rav'nous."

The description of the race-stand, its comparison with those of

Ascot and Epsom, as well as the enumeration of the company, we pass over, till arrive at the commencement of the sport :

‘Tis sweet to see the high-bred steed appear,
Impatient to be led to victory,
To mark his sinewy form and limbs so clear,
Distended nostrils, and bright sparkling eye,
Trembling all over with intensity
Of agitation, at a moment’s stay,
Or any bar to his velocity,
Propelling forwards with impatient neigh
Whene’er he hears the cry of—“ Ready”—and “ away !”

“ They’re off,” a hundred voices join—“ they’re off !
“ Pet had a famous start—he keeps the lead”—
And now resound the banter and the laugh,—
“ There’s Slender Billy’s past him by a head”—
“ He’s twice the bottom”—Forward they proceed,—
“ Twenty to ten on Slender Billy”—“ Done”—
Pet once more passes—“ D—me, he’s the speed”—
“ A hundred gold mohurs—Jack,—on Pet to one—
“ Well—’pon my soul—I never saw a better run !”

“ They’re neck and neck !”—they pass the distance post,
The clerk o’ the course lashes his sounding thong,
To clear the way from the intruding host
Of natives, who, to the tumasha throng ;
And now they frantically bound along !
Whip, spur, and jockeyism aid the deed ;
A sheet would cover both, could it be flung .
Across them—such their evenness of speed,—
“ Hurrah ! hurrah ! hurrah !—Pet has it by a head !”

Canto the sixth, passes naturally enough from the sports of the turf to those of the field ; the game, instead of the fox, being the Indian jackal. The disaster of the hero, in his pursuit, is thus described :

‘ The jackal got a-head—by this manœuvre,
And o’er a grassy, undulating plain
His course kept on,—the hounds escape the cover,
And the bold huntsman clears the fence.—Again
Their hopes are fired, and every nerve they strain.
Randy o’ertops the twigs, and by his side,
Tom his first leap is anxious to attain.
(We said, before, he’d not been taught to ride,
Nor leap, of course—nor aught to horsemanship allied.)

‘ Ill-fated youth !—how vain are all thy struggles
To clear the bar—thy smart flea-bitten horse,
At his first rise—among the switches hoggles,
And throws thee !—(had he not the least remorse ?)
Over his head,—with such impetuous force,
That on thy pericranium (fortunate
That it was there—the thickest part, of course,)
Thou fall’st. Oh ! love of sport inordinate
That leads thee, headlong, to inevitable fate ! !’

The closing extract of our present review (for in this Number we must confine ourselves to the first half of this amazing volume, to which we have already given no inconsiderable portion of our space,) will be that descriptive of a Calcutta public ball, the fidelity of which will be admitted by all who have ever attended such an entertainment :

‘ But let us from our moralising strain
Turn—to the ball-room—a far brighter theme,
Where festive sport and music’s cheering reign,
And beauty sparkles in the lustre’s beam ;
Where fashion, swelling to the last extreme,
Displays her rainbow hues and waving plumes,
Where pearls their softness show, and gems their gleam,
And roscate oils emit their rich perfumes,
Scattering a thousand sweets along the lordly rooms.

‘ At length the fiddles scrape, and the bassoon
With the band mingling, to the dance provoke ;
And aides-du-camp, at the inspiring tune
Start up the Burrah Bibbees to invoke
To lead the festive set—the shawl and cloak
Give to th’ admiring gaze the charms they veiled ;
Then struggle the bon-mot, the laugh and joke,
And pretty nonsense opes her ample field,
And all with harmony the happy moments gild.

‘ The company, of course—is most select,
It should be so, at such a place as this ;
But folks are seen who you may ne’er expect
To see at other houses—and ne’er miss.
For instance the Armenians,—and it is
Quite droll to mark their very odd costumes ;
The women with a jewelled crown a piece,
And muslin robe which every tint assumes,
Extremely fat and fair, and—stinking with perfumes.

‘ The men—forgive us, readers, if we hurt
Your coyness—for truth of its limit stretches,
Wear aprons—which resemble much the shirt
Hanging most awkwardly outside their breeches,
Which give to decency some awkward twitches ;
But ’t is their custom—and here custom reigns
Quite undisturbed in cut of habits—which is
Convenient enough—when one complains
Of annual varying modes in Fashion’s fickle trains.’

