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THE COMMERCIAL AND AGRICULTURAL MAGAZINE, FOR 1800.

VOL. III.

FROM JULY TO DECEMBER,

INCLUSIVE.

LONDON:

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY VAUGHAN GRIFFITHS,

PATERNOSTER-ROW.

THE

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PREFACE.

THE circumſtances of the preſent diſtreſſing Scarcity, have turned the attention of the public very generally to Agriculture. Hence we too have received a full quantity of communication on that topic; nor are we fearful of giving offence by an unequal appropriation of our pages between Agriculture and Commerce: we wiſh our Magazine to conſtitute a link of connection and mutual information between theſe occupations, the moſt important to the welfare of mankind.

On the ſubject of the Threſhing Machine we have beſtowed much attention; it promiſes a diminution of the uſual waſte of corn by careleſs threſhing. We have been promiſed additional information of this Machine, and hope that the next year will ſee it adopted into general uſe. The ſpeculation on the general principle and increment of fertility, may hereafter make a revolution in Agriculture.—Many minor diſcuſſions in this occupation, are to be found in the preſent volume; but theſe fade before the grand queſtions, whoſe proper ſolution will have conſiderable influence on the plenty or ſcarcity of future times. Hence on the ſubject of a general Incloſure of Waſte Lands, we have been very copious: we hope we may add, not unuſefully. The expedience of large farms is alſo amply diſcuſſed and determined; and we have been able to inſert a novel idea on the important conſideration of a general and laſting Commutation of Tythes.

The ſevere preſſure of the Scarcity has (as uſual) excited a clamour about Monopoly; on this topic, we have rather attempted to convince the mind, than to pleaſe the palate of our readers. A contrary conduct in moſt of the public prints, has threatened preſent famine, and future deſolation: luckily, the Miniſter has ſtood firm in the breach; and thus has certainly done more good, than will balance againſt the weight of more evil than even his political opponents object to his long adminiſtration.

The papers on the Coal Trade, on the Wet Docks, on Egyptian Commerce, on a Court-Merchant, and many others, mark our attention to Commercial Affairs. In Navigation, we have been ſo fortunate as firſt to regiſter the bold innovation of the five-maſted ſhip: the deſcription and remarks on it, will engage the attention of every naval reader.

To the Manufactures of our own, and of foreign countries, we have alſo been attentive: the mode of building in Piſè, and the improvements in Rope-making, are important.

PREFACE.

Of general queſtions of Political Economy, we have been mindful: to the ſtate of the poor, the price of grain, and (above all) to diſpute on the exiſtence of baneful Monopoly, many of our pages are dedicated. The reviewing department has been ably ſupported; its confinement within our own line has had the beſt effect. Thus, on appropriate publications, we have been able to be more copious than our limits ſeem to admit.

The general news of the month is carefully concentrated; and the enlargement of the Price Tables has been acceptable to many of our Readers. Little miſcellaneous matter has been admitted; indeed we are indebted for ſo many numerous voluntary communications on ſubjects of general utility, that for delightful, but barren diſcuſſion, we have little room.

On a general retroſpect of the preſent volume, we are well ſatisfied in the ſucceſs of our cares, and as the public have thought fit to encourage us with an augmented ſale, we are equally bound by gratitude and intereſt not to intermit our vigilance, or our exertions. We are well aware of the poſſibility of farther improvement; but for intrinſic UTILITY, may already ſafely challenge compariſon with any contemporary publication.

December 30th, 1800.

THE
Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

No. XII.] JULY, 1800. [VOL. III.

HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE THRESHING MACHINE.

WE have been induced to poſtpone (to the utmoſt limits of the patience of our readers) the promiſed Plate of the Threſhing Machine. The delay has ariſen from a repugnance to preſent deluſive information to the public; and we have no ſooner felt a conviction of the perfect execution of one of the Machines in Threſhing, than we haſted to procure a Drawing of it, for the Frontiſpiece of the twelfth number of our Magazine.

The Threſhing Machine was chiefly the invention of Mr. Andrew Meikle, a deſcendant of the man, who, at the riſk of his life, firſt introduced, from Holland, the art of making pearl-barley into Scotland. A patent was procured for the Threſhing Machine; but ſet aſide by the failure of a ſuit, commenced by the Patentee againſt Mr. Reſtrick, an inhabitant of Northumberland. We believe the jury determined that the Threſhing Machine was not *entirely* the invention of Mr. Meikle. Hence it is luckily thrown open to the public, and the probability of farther improvements much increaſed by the more numerous makers, who will bend their efforts to this point. The incentive of profit will keep them all on the alert.

The plate exhibits, at fig. 1. a Perſpective View of the Machine; at fig. 2. a Plan, or rather a bird's-eye View of it.—For more luminous explanation the reſpective letters on the plate refer to the *ſame* parts, both on the view and the plan. A two-horſe Threſhing Machine was choſen for repreſentation, as likely to become moſt generally uſeful. (A) is the horſe-wheel, 9 feet diameter; the top of its circumference contains 156 caſt-iron cogs. Theſe cogs turn a pinion wheel (B) of 19 cogs, whoſe axis is continued through the ſpur-wheel (C). This ſpur-wheel has 96 cogs; the pinion-wheel (D) on which it acts, 12 cogs. The axis of this pinion-wheel, continued through the drum (E) turns it with great rapidity. On the drum are ſeen (in the perſpective view) three of the ſix beaters, which act with aſtoniſhing force on the corn. The apparatus for offering the corn to the blow of theſe beaters is thus contrived. Into the end of the axis of the ſpur-wheel (C) is fixed a ſmall iron cylinder, or roller, ſeen at (F). It is cut in deep grooves, longitudinally (lengthwiſe), and at its end (J) ſeen in the plan (fig. 2.) has a ſmall-toothed-wheel, which, connecting with a

ſimilar wheel, at the end of a ſimilar roller, carries it alſo round, with the *ſame* velocity, but in an *oppoſite* direction. The grooves of both rollers, thus turning inwards, ſeize, with irreſiſtible force, and hurry forward whatever is preſented to their graſp. A ſloping board (the ſituation of which is marked at G) is attached ſo as to almoſt touch the iron rollers: on this the feeder of the machine ſpreads (as equally as poſſible) the corn; which, with a uniform pace, is thus ſubmitted to the repeated blows of the beaters. An eaſy calculation demonſtrates that, for every turn of the horſe-wheel, the wooden cylinder (called the drum) muſt turn no leſs than 66 times (about 25 miles per hour), each of which turns gives ſix blows to the corn. The thickneſs of the iron rollers is ſo contrived, that three ſtrokes are given to each inch of any thing that paſſes through them.—Thus it is next to impoſſible that an ear of corn can paſs without a blow, though it ſhould be offered ſide-ways; and the grooves in the rollers hold the ſtraw ſo faſt that a very conſiderable reſiſtance is oppoſed to the blow of the beaters, by the corn.

The diameter of the drum, in this two-horſe Machine, is 3 feet 2 inches; the length of the beaters, 3 feet 7 inches. In a four-horſe Machine, the diameter of the drum is 4 feet; length of beaters, 4 feet 6 inches. The price of a four-horſe Threſhing Machine, 100 guineas;—of a two-horſe ditto, 60 guineas. The firſt will threſh out about 30 quarters, in ten hours—the other, about 12 or 14. If a ſingle horſe be uſed in the two-horſe Machine, the feeder muſt offer the corn in leſs quantity, and the horſe's labour will not be over violent.

A Threſhing Machine, on a ſtill ſmaller ſcale, is conſtructed to work by two men. If A, B, C, of the fig. 1 and 2, were ſuppoſed removed, and a heavy fly-wheel hung on in the place of the pinion-wheel D, an accurate idea may be immediately formed of this ſmall Machine. It has handles in the axis of an iron-wheel, whoſe cogs, acting on a ſmaller wheel (alſo at D) impart the requiſite rapidity of motion to the drum E E. The great convenience of this Machine is, that its moderate ſize and ſimple apparatus ſuffer it to be *removed in a cart*, without much trouble; ſo that two or three farmers may be partners in the expence of it, uſing it alternately; or it may be ſhifted to different yards, on the ſame farm. The inconvenience is, that it employs two men to do a poney's, or an aſſe's work; thus coſting about four times as much to work it; about a penny a buſhel more for threſhing. We were minute in our enquiries, whether it was impoſſible to apply a horſe-wheel to this handy Machine, which, in that caſe, would ſoon become univerſal; but the want of ſufficient ſtability (in a moveable Machine) to bear the action of a horſe, was alledged. As a fixed Machine, a proportionable horſe-wheel might, of courſe, be applied to it.

Without a horſe-wheel it coſts 22 guineas; with a horſe-wheel 34 guineas. Probably the ſhed to cover the out-door work (A, B, C, D,) might complete the expence to 40 guineas. In Leiceſterſhire, Machines of this ſize have been tried with ſucceſs. They threſh out about five quarters in ten hours; and are, therefore, quite large enough for moſt farms. If ſuch a Machine can be contrived portable, we ſhall announce it. We have ſeen Models of Machines, much more complex, which winnow the corn; and even ſome which carry the manufacture to the laſt ſtage, by grinding it into flour. We ſhall be well ſatisfied if our plate and deſcription give a complete idea of the Threſhing Apparatus only; for it is not eaſy to repreſent ſolid bodies, of an unuſual form, on paper. The moſt feaſible addition we have ſeen conſiſts of an axis, beſet with many ſhort ſpokes, and turning rapidly among the threſhed ſtraw. The ſtraw is thrown on high, and far from the Machine, and the corn falls nearer to it. But, probably, a rake is a more œconomical inſtrument for this purpoſe.

The advantages of a Threſhing Machine are very conſiderable. To the landlord, it would ſave the heavy expence of barn floors, which is ſo ſerious, that a landlord's intereſt ought to induce him to encourage the uſe of theſe Machines, by defraying *half* the prime coſt. The farmer ſaves much of the expence of threſhing, and is ſure that his corn will be threſhed uniformly well. This is of much moment; it is coſtly to feed ſwine with wheat. The ſtraw is completely bruiſed by the grooves of the iron rollers, ſo that it is much more reliſhed by the cattle as fodder. On the other hand, it is ſpoiled for thatching, and not ſaleable in the London market; but the common practice of making (what is called) reed, by ſeparating the ears before threſhing, obviates the firſt inconvenience, in countries where houſes are thatched; and as to ſelling the ſtraw, it is a practice which does injuſtice to the farm. An objection to a fixed Threſhing Machine is obvious, in that it compels to carry all the corn to one yard. In a ſcattered farm, this is a ſerious inconvenience.