‘ To sober natives, this great love of dancing
In Europeans seems a foolish thing,
People who pay the nautch girls for their prancing,
And keep whole hands to caper or to sing ;
Fancy a baboo in a Highland fling,
His fat sides shaking with the execution,
Or Rajah to a Ranny poussetting !—
Why,—they’d lose caste !—whole ages of ablution
Would not wash out the stain, or scrub out the pollution.

* Of all our galas—playful masquerades
 Astonish them most—great men inferiors aping,
 Who, out of frolic, court deception's shades,
 As punches cap'ring, or as fiddlers scraping,
 And round the mimic group their gambols shaping;
 They deem it the excitement of a trance—
 Some periodical delirium—gaping
 And calling it—as fearfully they glance,
 “Pangul ke nautch”—in English tongue—the Madman's Dance!”

NOTICE.

We have received from France a very curious and highly-interesting Journal of the Expedition from India to Egypt under Sir David Baird, kept by a French gentleman, now a Peer of France, and then serving as a subaltern in one of the King's regiments employed on the Expedition. We propose translating this for the 'Oriental Herald,' and commencing the series in the ensuing Number for January 1828.

The Title-page and Index of the Fifteenth Volume, which our present Number completes, will be given with the 'Herald' for January, in which will also appear some Communications of interest that reached us too late for the present month.

CIVIL AND MILITARY APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, AND
CHANGES, IN INDIA.

[B. signifies Bombay—M. Madras—and C. Calcutta.]

- Ali, Sub. M. M., commanding Fort of Rattumghur, ap. to command Fort of Sew-sair.—B. May 31.
 Astou, H., Lieut., 10th N. I., to be 2d or Mahratta Interpreter.—B. May 17.
 Arnott, A., Mr., admit. Assist.-Surg.—B. May 11.
 Andrews, E., Cadet, admit. to Inf., and prom. to Ens.—B. May 12.
 Bate, J. C., Mr., admit. Cadet of Inf.—B. May 17.
 Black, J., Mr., admitted Assist.-Surg.—B. May 17.
 Burgess, E., Capt., 5th Bengal L. C., on furlough to Europe for health.—B. May 30.
 Brown, Maj., 25th N. I., prom. v. Seely, deceased.—B. May 25.
 Browne, J., sen., Maj., Inf., to be Lieut.-Col. on augmentation.—B. May 17.
 Baker, W., Cadet, admitted to Inf., and prom. to Ens.—B. May 11.
 Bell, A., Mr., to be Act. Judge and Criminal Judge at Ahmedabad.—B. April 20.
 Bouchier, F., Mr., to be Post-Master General.—B. May 15.
 Bruce, W. C., Mr., to be Sub-Treasurer and General Pay-Master.—B. May 15.
 Bell, W., Mr., to be Assist. to Collector in Northern Concan.—B. May 15.
 Bark, J., Lieut., rem. from 4th to 1st Batt. of Artil.—M. May 3.
 Brown, C. J., Esq., to be second Assist. to Accountant General.—M. May 23.
 Burrows, Fred., Mr., to be Master Attendant at Cochín.—M. May 3.
 Cumming, G. V., Assist.-Surg., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. May 1.
 Chamber, Hen., Esq., to be Member of Board for College and for Public Instruction.—M. May 23.
 Crisp, J., Captain, to be Mahratta Translator to Tanjore Commissioners.—M. May 23.
 Cameron, St. V., Lieut., 8th Madras N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.
 Clifford, Troop Quart.-Mast 2d Troop Horse Artil., on furlough to Europe for health.—B. May 31.
 Collins, G., Ens., posted to 12th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Cunningham, J. W., Ens., posted to 25th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Cun, C. C., Mr., admit. Cadet of Inf.—B. May 17.
 Curry, R. C., Ens., 25th N. I., to Lieut., v. Campbell, deceased.—B. April 27.
 Campbell, D., Ens., posted to 2d Europ. Regt.—B. April 24.
 Cock, H., Capt., 23d N. I., to be Maj. v. Oliver, retired.—M. April 23.
 Chalon, T. B., Lieut., 8th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M.
 Cameron, J., St. V. M., 8th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. May 1.
 Campbell, A. B., Capt., of Artil., on furlough to sea, nine months, for health.—B. May 12.
 Dun., G., Cadet, admitted to Inf., and prom. to Ens.—B. May 12.
 Dickenson, T. M., Ens., 14th N. I., to be Interp. in Mahratta Lang. to 14th N. I.—B. April 27.
 Doveton, B., Mr., to be Superintend. of Stamps.—B. May 15.
 Devitre, J. D., Mr., to be Mint Master.—B. May 15.
 Dalzell, J. A., Esq., to be Superintend. of Civil Pensions.—M. May 23.
 Edwards, W., Ens., posted to 5th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Eckford, R., Mr., Superintend.-Surg., to be 3d Member of the Medical Board.—B. April 28.
 Fosberry, F., Capt., 8th Mad. N. I., on furlough to Madras, by sea, for health.—B. June 2.
 Falconer, J. S. C., Capt., to be Commis. of Stores with Guicawar Subsid. Force.—B. June 9.
 Farrant, F., Corn., 3d Lt. Cav., to be Lieut. v. Smith, dec.—B. April 28.
 Forbes, J., Mr., to be First Register to Sudder Dewanee and Sudder Foujdaree Adawlat, and Commis. of Civil and Criminal Justice for the Deccan and Southern Mahratta Country.—B. April 20.

Fitzgerald, Capt., Brigade Major of the Field Force at Rajpootana, removed to Berhampore.—C. April 30.
 Ferrers, C. C., Cornet, rem. from 7th to 5th Lt. Cav.—M. April 24.
 Griffiths, Maj., Artill., to be Agent for Manufacturer of Gunpowder, Bombay, v. Manson, app. to Gun-Carriage Dep.—B. June 9.
 Guerin, E. A., Ens., 14th N. I., to be Lieut. v. Toward, prom.—B. May 25.
 Gunton, H. K., Cadet, adm. Inf., and prom. Ens.—B. May 11.
 Graham, A., Assist.-Surg., to be Vaccinator in Deccan, v. Michie, on furlough.—B. May 5.
 Goodfellow, B., 2d Lieut., posted to Engineers.—B. April 24.
 Gibbon, Maj., Commis. Depart., placed at disposal of Com.-in-Chief.—B. April 21.
 Gregor, G., Mr., to act as First Register to Court of Adawlut, at Surat, until Mr. Forbes assumes charge.—B. May 15.
 Hunter, P., Capt., 1st Lt. Cav., on furlough to Eur.—B. May 18.
 Halpin, O., Ens., posted to 7th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Holland, H. C. Capt., Commis. Departm., to be 3d Assist.—B. April 21.
 Hunter, W. J., Mr., to be 2d Assist. to Collector of Kaira.—B. May 15.
 Hunter, R. R., 2d Lieut., rem. from 3d to 1st Batt. Artill.—M. April 24.
 Jackson, H., Ens., posted to 2d Eur. Reg.—B. May 24.
 Johnston, H., Assist.-Surg., to be Vaccinator in North-West Div. of Guzerat.—B. May 15.
 Jeffreys, H., Rev., (A. M.), to be Chaplain of Kaira.—B. May 29.
 Johnson, W. G., rem. from 12th to 30th N. I.—M. April 20.
 Kenny, J. W. G., Ens., rem. from 36th to 13th N. I.—M. May 1.
 Kenny, J. W. G., Ens., 36th N. I., on furlough to Eur. for health.—M. May 3.
 Lister, W. K., Capt., to be Commis. of Stores, with Poonah div. of army, v. Griffiths.—B. June 9.
 Logie, A. W. J., Ens., posted to 11th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Long, S., Capt., Commis. Depart. to be 2d Assist.—B. April 21.
 Leighton, Lieut.-Col.-Com. commanding Presidency div. of army, to be Vice President of Military Board.—B. April 21.
 Locke, T., Capt., lately transferred to Invalid Estab., posted to 2d Vet. Bat.—M. April 25.
 Michie, H., Assist. Surg., on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. April 27.
 Mardon, Surg., late Pres. Med. Board, on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. May 5.
 Mayor, F., Ens., 6th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—B. May 18.
 MacGillivray, Lieut., of Engin., to officiate as Executive Engineer in Southern Concan.—B. June 9.
 Major, J. P., Ens., posted to 11th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Moran, S., Mr., admitted Cadet of Inf.—B. May 17.
 Moyle, J. G., Surg., app. to Medical duties of Eur. Gen. Hospital at Presidency, v. Trash, prom.—B. May 17.
 Mackell, A., Assist. Surg., late of Presidency at Mocha, placed at disposal of the Com.-in-Chief.—B. May 12.
 Milne, Mr., Surg., to be 1st Member of the Med. Board.—B. April 28.
 Morgan, Mr., Surg., to be 2d Member of the Med. Board.—B. April 28.
 Macan, G., Lieut. 15th N. I., to be Quart.-Mast. and Interp.—B. April 27.
 Moir, Alex., Ens., posted to 15th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Montgomerie, E., Mr., to be acting first Assist. to Collector in Northern Concan.—B. May 15.
 Maitland, A., Mr., of Mad. Civ. Serv., to be junior Assist. to principal Collector in Southern Mahratta country.—B. May 11.
 Moule, I., Lieut., 23d N. I., to be Capt. of a comp. v. Cork, prom.—M. April 23.
 Morgan, E. T., sen., Ens. 50th N. I., to Lieut. v. Rose, prom.—M. April 30.
 Maclean, A., Esq., to be Malayalam Translator to Government.—M. May 24.
 Nott, H., Ens., rem. from 46th to 19th N. I.—M. April 24.
 Newman, H., Lieut., rem. from 1st to 4th Bat. Artill.—M. May 3.
 Partridge, S. H., Ens., posted to 7th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Pedlar, P. W., Capt. 25th N. I., to be Maj. v. Brown, prom.—B. May 24.