An objection alſo exiſts in the neceſſity (at preſent) of fetching a bulky Machine from a diſtance; for no difference, in the firſt expence, can compenſate for a bad Machine. Its friction will treble the labour: indeed, the improvements in this reſpect are viſible already, ſince the ſmalleſt Machine we have deſcribed does more work than, at firſt, a ſix-horſe Machine performed. But as the Machine is taken to pieces, and packed in a ſmall compaſs, the carriage is not ſo coſtly as might be expected.

An induſtrious workman, of the name of Stevenſon, (foreman to the late Mr. Winlaw) has conſtructed almoſt all the Threſhing Machines in England, and the facility with which his laſt made Machines move by hand, and the length of time they con-

tinue to go after motion is imparted, is a ſure warrant of accurate workmanſhip, and diminiſhed friction. A material improvement (of this man's invention) is the addition of iron plates on the ſurface of the beaters: hence, by two ſcrews, the beater may be ſet at any diſtance from the rollers. His place of abode is No. 74, Margaret Street, Cavendiſh Square.

We conclude this article by cautioning the public againſt thoſe Machines which are made to ſtrike upward: they are neceſſarily formed with a circular cover, within which the wad of ſtraw is to be puſhed round by the beaters. This augments the labour, without any good effect.

In ſome future month, when leſs correſpondence is waiting admittance, we ſhall probably ſay ſomething more of the effects of the important invention of a THRESHING MACHINE.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

ON BURNET.

By a Gentleman Cultivator, our Correſpondent, in Staffordſhire.

I Had read ſo much of the medical properties of Burnet, for the uſe of cattle, particularly ſheep, and had, beſides, formerly ſeen the plant cultivated in a diſtant county, to ſo much profit, that I determined to make the experiment. But my land being ſtiff and cold, I ſowed burnet, both in ſpring and autumn, to very little purpoſe. Few of the plants came up, and of thoſe which did, the roots were ſo exceſſive weak, that even the wind would nearly blow them out of the ground. As to the treading of cattle, a few ſheep breaking in, deſtroyed my whole crop, to appearance; or, if any was left, the winter's froſt and wet finiſhed it; nor were there enough, in the following June, to have made one quarter of a load of hay upon an acre.

Not diſcouraged, I determined laſt autumn to try the event of preparing an acre of land for burnet. I fixed upon the higheſt and drieſt ſpot on my farm, cleaned it well, chalked, and laid it up all winter: in April, having a heap of dry rubbiſh and light earth, ſimilar to road ſtuff, or ſcrapings of roads, I ſpread ſo large a quantity on the prepared ground, well mixing it with the upper ſtaple, as to change the nature of the ſoil, and render it, as I ſuppoſed, more congenial with burnet. The ſpeculation did not deceive me. I ſowed, as ſoon as the cold rains granted me a ſeaſon, which, however, was late; and am, whilſt writing this, ſuperintending the cutting a very fine crop of young burnet, which we give to a milch cow, a ſaddle horſe, and ſome unthrifty lambs, which were injured by cold and wet, in the early ſpring. The cow gives plenty of good rich milk, the horſe thrives, and is firm in his body, although he gets very few oats, and the lambs have obviouſly mended, and become

friſky, ſince they have been fed upon the burnet, which is carried to them, ſeveral times a day, upon a bare common.

Burnet is not an unpleaſant ſalad, the flavour is aromatic and aſtringent, and the effect of the herb warming and nutritious to the animal body. The leaves are indented, and not unlike parſley. It has a tap-root, ſimilar to lucern, or ſainfoin, whence iſſue a number of ſtems, bearing leaves upon them in a feather form. It is a pleaſant crop of herbage to look at. Standing thin, and in the drill form, is plainly the beſt adapted to this plant; a method I ſhall immediately purſue; being determined, by the convenience my little crop of this year has afforded me, to cultivate as many acres as I can find the materials to prepare. I can venture ſtrongly to recommend it to thoſe who live upon a dry light ſoil, as I have no doubt but it would, if drilled, produce a large and valuable bulk, either green or dry; and it has the additional recommendation, when arrived at perfection, that it defies the froſts in winter; and, if in hay, is exceedingly comforting and nouriſhing to cattle, in the ſevere ſeaſon.

May 9th, 1800. J. P. H.

ON HYDROPHOBIA.

BY DR. VANDER BORCK.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

SOME ſtrange relations which I have heard during my reſidence in this country, and ſeveral fatal accidents which I have been ſo unfortunate as to witneſs, have induced me to requeſt a corner of your extremely uſeful and philoſophical publication, for a few obſervations on that moſt dreadful of all morbid viſitations, hydrophobia, or canine madneſs.

It was well demanded by a celebrated writer of your country, How can you expect that men will take advice, who will not even take warning. Although an age has paſſed ſince this queſtion was aſked, and mankind, during ſuch a period, may be ſuppoſed to have obtained a large ſhare of additional experience, yet the queſtion ſeems, even now, to have loſt nothing of its original force and applicability. Men are juſt as careleſs as ever on the ſubject of dogs, in every country, keeping an enormous number of uſeleſs ones, in a ſtarving, diſeaſed, and dangerous ſtate, or in conſtant habits of fatneſs and luxurious indolence, equally dangerous to the health of the animals; taking no precautions, uſing no means of prevention againſt the threatened approach of a ſcourge, which ever has, probably, ever will, defy all remedy, and which is the conſummation of all human calamity!

The prejudices and follies of certain phyſicians, yet men of eminence and ability in the other branches of their profeſſion, have

had no ſmall ſhare in foſtering the apathy and indolent ſtupidity of the people. It may be remarked by a curious obſerver, that our medical faculty, however learned, has ever been pre-eminent for the haſty adoption, and pertinacious defence of the moſt abſurd, unphiloſophical, and even ridiculous opinions; and if, Sir, the nature of your Miſcellany would admit of profeſſional diſcuſſion in that line, I could confirm my propoſition with a cloud of proofs, ancient and modern, from Bumbaſtus and Van Helmont to the Prince of Quacks, John Brown, whoſe raſh and indiſcriminating theories have made more fops and ideots than the art magic; to the ſhrewd and indefatigable ******** who ſo well knows how to turn to account the inſatiate, never-failing itch for novelty in the people. Phyſicians have held the ſtrange, or rather inſane opinion, that canine madneſs is incommunicable to the human ſpecies; that there is, in reality, no other danger in the bite of a rabid animal than ſimply that of a wound; and its common conſequences, if we except the ill effects which mere apprehenſion may induce in ſuſceptible and irritable minds.—They have ventured to publiſh, and even circulate with induſtry, ſuch perilous opiates amongſt the people. Can more convincing proofs be required than the number of inſtances, and that a true and legitimate *rabies* was never otherwiſe produced than from the bite of a dog, or of ſome other rabid animal? The example of Egypt, and other Southern Countries, has been urged, where no ſuch diſeaſe has ever been known to afflict the human race, in conſequence of the bite of dogs, or any other animals; but with this ought to be included, that neither are the animals of theſe countries ever ſubject to madneſs, which, with brutes, ſeems to be a ſeptentrional diſeaſe.

Did but one inſtance of the horrid diſeaſe under ſpeculation occur in a century, it would warrant the moſt rigid precautions. In the firſt place, no country ought to entertain ſupernumerary dogs, nor ſhould any be ſuffered, by a family, to go at large, *one moment* after the diſcovery of their approach to a ſtate of diſeaſe. To venture at preſcriptions, in this caſe, is a taſk peculiarly, and on all accounts, diſcouraging. As to the animals, nothing can be offered, with the ſmalleſt aſſurance of ſucceſs, but preventive remedies; and, at the head of theſe, in my opinion, ſtands SULPHUR, occaſionally given in ſkimmed milk, once or twice, daily, during ſix or ſeven ſucceſſive days, to thoſe dogs or cats, more particularly, which are conſtantly well fed. This medicine perſevered in, at proper ſeaſons, will indubitably have ſalutary effects upon the blood, upon the nervous and cuticular ſyſtem of the animal; and, in good probability, prevent thoſe exacerbations of the diſeaſe, ſhould it actually ſupervene, which lead to ſuch fatal accidents. I can farther corroborate the theory, by obſerving, that it met the full approbation of my late learned and regretted

friend, the celebrated *Tiſſot*, with whom I have had many and ſolemn conſultations on the ſubject. I do not pretend there is any novelty in this remedy; on the contrary, nothing is more common than its partial and deſultory exhibition, whence only its inſufficient effects. The fallibility of all remedies for the human patient muſt not diſcourage our efforts, which ought to be unremitting. On the Ormſkirk, and other Engliſh and foreign quack medicines, on ſea-bathing, on exſection of the better part, and even on mercurial courſes, it is well known no abſolute dependance can be placed; but it is yet probable that no articles of the *Materica Medica* afford ſuch rational hopes as mercury, camphor, and ſulphur; and that exſection having been performed, or the actual cautery uſed, no courſe, in ſome conſtitutions, would be more ſucceſsful than repeated ſalivations.

Of the horrid conſequences of the bite of a mad dog, the facts are innumerable. About ſixty years ago a young man, in this country, having received a bite, to which no attention was paid, and being married ſix months afterwards, was, on the wedding night, ſeized with the moſt exalted rabies, and murdered his bride, by literally tearing out her entrails with his nails and teeth.—A fact of ſimilar horror, if I am rightly informed, has, not many years ſince, happened in Scotland. A man tore his wife to pieces, in the ſame way, and was himſelf found dead in the morning, his brains having been beat out againſt the walls. What is ſingular, in this caſe, the *rabies* was attributed to the man's having eaten eels, from a pond, in which had been thrown the carcaſe of a mad dog: the circumſtance has given the inhabitants of the diſtrict an extreme averſion to eels, which is ſaid to be ſtrengthened by the obſervation, that the eel has been ſeen to intercopulate with the water-adder.

EMANUEL EUPEN VANDER BORCK.

Margate, 16th July, 1800.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

IN travelling through the different counties of this kingdom, I was greatly ſurpriſed to find, (in almoſt every one of them) the implements uſed in Agriculture of a different form and make: rarely can you find any two adjoining counties, whoſe implements (in general uſe) are not of a different form, though the quality of their lands is nearly the ſame.

I ſhould be glad to learn, from ſome of your numerous and intelligent correſpondents, through your intereſting Magazine, what may be the cauſe of this great variety of forms? Whether it ariſes from the exertion of genius to improve, or from the extreme repugnance with which improvements are received, or from any other cauſe?

From the extenſive circulation of your Magazine, in the Agricultural as well as Commercial World, and in an age of enquiry, a diſquiſition of this kind may not be unintereſting to your Agricultural Readers; and, in the end, prove of ſome advantage to the public, by weakening that prejudice, which is in no ſmall degree too prevalent among that claſs of ſociety, and impreſs upon their minds the great importance of the abridgment of labour, by the juſt application of the mechanic powers, in the conſtruction of implements, upon rational principles.