Pierce, Lieut. Col., to assume his app. of Commis. of Stores at Presidency.—B. May 17.
 Payne, R., Lieut., to be 3d Assist. in the Commis. Depart.—B. April 21.
 Prescott, C., Mr., to return to his situation as 2d Registrar at Ohmedab.—B. April 20.
 Price, R., Surg., removed from 8th Lt. Cav. to 36th N. I.—M. April 26.
 Rawlinson, W. E., Ens., posted to 14th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Ravenscroft, G. S., Cornet, posted to 3d Lt. C.—B. May 24.
 Rind, J. B., Ens., 18th N. I., to be Lieut. v. Wade, deceased.—B. April 28.
 Ravenscroft, A. W., Mr., to be Assist. to Collect. of Customs and Town Duties at Presidency.—B. May 16.
 Rose, C. P., Lieut., 50th N. I., to be Capt. v. Locke, invalided.—M. April 24.
 Stephenson, R. T., Ens., posted to 18th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Stock, T., Ens., posted to 17th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Stephenson, H., Lieut. 25th N. I., to be Adj. v. Spencer, prom.—B. May 24.
 Spencer, H., Lieut. 25th N. I., to be Capt. v. Pedlar, prom.—B. May 25.
 Stuart, R. D., Cad., adm. to Inf. and prom. to Ens.—B. May 11.
 Shaw, J. A., Mr., to be Dep. Collect. of Customs and Town Duties at Presidency.—B. May 16.
 Shepherd, H. R., Rev. to be District Chaplain at Canna, Calcutta.—May 17.
 Snook, J. V., Ens. 23d N. I., to be Lieut. v. Moule, prom.—C. April 23.
 Sandford, J., Assist.-Surg., permitted to place his services at the disposal of the Resident of Nagpore.—C. April 24.
 Taylor, G., Capt. 3d N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. May 3.
 Toward, Lieut. 14th N. I., to be Capt. v. Wood, prom.—B. May 25.
 Thornburry, A., Lieut. 4th N. I., to be Quart.-Mast. and Interp. of Hindostanee.—B. May 15.
 Trash, F., sen. Surg., to be Superintend. Surg. v. Eckford, prom.—B. May 5.
 Thomson, Capt., Maj. of Brig. to troops stationed at Berhampore, rem. to Rajpootana Field Force.—C. April 30.
 Weatherspoon, J. C., Capt. 2d Bengal N. I., on furlough to Cape of Good Hope for eighteen months.—B. June 2.
 Worthy, J., Capt., 18th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—B. May 9.
 Wood, E. M., Capt., 14th N. I., to be Major, v. Davies deceased.—B. May 25.
 Watkin, H. S., Ens., posted to 25th N. I.—B. May 24.
 Whish, Lieut.-Col., to be Commandant of Artill., with a seat at Military Board.—B. May 17.
 Whitehead, C. T., Ens., posted to 12th N. I.—B. April 24.
 Wroughton, G. C., Mr., to be Register at Broach.—B. April 20.