As the Board of Agriculture have offered a Gold Medal to the perſon who ſhall give the beſt account (with drawings) of the various implements of huſbandry, I hope that will excite an emulation worthy the genius of our country, in this moſt important detail of Agriculture. Your's,

WILLIAM LESTER.

Patent Harrow and Chaff Engine Manufactory,
Northampton, July 19th, 1800.

We wiſh to ſecond Mr. Leſter's requeſt to our Correſpondents. E.

An Improvement in the Expenditure of Garden Cabbagees.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

CONVINCED of your deſire of obtaining every hint towards the improvement of the field or garden culture, for the benefit of your readers and the public, I beg leave to preſent you with the following, which I practiſe with ſucceſs, though ſome are not aware of it, and which many who are, ſlight, I think, without ſufficient reaſon. When a cabbage is in perfection, and you wiſh to cut it, inſtead of ſevering the whole from the ſtalk, in the common method, ſcoop out only the loaf, or heart, which is to be eaten, leaving all the large lower leaves entire and untouched. The conſequence will be the production, in due time, of another young cabbage, ſuperior or more in flavour, if not quite equal in ſize, to the firſt growth.—Quere, would not this anſwer in the field culture?—we return you thanks for the abundant amuſement and inſtruction your excellent Publication has afforded us, in this part of the country.

I am, Sir, with reſpect,

Your moſt humble Servant,

CLERICUS.

King's Lynn, Norfolk,
June 28, 1800.

We inſert an extract from one of the publications of the National Inſtitute at Paris: It proves, that we Britons are ſo much more fortunate than our Neighbours, that while we *talk* of famine, they demonſtrate its unhappy effects in the increaſe of mortality; whereas, it appears, no *ſuch* indication of want of ſuſtenance, or of unwholeſome food, has ever appeared in England. E.

ARITHMETICAL PROOFS OF THE NECESSITY OF ENCOURAGING AGRICULTURE, AND OF ABANDONING THE SYSTEM OF PROCURING GRAIN BY MEANS OF COMMERCE.

By Anthony Diannyère, Aſſociated Member of the National Inſtitute of France.

IT is well known, that in the moſt calamitous ſeaſons, that during the winter of 1788-9, the hardeſt fare of the poor was, in London, wheaten bread, from which the bran and oatmeal were taken; in Paris, the like ſort of bread, and potatoes mixed with fat, and for thoſe of Lyons, bread made from rye and wheat, from whence they had taken the fine flour, and left the reſt. Thus, bread formed a leſs conſiderable portion of the ſubſiſtence of the poor at Lyons than at Paris, and at Paris, than at London; I call *poor*, all thoſe who have no property, and who, either by reaſon of their age or their infirmities, cannot procure themſelves the neceſſaries of life.

We know, at the ſame time, the government of England paid little attention to the ſubſiſting of London, and that the French government were very attentive to that of Lyons, and more ſo to that of Paris.

Let us now ſee, for forty years, what have been the effects of the greateſt care of each govetnment, for proviſioning, as well Paris, as Lyons, and Lyons, as London; and the effects of the ſcarcity of corn on the general mortality at London and at Paris, and of the number of ſick and dead in the *Hotels Dieu* of Paris and Lyons.

I would willingly compare directly the mortality of London and Lyons, and the number of ſick and dead in the hoſpitals of London, with the ſame in the *Hotel Dieu* of Lyons and Paris. But Meſſance, who has furniſhed me with my facts, makes no mention of the mortality at Lyons, nor of the number of ſick or dead in the hoſpitals of London; and I have no where been able to find facts ſo eaſy to be collected, and yet ſo important.

I divide the forty years into periods of ten years each. I unite the five years, in which corn has been the deareſt, the general mortality of the ſame years for London and Paris, and the number of ſick and dead alſo for the ſame years at the *Hotels Dieu* of Paris and Lyons. I find, that at London, an increaſe in the price of grain, does not always produce an increaſe of mortality, but always cauſes one at Paris; and that at Paris and Lyons it produces always an increaſe both of the ſick and dead in their reſpective hoſpitals; and reckoning the ſmalleſt number as equal to unity, I form the following table.

Comparative View of the Increaſe in the Price of Grain at London, Paris, and Lyons, with the Mortality in general, and the Number of Sick and Dead in the Hotels Dieu of Paris and Lyons.

Towns.	Years.	Exceſs of the price of corn during		Exceſs of mortality in general, during the five years in which corn has been		Exceſs in the hoſpitals for the five deareſt years.	
		The five years in which it has been the higheſt over the five others.	The higheſt year over that in which it has been the loweſt.	The deareſt over the other five.	The cheapeſt over the other five.	Sick.	Dead.
London.	1714 to 23	0 161	0 481	—	0 094		
	1724—33	0 471	1 076	0 004	—		
	1734—43	0 304	0 853	0 064	—		
	1744—53	0 165	0 495	—	0 004		
Paris.	1724—33	0 754	1 844	0 077	—	0 046	0 136
	1734—43	0 831	2 057	0 286	—	0 282	0 373
	1744—53	0 426	1 184	0 078	—	0 561	0 130
	1754—63	0 256	1 066	0 037	—	0 012	0 010
Lyons.	1724—33	0 247	0 525	—	—	0 001	0 073
	1734—43	0 114	0 426	—	—	0 016	0 009
	1744—53	0 601	1 326	—	—	0 206	0 237
	1754—63	0 286	0 556	—	—	0 048	0 086

Forming afterwards, in the ſame manner, a common ſcale of the exceſs of the price of corn during the year in which it has been higheſt, and a common ſcale of each of the four years of the ſame period in which it has been loweſt, I find the increaſe has been,

	At London.	Lyons.	Paris.
The firſt	0 295	0 312	0 566
The ſecond	0 726	0 718	1 537

Now, as in all counties, whoſe proſperity is progreſſive, the hardſhips on the labouring poor does not conſiſt in the high price of grain, but in the variations of the price; it follows, that the workmen of London have procured more of this neceſſary of life than thoſe of Lyons, and thoſe of Lyons than thoſe of Paris. Now, as the reſpective government attended more to the ſubſiſtence of Paris than of Lyons, of Lyons than of London; it follows, that in the end, the care of the governments to procure ſubſiſtence has had effects preciſely contrary to that which was intended.

Forming likewiſe in the ſame manner, a table of the increaſe of deaths in general, I find, that there has been more deaths at London in the years in which the corn has been loweſt, and that this increaſe has been 0-007; but as Paris now conſtantly preſents, during the five years of each period when the price has been loweſt, an increaſe of deaths, and Lyons, for the ſame years, preſents conſtantly, an increaſe of ſick and dead in their *Hotels Dieu*, and that an event, which for a great number of years has ariſen from another event, ought to be regarded as the effect; when we alſo reflect on the connection of the two effects, and can, with equal eaſe, account for the exception, I will content myſelf with ſaying, "let us endeavour to excel that nation whoſe agriculture in every part is ſo flouriſhing, that the people are not ſenſibly affected by the ſcarcity of an article of the firſt neceſſity.

The exceſs of mortality in general, is therefore, at Paris 0-119, thus, in calling *n* a certain increaſe in the price of grain, the higheſt mortality at Paris will be *n*-4,752.

In forming a like ſcale, for the increaſe of ſick and dead in the *Hotel Dieu* at Paris and that of Lyons, the common increaſe will be

	At Paris.		At Lyons.	
	For Sick.	For the dead.	For Sick.	For the dead.
	6 222 n	0 162 n	0 067 n	0 101 n
And the Formula	2 5495	3 4944	4 6701	3 8010

Thus, the ſame exceſs in the price of corn augmented at the *Hotel Dieu* of Paris, the ſick in a much greater proportion than in that at Lyons, and the number of deaths but little more, although the *Hotel Dieu* at Lyons is not ſo ſalubrious as that at

Paris. It follows, therefore, that to individuals deſtitute of property, it is better to live in a city where there are manufactures whoſe goods have a very variable ſale, and whoſe government trouble themſelves but little about grain, than in a city where there are few manufactures, apparently more reſources, and where the government concern themſelves much about grain. It follows, laſtly, that if the diſorders occaſioned by the ſame increaſe were more mortal at Lyons than at Paris, we ought to encourage every part of agriculture, ſo that the ſubſiſtence of the workmen of the lower claſs, and of the poor, ſhould be compoſed of many articles, becauſe then, an increaſe in the price of one, or, what is the ſame thing, a privation in the conſumption of one of them, would produce a much leſs effect, and would at laſt, as at London, not produce any.

In fact, the common mortality in the *Hotel Dieu* at Paris is 1 in 453. Thus the greateſt increaſe cauſed by increaſe in the price of grain will be expreſſed by the difference between the fractions 0 162 and 0 149, or by the fraction 0 013. The common mortality in the *Hotel Dieu* at Lyons is 1 in 125. Thus the greateſt increaſe then will be expreſſed by the difference between the two fractions 0 1010 and 0 0059, or by the fraction 0 0957, while, if it had been at Lyons as at Paris, it would have been expreſſed by the fraction 0 048.

Suppoſe that the difficulty of ſupply, the ſuſpenſion of labour, a bad harveſt, or any other cauſe, ſhould produce an augmentation in the price of corn 0 566 above its uſual price, and that the ſubſiſtence of individuals, who have nothing to live on but the firſt neceſſaries, be

	Bread.	Meat.	Broth.	Beer.
At London	0 4	0 4	- -	0 2
At Paris	0 4	0 6	- -	- -
At Lyons	0 9	- -	0 1	- -

And this laſt hypotheſis, as far as reſpects Paris, is nearly conformable to the reſult which le Grange has given in his excellent *Eſſay on Political Arithmetic*, inſerted by Rœderer in the collection where this memoir has the honour to be printed. Then the privation of the inhabitants will be,

At London	0 22
At Paris	0 39
At Lyons	0 50

And, according to the ſame eſſay of la Grange, the annual and average conſumption of each individual will be, at Paris, 64,268 livres, or 176 livres a day; and, as we may ſuppoſe it, the ſame for each individual at London and Lyons, the privation will be

At London	6 2 ounces
At Paris	10 7 ounces
At Lyons	14 2 ounces

The firſt may be ſupported, the ſecond cannot, and the third far leſs; but the firſt, although likely, is uncertain, ſince we have no other documents reſpecting the conſumption of London than thoſe I have given; and ſince, notwithſtanding the calculation of Price and other eſtimable men, the population of London ſtill remains a problem. Whatever it may be, it is very certain that they can, without running any great riſk, ſuffer a deprivation of 10-7 ounces of ſubſiſtence daily; and that it is very happy that government have never troubled itſelf with the ſubſiſtence of Lyons, ſince the common increaſe in the price of corn has been 0,566. It is certain, that when bread becomes ſeven-tenths of the nouriſhment, every increaſe in the price is followed by a proportionable increaſe in the number of the ſick and dead.

Laſtly, this increaſe in the price of grain muſt have an influence on the number of ſick and deaths in the following years, which I have not calculated.

From theſe facts I ſhall not draw any concluſions, even the moſt natural, againſt the old government, nor againſt thoſe who have approved, celebrated, and adopted their ſyſtem reſpecting proviſions, I ſhall only ſay; May the dreadful leſſons which thoſe facts teach us, not be loſt; let us carefully enquire into the encouragements neceſſary to be given to agriculture, and let us attend to the moſt proper meaſure to ſecure *liberty* to commerce.

THE CULTURE OF HOPS.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

YOUR ſatirical correſpondent, who, (in the laſt number) at the cloſe of much extraneous matter, has adduced many very pertinent queſtions, among other things aſks, "Is the hop culture favourable to individual, or national profit?" This recalls to my mind a ſingular conviction which I felt when ſojourning in a hop country, that this plant was too kindly treated. The expence of culture is enormous *: for as ſoon as hop planting commences in any ſituation, dung is trebled in price, and nothing but conſiderable diſtance from the hop garden can induce any man to beſtow any on a leſs favourite crop. Your correſpondent proves himſelf a thinking man, by diſtinguiſhing carefully betwixt individual and national profit. In the preſent caſe, the individual probably ſtill gains (certainly *has* gained), and the welfare of the nation has ſuffered ſome diminution. The dung expended on an acre of hop ground precludes the exiſtence of more than an acre of wheat; and as there are about 35,000 acres of hops in England, we may calculate, that about 100,000 quar-

* About 32l. per acre.—Sir C. Middleton.

ters of wheat are thus ſubtracted from the national produce. As it is at leaſt *likely* (in the abſence of any deciſive experiments) that Quaſſia, or perhaps our native May-weed *, are full as good as hops in the brewery, there ſeems no reaſon not to conclude, that this heavy quantity of wheat is not diſſipated for a trifling, at beſt, dubious purpoſe.

However, the increaſing culture of hops plainly proves, that individuals gain by it. Their predilection for it may indeed be partly traced to the love of enterprize, which allures mankind to the lottery, or the gambling table; for brilliant proſpect and example of ſucceſs (however rare) will always induce mankind, confident in perſonal good fortune, to hazard property for uncertain hopes. But the general wealth of hop planting diſtricts, proves that the uſual price more than balances the expences; though it is pleaded, with ſome appearance of juſtice, that the day of ſuperior profit is paſt. This muſt be the caſe in every article of cultivation, when the demand has cauſed an adequate increaſe in the produce. A pamphlet was reviewed in your tenth number, which gave a lamentable picture of the ſituation of the hop planters. I collected information from one of its errors; for it made it evident, that there could be no more than 35,000 acres in England, though it aſſumed 45,000. For, even in the firſt ſuppoſition, gain was annihilated; the nature of things muſt prevent farther loſs. It is not ſo very difficult to grub up a hop ground.

The great objection to the hop culture is evidently the extreme uncertainty of the crop. This is known to be ſuch, that the greateſt attention and ſucceſs ſometimes obtains leſs remuneration than the moſt ſlovenly practice in a neighbour's ground. It may even be obſerved, that the ſelf-planted hops in hedges often ſurpaſs in luxuriance the beſt ordered hop-ground. On theſe facts I would found a great alteration. As dung does not *inſure* a crop of hops, as its abſence does not *inſure* a failure, it ſhould never be applied on ſuch a caſuality. As weeds, and even buſhes, do not *certainly* choak this hardy plant; even careful cultivation ſeems not abſolutely neceſſary. But as both dung and culture are *neceſſary* to moſt other crops, and in them *inſure* a certain proportion of return, on other crops they ſhould be uſed. The accidental ſucceſs of hops, which "will come when it will come," deſerves proportional inattention. I think, that in ſuch a catch crop, the poles ſhould be the chief expence, becauſe the only indiſpenſable requiſite: dung ſhould never be expended on a dubious crop: and the cheap culture of the horſe-hoe, and once hilling, ſhould be the extent of expence in this cultivation.

* Called *morgan* in ſome counties; elſewhere *gooſe-weed*. It reſembles a large daiſy. A man in Derbyſhire has realized a conſiderable property by cultivating it for the brewers.

Thus two thirds of the expence of hop planting would vaniſh, and the chance of ſucceſs remain nearly the ſame. For in a favourable ſeaſon there are hops enough any where; in an unfavourable ſeaſon, no where. This idea of hop culture ſtruck me forcibly from ſeeing an example in point: a hop ground, planted as a new ſpeculation, was (through ignorance of the uſual practices) entirely neglected after the firſt year; poles were indeed fixed, but not even was the ſurface of the ground touched by a hoe, except on the very hills. In the third year (when I ſaw it) it had a very fine crop, about 17 cwt. *per* acre, at leaſt equal to any of the Farnham plantations that year. If the conſideration of the extreme uncertainty of the hop plantation induce any experiments on this plan, they may iſſue in much public benefit. It is not uſual to recommend a ſlovenly culture in any article; but the circumſtances of this caſe, ſeems to require that no more manure be expended on an uncertain ſpeculation. The comparative effects of the manure ought to determine it to the moſt effective application. I think its application in the hop garden is not ſo. I remain,

Your humble ſervant,

LUPULINUS.

DESCRIPTION OF GENTLEMENS' SEATS IN HUNTINGDONSHIRE.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

A laughable paper has been handed to us, as a Deſcription of Gentlemens' Seats in Huntingdonſhire. We are aſſured that it formed part of the report of that county to the Board of Agriculture. It is all equally true of any other county. we give it to our readers as a ridiculous ſpecimen of tumid deſcription never yet ſurpaſſed.

SEVERAL of the ſeats of the noblemen and gentlemen in this county are modern and elegant, others, though ancient, are venerable and majeſtic, and enriched with elegant additions; and many of thoſe that have been recently erected, as well as thoſe that are of the greateſt antiquity, are now ornamented with ſpacious rural lawns, and adorned with widely extended gravelly walks, beautifully meandering, with eaſy ſerpentine turnings, for a conſiderable ſpace round about the circumjacent pleaſure grounds. And the borders contiguous to theſe pleaſant walks, are adorned with beautiful ſhrubberies and elegant clumps; curiouſly planted with majeſtic oaks, wavy pines, lofty larches, and domeſtic elms and aſhes, which are beauteouſly intermixed with large leafed laurels, elegant lauriſtinuſes, and almoſt every verdant evergreen.

Among which are placed, with the moſt ingenious irregular art, fragrant roſes, delicious ſweet-briars, delicate jeſſamines,

odorous wood-bines, and almoſt every other aromatic ſhrub; among which, with the beſt contrived apparent negligence, are interſperſed the aukward ſtags horn, the weeping willow, and almoſt every other tree and ſhrub, that this or any other ſoil has produced.

And the heads of theſe ſhady trees and humble ſhrubs, both natives and exotics, riſe gradually one above another, the farther they ſtand from the health-improving gravelly walk, and exhibit their inexpreſſibly beauteous foliage, to pleaſe the gazing eye of every beholder.

And on the moſt conſpicuous brinks of the borders, near the well rolled walk, ſtand fragrant carnations, perfumed pinks, and variegated tulips, with almoſt every other ſpecies of gay tinged flowers, that emit their fragrant odours, or unfold their variegated beauties, in every clime.

And among ſome of theſe beautified parts of creation, flowing ſtreams meander in purling rills, which ſometimes fall in muſical caſcades, and mingle their ſonorous ſounds with the warbling gay plumed choriſters, that perch on the over-hanging bending ſhady boughs, and ſwell the mellifluous chorus through woods, and groves, and lawns, with the fineſt vernal muſic, which ſeldom fails to chace ſorrow from the troubled breaſt.

While the gently riſing hills and elegantly declining vales, formed into fertile fruitful fields, covered with the richeſt wavy corn, or clothed with verdant flowery herbage, enrich the ſcene. Where nature has pourtrayed her beauteous carpet, and prepared the richeſt repaſt for the majeſtic horſe, fine flavoured ox, grazing kine, life-ſupporting ſheep, playful lambkins, with almoſt every domeſtic animal that pleaſes the gazing eye, and delights the meditating mind, while it contemplates on theſe invaluable donations of the munificent Creator; and almoſt always raiſes rapturous ſenſations in every virtuous heart, while it views the grand diverſified ſcene, either through the well contrived *viſtal* glade, or ſurveys it all along the pictureſque, ornamental, grand, majeſtic, landſcape.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

FACTS AND REMARKS

ON CERTAIN SALINE SPRINGS AND SUBSTANCES CONTAINED IN THE MOUNTAINS OF ARANJUEZ IN SPAIN.

CERTAIN ſaline ſubſtances brought to England, together with others, which I was obliged to leave behind me, were collected by me during a reſidence of ſeveral months, which I had the honour to ſpend at his Moſt Catholic Majeſty's Sitio

at Aranjuez in Spain, which I left about the beginning of June, 1796.

The earth in the mountains there is ſo ſtrongly impregnated with ſaline and nitrous matter, that when a heavy ſhower runs off the hills a trace of the ſtream is left on their ſides, down to the edge of the level lands, like a hoary froſt; and the water drunk there is, on this account, brought from Ocana upon aſſes, about the diſtance of two leagues.

The king is cutting a ſubterraneous paſſage through the mountains, about half a mile towards an artificial lake, called La Mar, in the direction towards Ocana; in order that the water may be brought this way to ſupply the fountains in his gardens. Poſſibly he may deſign to continue this work to Ocana for the purpoſe of ſaving ſo much labour, as is beſtowed in procuring potable water from that place.

I frequently entered this ſubterraneous tunnel as far as the workmen had penetrated; perhaps, between two and three hundred yards under the hill.

The earth which is dug out of this paſſage, turns nearly *in toto*, to the appearance of ſlacked lime after it has been ſome time expoſed to the air; as the pure ſaline or nitrous ſubſtance does alſo, ſo far as I have tried it.

As I entered the mine, the foul air which met me, partook much of a ſulphureous ſmell; and a kind of black and greyiſh mixed ſoftiſh rock, through which we paſſed, ſeems to be greatly impregnated with ſulphur.

Through this rock, the nitre finds its way to the paſſage, which they are digging; and chryſtallizes ſo much like ice and icicles upon the ſides (for it does not ſeem to ſhoot into nitrous ſpears, in the act of chryſtallization) that I think, if it were but let alone a very few years, it would fill the cavity which the workmen have made with ſolid nitre, or ſimilar ſaline.