BIRTHS.

Barnett, the lady of J., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, at Colombo, June 8.
 Birdwood, the lady of U., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, at Broach, June 3.
 Cooper, the lady of the Rev. J., of a son, at Hurnee, May 2.
 Crawford, the lady of T., Esq., at Gergaum, June 18.
 Clementson, the lady of F. F., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, on the Nialgherry Hills, April 20.
 Campbell, the lady of Maj. C. H., Beng. Army, of a daughter, at Dummore House, May 13.
 Elliott, the lady of D., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, Madras, May 9.
 Fearnson, the lady of Maj., of a son, at Somerville Lodge, Bombay, May 20.
 Griffiths, the lady of Lieut., H. M's 6th reg., of a daughter, at Colabah, Bombay, May 29.
 Graves, the wife of the Rev. A., of a daughter, Bombay, May 31.
 Haines, the lady of W., Esq., on the Nialgherry Hills, May 1.
 Hooper, the lady of G. S., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a daughter, at Tellicherry, May 14.

Macdonald, the lady of Lieut. W. P., Rifle-corps, of a son, at **Kamptee**, April 20.
 Maberly, the lady of Capt., Dep.-Sec. Mil. Board, of a son, **Madras**, May 30.
 Pinson, the lady of Lieut. and Adj. 46th N. I., of a daughter, at **Secundrabad**, April 24.
 Paske, the lady of Capt., of a son, **Madras**, May 16.
 Poyntz, the lady of Lieut., H. M.'s 30th Foot, of a daughter, **Madras**, May 23.
 Rowland, the lady of Assist.-Surg., W., at **Poonah**, May 13.
 Reid, the lady of H. S., Esq., of a daughter, at **Calcutta**, May 22.
 Souza, the wife of Antonio de, Esq., of a daughter, at **Havel**, June 13.
 Swanston, the lady of Capt. Paymast. of the Station of **Quilon**, of twin sons, April 26.
 Stonehouse, the lady of T. V., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, at **Nellore**, May 6.
 Stuart, the lady of Capt. S., 17th N. I., of a son, at **Vizagapatam**, May 21.
 Stainforth, the lady of H., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, at **Benares**.
 Tomkins, the lady of Capt. G., 10th Beng. N. I., of a daughter, at **Aurangabad**, May 30.

MARRIAGES.

Blair, Wm., Esq., of Avontoun, Advocate, one of his Majesty's Commissioners of Inquiry, to Jane Christian, eldest daughter of H. Nourse, Esq., Cape of Good Hope, May 16.
 Brand, Lieut. and Adj., J., H. M.'s 16th Foot, to Harriet, eldest daughter of the late R. Phipps, Esq., Esq., of Demerara, at **Madras**, May 22.
 Croket, Capt., J., Milit. Paymast. Mysore Div., to Sarah Anne, youngest daughter of V. Munbee, Esq., of Clifton, Gloucestershire, at **Bangalore**, April 11.
 Crouch, J. D., Mr., to Anna Maria, only daughter of G. L. W. Henderdine, Esq., at **Calcutta**, May 28.
 Laurie, Capt., J., Paymast. of the Station, to Miss C. Fenwicke, at **Janlnah**, May 1.
 Mullins, Edw., Esq., of **Calcutta**, to Miss Ann D'Rozario, at **Calcutta**, May 28.
 Smith, S., Esq., Civ. Serv., to Miss E. Annesley, at **Choultry Plain**, **Madras**, April 18.
 Torriano, Lieut., C. J., 28th N. I., to Julia Thereza, fourth daughter of Maj. J. C. Frank, Commis. of Ordnance of the Station at **Trichinopoly**, May 16.

DEATHS.