So far as I can judge, the whole mountains at this place, appear to be impregnated with this kind of matter. The paſſage is about eight feet high, by five or ſix in width, and the impreſſion of the foot leaves a trace ſimilar to that upon a mill-floor, which has been well beſprinkled with meal; even ſome diſtance out of the mouth or entrance of the tunnel.

I perceive, when the ſeveral ſubſtances are bottled and tight corked, that which ariſes from the bowels of the earth aſſumes an appearance the moſt like ice. And that from the ſpring (where the whole bulk chryſtallizes in the form of a cone or ſugar loaf, in the open air, until it forms a baſe of three or four feet in diameter round the ebullition of the ſpring, like trodden ice, through the trampling of viſitors, and of people, who dig the ſalines for the purpoſe of vending them for medicinal uſes) is more ſubject to pulverize.

It appears at the aperture of the ſpring, like a hole, which has been dug in the ice for the purpoſe of watering cattle during a hard frozen ſeaſon; yet it is of a whiter caſt, reſembling camphire.

The riſing of this chryſtallized cone to three or four feet high is eaſily accounted for upon the fountain principle, as the bubbling in its emiſſion, leaves a tube in the centre through which the water paſſes, and neceſſarily pours over in ſucceſſion, ſo as to chryſtallize broadeſt at its baſe, until a conic maſs is formed.

It is a proverb at this place, that "*the air of Aranjuez will kill a man, but will not put out a candle:*" I have not, however, been able to ſet the ſpring on fire, or its vapour, although I have tried to do ſo with a candle.

The country people there, wear a kind of leathern doublet (I am told) for their protection againſt the ſaline vapour, with which the air is impregnated. I have obſerved a ſimilar precaution in the dreſs of the ſhepherds, who wear ſheep ſkin clothes with the wool on, that they may be better enabled to ſhare the fare of their flocks, and to ſleep by them in the open plain, without perſonal injury.

So far as my remarks have extended upon my own feelings, I do not remember to have experienced ſo ſudden, ſo accute, and ſuch continual changes in my ſenſations, as at Aranjuez. I was afflicted all over with rheumatic pains in a tranſient ſtate, and whenſover I had been into the ſubterraneous paſſage in the mountain I was ſure to be ſick all that night, and the bed clothes became highly charged with that kind of human effluvia which Doctor Franklin has deſcribed in his "way to procure pleaſant dreams." This part of the diſagreeable ſenſation, however, went off by the application of a ſimilar remedy to that which Doctor Franklin has preſcribed.

The moſt uſual complaint at this place, is a very ſingular kind of cholic, which affects the patient about the belly, loins, and kidneys chiefly, and is ſaid frequently to produce death.

The ſaline *ſpring* at Aranjuez is in the ſide of the mountain, about half a mile above the town, near the right hand road up the Calle Regna, from whence it may be ſeen; but the canal which brings water to the gardens, muſt be croſſed to get at it in this route.

It does not appear to be of the ſame quality with the nitrous impregnation in the king's tunnel, and the ſtones about the place loſe their ſaltiſh taſte, through long expoſure to the action of the atmoſphere. The trace of the hoary nitrous impreſſion, like a white froſt, extends, nevertheleſs, the whole diſtance between the two places, and *froſts* many of the herbs and plants, as if they had been in the hands of the confectioner. The ſaline of the *ſpring* appears to be of a medicinal nature, ſuch as Glauber or Epſom ſalts, rather than reſembling either common

ſalt, or real nitre. The ſurrounding hills are of a mooriſh quality, covered with lavender, thyme, and other pot herbs, which in that country, ſeem to ſupply the place of whinns, heath, &c. which grow upon the Engliſh commons.

Theſe ſalines do not appear to me to have any reſemblance to the ſalines of America, or to the medicinal ſprings of that continent, of which I will endeavour to give ſome account, ſo far as my recollection may ſerve me.

[*To be continued.*]

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

At the commencement of our Publication, we inſerted from Mr. Browne's Travels, ſome account of the Commerce of Egypt, then made intereſting, by the undecided fate of the adventurous Bonaparte. The firſt article of a periodical French publication in imitation of ours, alſo exhibits a ſtatement of Egyptian Commerce, with an evident intention of juſtifying to poſterity the views of the Firſt Conſul in that enterprize. We inſert it as a ſpecimen of the performance of our French imitators. E.

EGYPTIAN COMMERCE.

Extract from No. 1, *of* "*Annales des Arts et Manufactures, au Memoirs technologiques ſur les Decouverts Modernes concernant les Arts, les Manufactures, l'Agriculture, et le Commerce.*"

A Man * of rare talents and uncommon reſource firſt demonſtrated to France, in a memoir read before the National Inſtitue, in the 5th year (1797) the advantages of colonizing Egypt; hence has ariſen our eſtabliſhment there.

At the very name of that country what intereſting traces are furniſhed by memory! Never has the hiſtory of mankind ſhewn us the arts, the ſciences, or commerce, elſewhere carried to ſo great a pitch of ſplendour. Jealouſy and ignorance have been able to decry the Egyptian expedition; but poſterity will judge better; and the brilliant conception which formed and executed that judicious enterprize, will be revenged by the admiration of our grand-children, on the injuſtice of our ungrateful contemporaries. Here I might pay my tribute of applauſe to our *new Alexander*; but he is in power; and to praiſe merit in ſuch a ſituation would prove an inability to appreciate it with diſcrimination.

While France was diſputing on the advantages of a colony in Egypt, the Engliſh determined the queſtion. The efforts which they have made for the deſtruction of the unfortunate Tippoo-Sultan, and for the confirmation of their power in India; the enormous expences of their maritime expeditions in the Mediterranean, the monſtrous alliance with the Porte, which they

* Talleyrand Perigord.

beguiled to certain ruin; does not all this prove the importance which they attach to driving us out of Egypt?

The ſituation of our Weſt-Indian poſſeſſions is diſaſtrous. We muſt have time, repoſe, and, above all, a wiſe, ſteady adminiſtration, to remedy theſe evils. We want more hands; unluckily too many uſeful men have periſhed in thoſe opulent colonies, neither can we replace them from Europe. The bloody conteſt we have been forced to ſuſtain for independence will render thoſe whom the war ſhall ſpare neceſſary to agriculture. Beſides, Europeans are not fit for labour in the colonies; the climate ſoon thins their numbers. African negroes muſt be had, and how to govern men taken from a ſtate of nature into one of conſiderable civilization is no ſmall difficulty. Egypt is exempt from theſe diſadvantages; and, without loſing ſight of the Weſt India poſſeſſions, and the care which may reſtore their former conſequence, let us examine the advantages which this new colony offers.

Firſt, then, we are not incommoded by the climate; the dreaded plague which was unknown in the Eaſt before Turkiſh fanaticiſm had carried it thither, appears at fixed periods, and proceeds from known cauſes; the precautions and care of a wiſe government will eaſily remove this deſtructive ſcourge.

The ſugar-cane is indigenous in Egypt*, and known from all antiquity; it grows to a prodigious ſize in the Delta of the Nile; in our weſtern colonies it ſeldom exceeds ſeven or eight feet.—The ſoil of Egypt ſuits it beyond any other, therefore, every thing may be expected from its culture. The tea tree of whoſe leaves there is ſuch a vaſt conſumption in Europe, will ſucceed well in Upper Egypt †.

Indigo grows naturally in Paleſtine, and requires little attention; in Egypt, it would be out of the reach of that uncertainty of climate, which renders the harveſt of it ſo precarious. Through all Syria, one finds the *Opuntia*, or Nopal, whence is produced Cochineal.—In our new Colony, it would not have to apprehend the rains and hurricanes of Mexico. Cotton grows throughout the Eaſt, and the cotton tree of India (*Goſſipium arboreum*) and the cotton plant of Perſia (*Goſſipium herbaceum ſive annuum*) might be cultivated with ſucceſs. The latter ſort eſpecially, which is ſown as corn, and cut *twice a year* in Perſia, will exactly ſuit Egypt, and will ſupply the wants of the manufactures of cottons and muſlins. Nor is there any doubt that we may naturalize the clove, the cinnamon tree, nutmeg, pepper, and other ſpices, which could not fail to ſucceed in ſo fine a climate. The Moka-coffee, whoſe reputation is ſo

* It is more than 2,100 years ſince Alexander's Admiral Nearchus mentions ſugar.—Theophraſtus, Dioſcorides and Arrian, mention it as a kind of honey extracted from reeds.

† The Tobacco of Latikia in Syria, is famous throughout Europe; we might cultivate that plant in Egypt with hopes of equal ſucceſs.

juſtly eſtabliſhed, proves, what profit might be made by plantations of it, in which we might hope the ſame ſucceſs as our Arabian neighbours. I omit to mention oranges, lemons, figs, Pomgranates, and the numberleſs fruits we may obtain from ſo fertile a country; and the corn, which is extolled beyond any in the world.

The limits of our Publication prevent us from dwelling long on ſuch details, which would be very extenſive; it is enough to add, that hands are not wanting; the Egyptian is laborious, and not without genius; nothing is wanting to conduct him towards utility, but a little diſcernment, and indulgence to his ancient habits and religious opinions, which had better be deſtroyed by perſuaſion than by force.—At the peace, private intereſt will conduct to Egypt men of intellect and of capital. While our coloniſts ſhall be eſtabliſhing manufactures, building work-ſhops, or preparing plantations, the vigorous arms of the Egyptians ſhall re-open the Canal of Suez, the precious ſource of the ancient proſperity of their country. But, above all things, our coloniſts want patience; our impetuoſity cauſes our ſucceſs in battle; but in colonial improvements, where the firſt years are conſumed in difficulties, labour and diſguſt, our impatience often makes us abandon the fruit of our labours almoſt at the inſtant of ſucceſs.—Let us conſider well; we poſſeſs the golden gates of Eaſtern Commerce, let us take care not to give up its keys to England.

May the dawn of the nineteenth century be favourable, and preſage the proſperity of this intereſting colony! I ſee the Arabian Gulf covered with the thouſand ſails, which convey to the new Arſinöe * the riches of the Indus and the Ganges, the productions of the populous towns of China, the ſpicy coaſts of Malabar, and the fertile plains of Indoſtan. Egypt will become, in deſpight of the Engliſh, the entrepôt, where the Indian Commerce will center. Hence, her ancient proſperity will reviſit Syria,—Heliopolis and Palmyra will again ſee the days of their ſplendour revived, and the aſtoniſhed Euphrates, will behold our daring, but dextrous ſailors, brave his perilous navigation, and maſter his waves, in diſpenſing the products of our induſtry throughout the Eaſt.

Far be it from us to abandon, for new projects, our opulent poſſeſſions in the Weſt-Indies. Let us keep them, and try to re-eſtabliſh them; but alſo let us maintain our footing in Egypt, and never forget, that if by unexpected conditions of peace, the Cape of Good Hope ſhould be wreſted from our Allies, we poſſeſs an equivalent in the Iſtmus of Suez.