Armour, Carolina Wilhelmina, wife of the Rev. A. Armour, at **Colombo**, June 6.
 Adamson, Mr. T., Agent of the Government Gazette Press, aged 43, at **Vepery**, May 24.
 Alexander, J. R., Esq., Assist.-Surg. **Madras** Establishment, **Bangalore**, April 28.
 Baxter, R., Esq., **Bombay**, May 15.
 Backhouse, Lieut. G. L., H. M.'s 30th Foot, at **Madras**, May 15.
 Booth, G., Esq., of the firm of Watson and Co., **Calcutta**, May 27.
 Clarke, A. E., only son of Capt. W. C. Clarke, H. M.'s 6th Regt., **Colabah**, **Bombay**, May 26.
 Carlow, Ann Clarissa, eldest daughter of Alex., Esq., **Calcutta**, April 20.
 Coayers, J. D., Esq., surviving partner of the firm of Breen and Co., aged 51, **Calcutta**, May 28.
 Dandis, H. R., Ens., 13th N. I., lately, at **Gooty**.
 Edwards, Ellen, daughter of the late Capt., 25th N. I., aged 16, **Calcutta**, May 26.
 Frier, Capt. Wm., late Commander of the *Cassandra*, at sea.
 Hall, Major-Gen. H., commanding the South. Div. of the Army, at **Madras**, May 12.
 Lyon, the wife of the Rev. C. J., Chaplain to the Forces, at **Trincomalee**, June 3.
 Mackay, Capt., W. H., H. M.'s 3d Foot, aged 35, at **Colabah**, **Bombay**, May 20.
 Monro, J., Esq., Civ. Serv., at **Palamcottah**, May 23.

Murray, the Hon. Mrs. L. G. K., at **Madras**, May 12.
 Mowart, Lieut., G. S., 12th N. I., at **Conada**, near **Vizianagum**, April 28.
 Rose, C. P., Capt., 50th N. I., at **Mangalore**, May 28.
 Stoddart, Mrs., relict of the late Qu.-Mas. J. Stoddard, H. M.'s 34th Reg., at **Hongolie**, May 26.
 Skitter, Capt., W. S., aged 41, at **Howra**, **Calcutta**, May 24.
 Scott, Wm., Esq., Assist.-Revenue Surveyor, of the Survey-General Department, May 26.
 Tobin, Lieut., H. M.'s 30th Foot, at **Fort St. George**, May 26.
 Vernon, Lieut. G., H. C.'s Marines, aged 31, **Mazagon**, **Bombay**, May 8.
 Watts, George, Esq., of the firm of Watts and Heath, **Fenchurch-street**, at **Cedar Grove**, **Richmond**, on the 22d instant, aged 63.

SHIPPING INTELLIGENCE.

ARRIVALS FROM EASTERN PORTS.

Date.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Place of Depart.	Date.
1827.					1827.
Nov. 12	Liverpool ..	Farmer ..	Leggett ..	N. S. W.	June 18
Nov. 12	Downs ..	Norna ..	Herd ..	N. S. W.	July 31
Nov. 12	Dover ..	Rosanna ..	Morgan ..	Mauritius	June 26
Nov. 12	Dover ..	Wm. Maitland ..	Gill ..	Cape ..	Aug. 25
Nov. 13	Dover ..	Dove ..	Truscott ..	Bengal ..	July 3
Nov. 26	Liverpool ..	Indian Chief ..		Madras ..	July 15
Nov. 26	London ..	General Palmer			

ARRIVALS IN EASTERN PORTS.

Date.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Port of Depart.
1827.				
June 16	Madras ..	Bombay ..	Charritie ..	London
July 15	Straits of Sunda	Kellie Castle ..	Ladd ..	London
July 15	Straits of Sunda	Alfred ..	Pearson ..	London
July 27	Bengal ..	Isabella ..	Fyfe ..	London
Aug. 13	Cape ..	Vibilia ..	Stephenson ..	London
Aug. 16	Cape ..	Henry Porcher ..	Jeffery ..	London
Aug. 17	Cape ..	Clyde ..	Munro ..	London
Aug. 23	Cape ..	Security ..	Ross ..	London

DEPARTURES FROM EUROPE.