* It would be deſirable to re-eſtabliſh the ancient denominations of the towns. There are ſome whoſe very name is a memorial of their paſt grandeur. *Arſinöe* is as ſweet and harmonious to the ears, as *Suez* is barbarous and ſhocking. The ſame may be ſaid of Sidon, corrupted into Seyde, Heliopolis into Balbeck, Tyria into Soar, &c.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

THOUGHTS ON GOOD TIMES.

WE always wiſh and hope for good times, and a great many expect better ones; under theſe agreeable wiſhes, theſe comfortable hopes, and theſe ſweet dreams, our years fly away, without having ſeen the accompliſhment of them. But what is the reaſon that good times, in general, (which would bring general ſatisfaction to mankind) cannot exiſt? The cauſe is not to be found in the nature of things; for this is always unchangeable. The diſappointment of our wiſhes muſt, therefore, be aſcribed to quite other reaſons. Certain it is, that the cauſe lies entirely in the ideas which we form to ourſelves of good times; and that we look more on individual ranks of men, or perſons, than fix our eyes on the whole, in general. It is impoſſible, that good times, in general, can exiſt, ſince, in order to effect that, contradictory things muſt come to paſs at one and the ſame time. In general, the ideas of good times are unfixed. Each individual forms them according to his own fancy, his own paſſion, his own rank, his own prepoſſeſſions, and they cannot come unleſs the world ſhould become a place of confuſion. A few examples will clear the probable doubts of our meaning.

The induſtrious farmer expects good times when he will be amply rewarded for his ſweat and hard labour. He attends the place of worſhip; the parſon tells him, that if men would live a pious life, times would mend: the truth of it is founded indeed; but the farmer only makes a miſtake in the application; firſt, he makes a miſtake when he imagines living a pious life, is, by copying the outward ceremonies of religion; and, ſecondly, when he forms to himſelf conceptions of good times, after his own fancy. He thinks thoſe are good times when his fields produce well, and grain riſes in price; when his orchards bring much fruit, and he can get a high price for it; when butter, cheeſe, cattle, &c. are at a high rate. Theſe are *his good times*; though many people will be hurt by them, *who* will have *bad* times; but he does not conſider, that he has nothing but the filling of his own pockets in view.

Citizens think thoſe good times, when all trades have plenty of work, and they can make themſelves recreations, by frequenting taverns, riding in chaiſes, on horſe-back, &c. Owners of houſes wiſh for good tenants, who will pay them high rents at the fixed times; who do not make much diſturbance, keep themſelves quiet, without ſpoiling any thing, and after whom they have nothing to mind.

The tavern-keeper expects cuſtomers, who ſurround his bar in cluſters, ſpend much, and do not make a long ſtay, to make room for others, who fill his pockets.

The merchant reckons for good times, when he has a good sale for his goods, disposes of them quickly; when his money doubles and trebles itself, and he is thereby set in a condition to shew his grandeur by good living and extravagance.

Lawyers find good times, when people quarrel, scold, assault, strike, and wrong one another; when wives and husbands run one from another, so that they get rich law-suits.

Practitioners of physic have good harvests and good times, when epidemical diseases and the small-pox prevail.

Bleeders wait impatiently for the agreeable spring, when people get themselves cupped and bled to prevent sicknesses.

Yea the heavy taxes with which the public are loaded, are good times for tax-gatherers, clerks of the commissioners, treasurers, and the like.

And by taking a review, after this introduction of all ranks of people, it will be found, that the good times, which each individual forms after his own imagination, will always be accompanied with a great loss to the whole community. Where one is a gainer, there are ten losers. Thus, on cool reflection, it will be found, that there is little appearance to warrant the expectation of good times, in general. There will be an alteration indeed—good and evil must change one with another; the world, and what is in it, will always be imperfect. The wise man, who is not an idle spectator on the theatre of the creation, enjoys time as it comes: he prepares himself duly in good times for bad; in bad times, he hopes for better; and in this manner he enjoys a continual satisfaction, which makes life sweet to him. Happy is that man, who endeavours to study this wisdom from his early age, and learns to know the folly of those who grieve themselves with unnecessary wishes, flatter themselves with vain hopes, and thereby become a burden to themselves.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

WHOLESOME SCRAPS.

BY DR. FRANKLIN.

THOSE who know most, are most desirous of knowledge. The most virtuous are the most desirous of improvement in virtue; on the contrary, the ignorant think themselves wise enough. The vicious are, in their own opinion, good enough. In our endeavours to promote the public good, we should remember, that though we may not accomplish all that we propose, still we have employed ourselves to good purpose, and will not fail of our reward, even if we should of success.

Let no man complain of the shortness of life, but he who can say, he has never mispent one hour.

Hear the accused, before you condemn.

He who knows the world, will not be too bashful. He who knows himself, will not be impudent.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

THE INCREASING DEBILITY OF MANKIND.

The general and daily increaſing Debility of each ſucceſſive Generation of Mankind (particularly the higher Orders) ſince the year 1513.—inferred from the changes which have taken place in the armour of ancient and modern warriors.

Extracted from a German Treatiſe, publiſhed at Hanover. By G. A. Ebell.

UNDER the term *debility*, or *weakneſs*, I comprehend, in the firſt place, a want of power or force in the members, a deficiency in point of manly ſtrength and vigour; and, ſecondly, a proneneſs to receive injury from every trifling expoſure to inclement weather, &c.—as likewiſe wearineſs or laſſitude quickly ſupervening upon bodily exerciſe, and the incapacity of long enduring any kind of perſonal exertion, labour or fatigue.

The ſlighteſt retroſpect to former times, eſpecially to the periods ſubſequent to the year 764, and further to A. D. 1500, is ſufficient to convince us, in how great a degree all civilized nations have decreaſed, ſince this latter period, in ſtrength and bodily vigour.

Thus, indeed, is it, that ſince the year 1454, in conſequence of the invention of gun-powder and cannons, the tactics of our anceſtors have neceſſarily undergone a total alteration. The coat of mail of the ancients, which, from the acceſſion of the Carolingian race to the crown of France, and conſequently from A. D. 750, or, as ſome with greater preciſion date it, from the year 764 to 1513, conſtituted, and, till towards the cloſe of the 16th century, ſolely conſtituted the armour of the knights, was by no means calculated to reſiſt the impetus of a cannon ball; and quick and nimble as were, according to all accounts, the motions of theſe knights in this heavy armour, ſtill we may ſuppoſe, that, after the invention of cannons, much more depended upon the utmoſt poſſible celerity in marching, and in the evolutions of the ſhock, than upon perſonal ſecurity againſt the thruſt of a lance, the cut of a ſabre, or the barbed point of an arrow. This being the caſe, it might very well have happened that warriors, of equal ſtrength and vigour to any that preceded them, might have made, for the laſt four hundred years, and conſequently ſince the invention of gun-powder, a complete change in their weapons, without being compelled to this change by a decreaſe of bodily ſtrength. But this did not altogether take place. The cuiraſs, the ſabre, &c. continued to be almoſt univerſally the armour of the warrior, till towards the middle of the 16th century; for not till then was this kind of armour found too heavy and unwieldy. Now this, as already obſerved in the preceding pages, is the very identical period in which the glazing of earthen veſſels, by means of lead, came univerſally into vogue,

and in which of conſequence the colic of Poitou began to extend its ravages in all civilized nations *.

When individual warriors, or whole warlike nations, who placed a great part of their renown in perſonal vigour and indefatigable endurance of the toils of battle, laid aſide their heavy armour, laid aſide the helmet, cuiraſs, ſhield and broad-ſword, which hitherto were accounted the characteriſtic tokens of the vigour and dignity of knighthood, it is not to be expected that they ſhould themſelves acknowledge a want of perſonal vigour to have been the cauſe of this procedure; and yet nothing is more probable, than that this was actually the caſe.

And here let me aſk: Were our ancient knights heavy as was their armour, ſo eaſily exhauſted with fatigue? Far from it. We need only peruſe the hiſtory of their battles, their broils, &c. to ſee how indefatigable and rapid their evolutions were in this armour; how a number of theſe heavy-armed knights would conſtantly, to a certainty, overcome a ſuperior number of light cavalry. We need only view in our arſenals their cuiraſſes, their broad-ſwords, the whole of their armour both for man and horſe. In theſe coats of mail, the weight of which the ſtrongeſt of our cotemporaries can with difficulty ſuſtain a couple of hours, they performed the longeſt, the moſt forced marches; laid about them manfully therein for weeks, months, and years together; undertook expeditions in every quarter of the globe, even to the Paleſtine itſelf, and that not in ſtraggling parties of individuals,—not ſelect companies, whom Nature, departing from the ordinary courſe of things, had endowed with more than Herculean ſtrength; but in whole troops, in myriads, in numerous armies; whole nations of warriors, and more eſpecially the higher orders, from whom, according to the preſent ſyſtem of things, we ſhould expect leſs inurance from hard labour, more delicacy, and of courſe leſs nerve and vigor. Princes and knights made it almoſt their excluſive duty and boaſt to wear, what at preſent would be, the inſupportable weight of theſe heavy arms: and there is no doubt but the ſervants of theſe knights, their vaſſals and ſerfs, very nearly poſſeſſed equal ſtrength with their lords and maſters, the knights themſelves; from whence we may infer, that the whole nation at large was infinitely ſtronger and more robuſt than we are. This is however the caſe, not only with us, but with every civilized nation.—

* It is very remarkable, that under Charles VIII. king of France, about the year 1495, Italy firſt gave the other warring ſtates the idea, though indeed at that time a very imperfect one, of regular troops of light cavalry. Now, about the ſame time, the art of glazing earthen-ware likewiſe was in its cradle in Italy; a hundred years prior to this period, the inventor of this art, an Italian born, having firſt practiſed it in Majorca.

Whenever I have had occaſion to take a view of an ancient arſenal, an ancient magazine; whenever I have contemplated the heavy armour of former ages, and with my hands eſſayed the weight of their broad-ſwords, I have ever gone away deeply impreſſed with the melancholy truth, that we have, for theſe laſt two hundred and fifty years, made an inconceivably rapid march towards the *leaden age*; towards the total decreaſe and diminution of our vigor.

It is a very common notion, that habit had given the ancient knights ſufficient ſtrength to endure the weight of the cuiraſs, the helmet, &c. which we at the preſent day are too feeble to ſupport. But this is a miſtaken notion: the young ſons of the knights, when not yet arrived to their full growth, when only ſixteen or eighteen years old, would mount the war-horſe, for the firſt time, clad in complete armour, cap-a-pee, and galloped away to the tournaments in the liſts, or to the field of battle. We frequently meet with inſtances upon record of youth, who lived in thoſe times, being too feeble to diſpute the palm with knights, who had attained to years of manhood and maturity; we meet with frequent deſcriptions of their warlike exerciſes; their ſkill in throwing the lance, or uſing the ſword; but we do not find a ſingle inſtance of healthy, grown up youth, much leſs of adults, being inadequate to the taſk of arming themſelves in helmet and coat of mail, and making long expeditions in this armour *;—and yet even this far exceeds the powers of the deſcendants of theſe ancient knights, exceeds the powers of the ſtrongeſt, the moſt vigorous and robuſt characters of the preſent age.

Even children and women themſelves were preſented, towards the cloſe of the 15th century, and conſequently previous to the introduction of glazed pottery, with complete ſuits of armour, and had ſufficient ſtrength to ſupport the weight thereof, and, with this heavy load, to accompany their huſbands and fathers in their

* How eaſy this muſt have been to former generations, may be ſeen in the Manorial Laws, which, among other qualifications for the inſtalment into manorial eſtates, require, that the candidates ſhall leap upon the war-horſe armed cap-a-pe. This law had in view that old decrepid fathers ſhould bequeath their territorial poſſeſſions to their robuſt ſons:—but were it enforced in the preſent day, it would exclude from the privileges of inſtalment, not only hoary-headed veterans, and children, but (with very few exceptions) almoſt all thoſe whom we, by way of eminence, diſtinguiſh with the attribute of extraordinary ſtrength. About twelve years ago, two gentlemen of my acquaintance, who according to the preſent ſtandard, paſs for men of uncommon ſtrength and vigor, clad themſelves in real complete armour, conſiſting of cuiraſs, helmet, greaves, and gloves, as worn by the ancient knights, and nicely adapted to their ſize. In this warlike dreſs they made their appearance at a maſked-ball; but were unable to move except with the greateſt difficulty, and in leſs than an hour they found their armour perfectly inſupportable—notwithſtanding that they carried with them neither lances, broad ſword, battle-axe, nor mace, which muſt have greatly added to the load ſuſtained by the ancient knights.

expeditions, and to the field of battle. I remember in the arsenal of Berne, which I visited in 1772, the cuirasses of several ladies, and the delicate Princess of Austria, who fell in the memorable wars with the Swiss Cantons. These are, it is true, manufactured somewhat lighter than the arms of stout and full-grown heroes; but yet there are, I am persuaded, very few women, and I might say men, who could wear them in the present day.

The history of the heavy armour made use of in former times, and its change into armour of a lighter description, seem too closely connected with the object of this treatise for me to pass entirely over it.

The ancient Greek and Roman authors frequently complain of the decrease of bodily vigor in the human race; and the Romans were struck with astonishment, when, in the times of Julius Cæsar and Tacitus, they became acquainted with the Germans, who were far superior to them in bodily strength.—This national difference is easily accounted for, from the difference of climate, from the frugal, simple, incorrupt mode of living of our raw, uncivilized ancestors, contrasted with the luxury, the vices, and effeminate education of the Roman youth; as likewise even from the much smaller degree, in which the Germans made use of lead, and other deleterious substances.

In the period extending from A. 800 to 1450, we find both these nations, as well as the Spaniards, the French, and other people, so far at least upon a par, that the weapons used by their knights, both for offence and defence, as well as their armour, were generally of the same kind. In this period, and farther down to 1513, the weight of the armour worn by the knights, so far from being diminished, was rather increased, as our magazines and arsenals plainly evince; because they were perpetually inventing a greater variety of arms, both for defence and attack, and loaded their warriors therewith.

The *Encyclopedie Methodique* gives us the History of the French Cavalry, which we may here, with the greater propriety, stile the History of the Armour of all Christian Nations, as the various cotemporary nations, which fought for or against each other, in these times of chivalry, were necessarily obliged to pay great attention to the equality of their arms. The corps of French knights went, in these times, by the appellation of *les Gendarmes*: they, as well as the German knights, were armed with a complete suit of armour, with a helmet, broad-sword, battle-axe and lance, and their horses were covered with plates of iron *. None of the knights of this period would have made

* Les Gendarmes etoient armès de cuirasses, brassarts, jambiers, gantelets et casques, de la lance, de l'épée, de la hache: les chevaux etoient couverts de lames de fer.

Encyclopedie Methodique, Art Militaire, vol. i. p. 557.

uſe of a lighter kind of armour; the uſe thereof was eſteemed derogatory to the honour of knighthood, and the lighter armour was therefore conſigned to the ſervants of the knights, to their ſerfs, tenants, and vaſſals. The light cavalry, which was not even allowed to form a regular corps, and over which a commander was only placed *pro tempore*, when chance had brought a number of them together previous to a battle, was held in univerſal contempt, and only employed in ſkirmiſhes, and in purſuing the enemy after a defeat *.

This univerſal contempt was not in conſequence of any national prejudice or pride of anceſtry: but we find that the knights, notwithſtanding the amazing weight of their armour, were inconceivably rapid in their motions †, and ſo alert and ſuperior in battle, that one could reckon, to a certainty, that one hundred heavy-armed knights would defeat a thouſand light-armed warriors ‡.

Charles VIII. king of France, met with the firſt ſample of a regular light cavalry, in his military expeditions into Italy §.

This, however, could not tempt him to imitate the example; on the contrary, with his Gendarmes he put the light cavalry of the enemy, though far ſuperior to him in number, completely to the rout, in the battle of Fournoue, on the 6th of July, 1495.

The light horſe, therefore, did not form a regular troop till the time of Louis XII. who, however, eſtabliſhed only two companies of them ‖. This happened at the very time when the king, having already, in 1513, begun to feel the more powerful arm of the Swiſs, was obliged to give way to them every where, and to make a peace with them, which was very diſadvantageous on his part. This, therefore, may be conſidered as the firſt tacit acknowledgment, that the armour hitherto in uſe began to be found too heavy and cumberſome, or (which amounts to the ſame thing) that the *knights* began to grow leſs ſtrong and vigorous.

[*To be continued.*]

* La cavalerie legere etoit compoſée de vaſſaux, que les ſeigneurs menoient avec eux. Elle avoit peu d'armes defenſives.

Brantome dit-que du tems de Louis XII. on ne parloit point de cavalerie legere Francoiſe, ſi non de la Gendarmerie.—C'eſt a dire, qu'elle n'etoit autrefois compoſée, que d'hommes aſſemblés au hazard, ou de valets, ou d'autre gens de la ſuite des gentilhommes et des ſeigneurs. De la venoit, que la cavalerie légére Francoiſe n'etoit point cenſée faire corps, et n'etoit guére eſtimée. Encyclopedie Methodique.

† Ibidem.

‡ C'etoit la Gendarmerie, qui faiſoit toute la force de l'armée, tant par la bonté de leurs armes, que par la vigueur de ſes chevaux. Une ancienne chronique dit; que cent Gendarmes ſuffiſoient pour battre mille autres Cavaliers, armés a legére; parceque les armes des Gendarmes etoient preſque impenetrables, et que leurs grands et forts chevaux culbutoient des le premier choc ceux de cette Cavalerie legére.

(*Chronic. Calmar. an.* 1298) *ibidem.*

§ Encyclop. Method. vi. p. 558.

‖ Ibidem.

ON TITHES.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

MR. EDITOR,

FEW ſubjects are more intereſting to the agricultural reader than the permanent commutation of tithes. Many have been the attempts (eſpecially in the weſtern counties) to diſcover ſome equitable mode of aboliſhing the odious *right*, and ruinous *practice*, of abſtracting the tithes in kind. Indeed many circumſtances have made the practice not very uſual; were it ſo, neceſſity had long ſince impoſed ſome radical cure of the evil, ſince all agricultural improvement would be as completely ſtopped as by any of the ten plagues of Egypt. Long before this time our population muſt have diminiſhed, or the ſight of thouſands ſtarving annually muſt have been very familiar to our eyes.

Among the ſchemes for permanent commutation, ſome ſort of *Corn-rent* has been moſt approved; rather becauſe the objections againſt that are not *ſo* ſtrong, than that *no* objections exiſt. Indeed the extreme inequality in the value of a buſhel of wheat, or other grain, from year to year, would create a moſt uncertain annual payment, and is a formidable proſpect to a tenant, whoſe real rent may thus be made to vary a fifth of ſixth part, by a price in the markets, which to him may not countervail the inferior produce of a bad year. A man who, in 1798, paid 20 buſhels at harveſt, would pay for tithe about 7 pounds; in 1799, full 14l.; though the unſeaſonable weather might have diminiſhed the profits of the year. An uncertain income would not be agreeable, even to the impropriator, or rector; and, I doubt not, in caſe of a general regulation of corn-rents, that private agreement for money rent would ſoon ſupplant them throughout the kingdom.

The nation has been long expecting from the legiſlature a general Incloſure Bill; and the glaring inſufficiency of corn for the uſual conſumption may perhaps accelerate the tardy motions of Parliament. At leaſt that obſtacle, *in limine*, which exiſted in the *fees* of the offices of both Houſes, has been a little alleviated in this ſeſſion. It might become a great nation to imitate the reform of its opulent individuals, who (I am informed) of late years, have choſen to augment the wages of their ſervants, and aboliſh the claim of *vails*; and perhaps the late innovation, in reſpect to Incloſure Bills, may introduce this reputable alteration to the notice and practice of the Imperial Parliament of the United Kingdoms.

But, to return to the ſubject of Tithes.—I have always been of opinion, that the clergy of the church of England have never appeared in the full light of public utility to which they might

be advanced. A body of men of liberal education, permanently reſident in various ſituations, and held in general eſteem amongſt the rich and the poor, appears to me an engine of mighty power. A maſs of information of the moſt important kind has been collected from the clergy in Scotland, and hereafter the ſame taſk will be attempted, and, doubtleſs, be as well executed by their brethren in England. But this is a ſmall portion of the proſpective utility of this valuable order of men. They might be made to communicate information as well as to collect it, and to diſſeminate all the improvements in rural affairs in every corner of the nation. To this it is only neceſſary that the equivalent given by tithes be given in *land*. Every reſident in the country feels an inclination (commenſurate with his intellect) for the occupation of the farmer. Indeed, beſides the motives which have been recited by all eminent men, from Virgil and Cicero downwards, that omnipotent motive, the love of action, exerts ſuperior power in the country. The experience of all who have reſided there will evince, that nothing but the uſual difficulty of procuring land on reaſonable terms, and near his reſidence, prevents almoſt every clergyman in England from amuſing his leiſure in the delightful projects of agricultural improvement. The education of a clergyman has always made him mix in various company from various counties; has always given him ſome appetite for that information which is conveyed in books. Theſe are the two great wants of the laborious farmer: confined to one ſpot, and to a ſociety no way different from himſelf, he improves not, after the firſt years of life have taught him the practice of his forefathers: too often indeed age increaſes his obſtinacy more than his extent of information. Books he uſually holds in ſovereign contempt; and though the farmers of the preſent generation uſually poſſeſs the convenient accompliſhments of Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, yet the phraſe a *Book Farmer* remains a term of unequivocal reproach.