Date.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Destination.
1827.				
Oct. 27	Deal ..	Frances ..	Heard ..	Cape & Mau.
Oct. 28	Liverpool ..	Somerby ..	Holmes ..	Mauritius
Nov. 5	Downs ..	Cumberland ..	Steel ..	Bombay
Nov. 5	Portsmouth ..	Lalla Rookh ..	M'Callum ..	Madras
Nov. 10	Gravesend ..	Coventry ..	Purdie ..	St. Helena
Nov. 12	Deal ..	Peru ..	Graham ..	Mauritius
Nov. 14	Cowes ..	London ..	Fotheringham	Batavia
Nov. 14	Downs ..	Auriga ..	Walford ..	Bengal
Nov. 17	Portsmouth ..	Satellite (H.M.S.)	Law ..	Bengal
Nov. 17	Greenock ..	M. Stuart Elphin.	Ritchie ..	Bombay
Nov. 18	Portsmouth ..	Undaunted (H.M.S.)	Clifford ..	Bengal
Nov. 18	Plymouth ..	Mary Ann ..	O'Brien ..	Mad. & Beng.
Nov. 20	Deal ..	Patience ..	Matthews ..	Cape
Nov. 22	Plymouth ..	Exmouth ..	Graham ..	Bombay
Nov. 22	Greenock ..	Fortune ..	Gilkinson ..	Bombay
Nov. 23	Liverpool ..	Bolivar ..	Winder ..	Bombay

General List of Passengers.

GENERAL LIST OF PASSENGERS.

PASSENGERS HOMEWARDS.

By the *General Palmer*, from Madras:—Capts. Bell, Guessia, 41st reg., Domes, 46th reg.; Lieuts. Harding, Shaldon, Baudy, Prettyman, M'Cready, Collins, Homes (died 30th Oct.); Drs. Cumming, Bell, Job; Messrs. Mounsey, Ogilvie, Lewis; Mrs. and Miss Cochrane; Master and Misses Ogilvie; Master Pife; Mesdames Lewis, Job, Collins, and child; 32 invalids.

By the *Africa*, from Bengal:—Capt. Cornfoot; Messrs. Lawrence and Wellen.

PASSENGER OUTWARDS.

By the *Mary Ann*, for Madras and Bengal:—Major Edw. Osborne, 2d reg. N. I.; Capts. F. Brind, Beng. Artil., T. Hide, 43d reg. Mad. N. I., T. Warner, 18th reg. Mad. N. I., J. Nkol, and J. W. Moneriffe, 23d reg. Mad. N. I.; Assist. Surgs. J. Owen and J. Houe; H. Woolaston, Esq.; E. Impey, Esq., Civ. Serv.; J. Darby, Esq.; Cadets T. James, P. Barnett, W. Mackenzie, T. S. Jarvis; Messrs. J. R. Moneriffe, W. and H. Fitzpatrick; Mesdames Mainwaring, Napier, and Warner; Misses Showers, Hodges, Wilkinson, Warner, Hennessey, Maria, Mary, and Eliza Green; three English and five Native servants.

POSTSCRIPT.

THE past month has been productive of no intelligence of public interest from India of a later date than that given in our last; and as we have incorporated, among the general articles of our present Number, such extracts from the principal Indian Papers as remained unpublished on our hands, it has been unnecessary to offer any General Summary of News,—the details of particular intelligence being all given under the several classified heads to which they respectively belong.

SECOND POSTSCRIPT.

The papers brought by the *Indian Chief* are to the 4th of July. The discussion on the Stamp Act continued to agitate the public mind at Calcutta. On the 3d, by the concession of the Court as a favour, the right being denied, counsel was heard against the Regulations. The whole of the first day's sitting was occupied by the speech of Mr. Winter.

A meeting, for taking into consideration the erection of a monument to Lord Hastings, was to take place on the 9th of July.

The ship *John*, Captain Dawson, from the Mauritius, and latterly from Ceylon and Madras, salt-laden, struck on the western sea reef, June 30, and was totally lost. The Chief Officer, and twelve of her crew, reached the Honourable Company's ship *Windsor*, at the new anchorage that night. Captain Dawson, with two passengers, (Lieut. Warren, of his Majesty's service, from Madras, and a surgeon, not named, from the Isle of France,) with six of the ship's crew, were left on the wreck. The boats of the *Windsor* had gone to their assistance, with what success was not known.

The *General Palmer* has just arrived from Madras, whence she sailed on the 15th July, bringing intelligence of the decease of Sir Thomas Munro, the late Governor of that Presidency. Sir Thomas was about embarking on board his Majesty's ship *Tamar* for England, which ship sailed two days prior to the *General Palmer*. It forms a somewhat remarkable coincidence that his death occurred about the time that his successor, Mr. Luashington, left this country.

It is understood to have been determined by the Board of Control, that a new Presidency, to be termed that of Central India, shall be forthwith established.

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most instrumental in removing the evils of the existing system, and advancing the progress of those benefits which may be fairly expected to result from a better one, the conjoint sentiments of men, writing with that local knowledge of the country, its capacities and its interests, which, next to a sound judgment, is considered the best qualification for informing others not possessed of this advantage.

In that portion of his work directed to the consideration of the distressed state of Ireland, and the relief which might be afforded to this quarter of the empire in particular, as well as to the whole system of public wealth in Great Britain generally, by the opening of Canada to a free trade in grain, and to the benefits of an extended colonization—topics which we discussed at considerable length, in the article before adverted to; * the writer adds:

‘But it is not that this new system of public wealth should receive nourishment from the colonization and free trade of Canada only: it should receive nourishment from the colonization and free trade of India, and, if no unworthy and contracted policy forbid our re-possession of it, from the colonization and free trade of Egypt also. But the class of colonists required for India is very different from that which is required for Canada. In Canada, population is wanted, and cultivators of the soil: the greater the number of her colonists, the greater will be her prosperity; and therefore no portion of the globe can be better adapted for the reception and support of the numerous population and hardy peasantry of Ireland. But in India, population is already far too great; and it is not those who labour that are wanted, but those who are capable of directing the labour of others; men who are acquainted with the practice and theory of agriculture and irrigation for the land, and master workmen, who are acquainted with the principles of mechanism, and the application of machinery to manufactures for the towns; as it is only by the introduction of the skill, science, and intelligence of Europe, by means of such colonists, that any effectual improvement can be made.’

What are the particular views entertained by the writer as to our right to the ‘re-possession’ of Egypt, we do not understand. That such a country, under European skill, might be made a garden of happiness and abundance, no man who has ever travelled on the banks of the Nile can doubt. If the Turks could be induced, by compensation in any shape, to cede its possession to England, the connecting link between India and this country would be worth a large price indeed. Of this, however, there seems but little probability at the present moment; though, from the threatening aspect of affairs in that quarter of the world, it would be unsafe to predict the continuance of any particular province under its present rulers for any number of years.

The most important part of the paragraph we have quoted from Mr. Wheatley's work, is that which draws the distinction between the class of colonists required for Canada and India. In general, whenever the Colonization of India is mentioned, the idea is instantly entertained that its advocates wish to transfer the surplus and pauper population of Great Britain to find subsistence as labourers, mechanical and agricultural, in Hindoostan: and accordingly it is immediately objected to this assumed intention, that the climate of India would be altogether unfavourable to English labourers, and that the cheapness with which a rice-eating idolater can subsist, compared with a beef-eating Christian, would make the wages of the latter altogether inadequate to his support. All this is undoubtedly true: but it is here an argument misplaced. For the advocates of Colonization in India do not want to see English labourers, but English directors of labour, capitalists, agriculturists, manufacturers, engineers, &c.; and these are precisely the classes and descriptions of men of which the East India Company are most jealous, and whom they effectually exclude, by the system which requires all such persons to reside in the country (if they visit it at all) on a license of sufferance, to be taken from them, and themselves banished whenever the Government may see fit: a tenure of such insecurity that few or none would embark in any great enterprise, or risk much property under its capricious duration. The greatest obstacle of all, however, to the Colonization of India, and without a repeal of which, indeed, no approach to it can ever be made, is the unjust and absurd law which prevents individuals of purely British birth becoming proprietors of land, while it admits to this privilege even the illegitimate offspring of British fathers and native Indian mothers, as well as the descendants of the Portuguese settlers, and all who come under the denomination of Indo-British, Anglo-Indian, or half-caste, meaning the whole progeny of mixed European and Asiatic blood, from whatever national stock, born and residing in India. This Mr. Wheatley, in common with all others who have ever turned their attention to the subject, has perceived, and he thus adverts to it:

‘But no benefit can arise from any system of colonization, unless permission, in the first instance, be granted to British subjects to become proprietors of land, with the consequent permission to convey the produce which they raise to England: for while the practical effect resulting from the theory of the balance of trade, that of admitting money only, and excluding produce, continues a part of our colonial law, nothing more can be done for promoting the relations between India and England, than can be done for promoting the relations between Canada and England, as no good can ensue from raising produce, which when raised is not to be admitted; and therefore, if liberty were given to any set of colonists to proceed to India for the purpose of furthering the interests of agriculture, no advantage could