If every new incumbent found his income chiefly accruing from a quantity of glebe-land, and made his option rather to occupy than let it, his uſual mode of reſearch would direct him to the beſt books of Agriculture, and the viſible ſucceſs of his innovations would not fail to convince the dulleſt blocks of the expedience of imitation.

Though theſe conſiderations plainly evince that very conſiderable profits would reſult to the land-owners and to the community, from the augmented produce of improved cultivation, and that ſuch cultivation muſt ſoon be conſequent on the enlightened example of the clergy, yet the natural partiality for an extent of landed domain may, perhaps, object eternal bars againſt the adoption of the propoſed landed compenſation for tithes. However, that ignorance may not aid this prejudice by erroneous calculations, I ſhall diſcuſs, in few words, the real

value of tithes, and the uſual expectation of this compenſation. In new incloſures (where the firſt expence of reclaiming the ſoil, buildings, and fences is very conſiderable) the reſervation, in lieu of tithes never exceeds a fifth; in other land (already under cultivation) a ſixth would be accepted, ſince that is the uſual charge on the rental for tithes. The real worth of tithes (rectorial and vicarial together) ſtands thus. A farmer muſt raiſe the amount of four rents to enable him to ſubſiſt with credit, and ſomething more to enable him to ſave money. Therefore ſay, one hundred pounds rent, four hundred pounds produce, at leaſt; there reſults not leſs than forty pounds tithes. That is, 8s. in the pound. Therefore, even a third of the land would not be really an equivalent for tithe; and if a fifth were accepted (4s. in the pound) the land-owner muſt gain conſiderably by the bargain, beſides the conſequent improvement to be expected from the agricultural example of the Rector and Vicar. To complete the national benefit, an office (which would ſoon be opened on intereſted motives) muſt ſupply the Clergy with a loan of capital for a life-annuity, ſecured on the benefice.

The endleſs variety of circumſtances affecting the value of landed property, would make any general regulation for a compenſation for tithes wholly incompatible with juſtice, and the moſt deciſive meaſure which the legiſlature could properly enact, could go no farther than to appoint ſome official commiſſioners, who might ſettle the arrangements of each pariſh. Indeed, *this* might be too much; but no reaſon can be adduced why a power ſhould not be veſted in the preſent land-owners, and preſent incumbents, to ſettle the matter for their ſucceſſors for ever.—Any fraud or colluſion in the bargain to be highly puniſhable; and the atteſtations of the reſpectable vicinity, and neighbouring juſtices, requiſite to make the agreement capable of record, and conſequently final and eternal. Indeed, the incumbent would often find a ſcattered farm, from the various allotments; but of this he might let what he pleaſed, and muſt be very unfortunately ſituated, if enough land to employ a team of three or four horſes ſhould not lie together within tolerable diſtance. And the main purpoſe (which I look to) the diſſemination of improved practice would be thus ſufficiently anſwered, while the value of tithes could, by no means, be ſo equitably ſettled for ever, as by a landed compenſation, which muſt always maintain a relative value to all other land, and, conſequently, to all other tithes.

It is not difficult to ſee that the Clergyman would alſo be a gainer, becauſe his profits, as a farmer, would be double the rental of the glebe-land. The preſent land-owner would gain a fifth of his rental, by buying the tithe with a fifth of his land.—The Clergyman would gain ſtill farther the firſt ingredient of happineſs—a uſeful and pleaſant occupation, and would alſo gain in point of income; ſince, though the tithes are really worth

8s. in the pound, he ſeldom receives above 4s. if he wiſhes to be on good terms with his pariſhioners.

I do not inſiſt on the expedience of ſuch landed compenſation, in caſe of a general incloſure bill, becauſe I am of opinion, that enough intellect is to be found in the legiſlature to inſure that arrangement. I have rather confined myſelf to obviate preſent difficulties, and ſee no reaſon to ſuppoſe that any Clergyman would object to the propoſal, or any land-owner not be intereſted in its adoption. Thus thinking, I have forwarded this rude ſketch for inſertion in your Magazine, as certain tokens inform me, that its diſſemination muſt rapidly increaſe, and that none of its ſheets will be dedicated by their purchaſers to the ſhrine of Cloacina, or conſigned to the uſe of the butter ſhops.

I remain, your conſtant reader, S. T.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

I ſent to you, laſt month, a paper, which I have the pleaſure to ſee inſerted in your uſeful Monthly Publication. As I have a friend who receives a number of foreign papers, and I am permitted to peruſe them, I have tranſcribed ſeveral, which I think merit further publicity. I encloſe them to you, and ſhall occaſionally notice ſuch future ſubjects as a female's pen may be indulged to communicate. I am, Sir, your humble ſervant,

M.

AN INFALLIBLE CURE FOR HARD TIMES.

FROM A FOREIGN PUBLICATION *.

CALCULATE your income, and be ſure you do not let your expences be quite ſo much:—lay by ſome for a rainy day. Never follow faſhions;—but let the faſhions follow you:—that is, direct your buſineſs and expences, by your own judgment, not by the cuſtom of fools, who ſpend more than their income.

Never liſten to the tales of complainers, who ſpend their breath in crying "hard times," and do nothing to mend them. It is a truth, which all men ought to know and realize, that every man (thoſe only excepted, who are not able to ſupport themſelves in any community) may live within his income, and thereby preſerve his independence. If a man is poor, his taxes are ſmall, unleſs he holds an eſtate which he cannot pay for. In ſuch caſe, he does not own it, and therefore ought to let the owner take it.

Induſtry and œconomy will, for ever, triumph over hard times, and diſappoint poverty. Therefore, the general cry, that we cannot pay the taxes, and live, is abſolutely falſe.

It is true, we feel, and we ought to feel, ſome difficulties in paying for that glorious prize, legal protection. The taxes will be only temporary—but the prize eternal. And he is unworthy

* Suppoſed to be written by Dr. Franklin.

of a ſhare in it, who repines at paying his money, when ſo many patriots and heroes have laid down their lives to purchaſe it for their country.

I ſhall beg leave to inſert an extract from a ſermon, preached by a ſound divine: "The ſcarcity of money is the only thing that will ſave this people. This alone can produce induſtry and œconomy, without which, no people can be virtuous and happy. This is an univerſal truth, applicable to all people in every country. It is impoſſible to be happy without induſtry, œconomy, and virtue; and as experience evinces that theſe are produced by what we call hard times, or the ſcarcity of money, we ought certainly to be thankful, when we ſee the cauſes of public happineſs operating.

"Therefore, let this circumſtance excite in us, gratitude to a kind Providence, for connecting future proſperity with preſent ſcarcity, and ſo ordering cauſes and events, that good ſhall come out of evil, neceſſity produce reformation, and hard times, good times." The ſcarcity of caſh is a general complaint, and it has become ſo faſhionable to complain of hard times, and the ſcarcity of money, that debtors ſeem to think that they have ſufficiently ſatisfied their creditors, if they tell them the times are hard, and money ſcarce. This has ſo long been the theme, that the people almoſt univerſally believe it, although it is a falſehood. Every generation and age thinks the former days and times were better than the preſent.

This, however, is a miſtake, founded on falſe ſurmiſes, and vain imaginations. The original principles of human nature are the ſame in every age, and ever have been, ſince the fall of Adam. Times are eaſy where men do their duty; but when they deviate from that, and enter the road of vice, indolence, and licentiouſneſs, then difficulties embarraſs, and troubles perplex them.

The complaint of hard times is all imaginary; and as for caſh (according to my information) there is enough in circulation for a medium.

Thoſe who complain the loudeſt of it's ſcarcity have nothing with which to purchaſe it. Indolence and extravagance in dreſs are the ſource from which all the evils, ſo bitterly complained of, flow. Both reaſon and revelation teach us, that the human race were to live in this world by induſtry, and to earn their bread by the ſweat of their brow. On the production of the earth we depend for ſubſiſtence; and ſpontaneous productions are not to be expected; the earth muſt be cultivated before ſhe will yield her increaſe. It cannot be expected, that all the inhabitants of the world ſhould live by commerce, nor indeed, but a very few, in proportion to the whole. Yet the people of ſome countries, as it were, drunk with the idea of gain, if they can but get into a mercantile town, are crouding into it, and to appearance

ſeem to think, that the whole community can live by buying and ſelling.

This, however, is a miſtake, which time muſt teach and reform. Experience is the only teacher which mankind will believe, and when they have learned by a fair trial, that indolence and craft will not ſupport them, they will turn to induſtry, and lead quiet and peaceable lives, in diligence and honeſty. Agriculture is the very ſoul and life of every thing; if that is neglected, difficulties will certainly ariſe *. Our own manufactures, muſt nevertheleſs, be encouraged, and carried on, if we mean to be a proſperous and independent people. For a few years paſt, ſome ſorts of farmers have, to appearance, been vying with fine gentlemen in dreſs, yet frugality and induſtry muſt be the ſtability of their own and all other times.

The idea of inferiority, in purſuing a mean employment or occupation for a livelihood, mortifies the feelings, and ſours the minds of thoſe who feel themſelves inferior; and conſequently, the poor, to their great injury, ſtrive to be equal with the rich in dreſs, if in nothing elſe. The faſhion-ſeeking farmer in the field, will be found clad in as a delicate a garment as the tradeſman; this is utterly wrong, and cannot be ſupported. Let every one dreſs according to the kind of buſineſs he is in. If a man's buſineſs is to meaſure off cloths, and deal out clean delicate goods to cuſtomers, he may as well dreſs neat and elegant as otherwiſe, and propriety dictates that he ſhould;—but if his employment be in the field, to plough and cultivate the earth, a different dreſs becomes him; and the old adage will ever hold true, "*he that will increaſe in riches, muſt not plough in ſilken breeches.*" A frock is as becoming a dreſs for a farmer, when he is labouring in the field, as a ruffled ſhirt, a nankeen, velvet, or ſilken veſt and breeches and ſuperfine broad cloth coat, are for the merchant in his counting houſe. There is propriety, uniformity, and beauty to be obſerved in all things: every thing is beautiful in its proper place.

The other day, I went to ſee ſome farmers who owed me a trifle. I found them in the field at work: one was clad in a velvet veſt and breeches, and fine worſted ſtockings; the other, in a ſatinet veſt and breeches, ſtockings like his companion, and a fine holland ſhirt, with ruffles at the boſom. I aſked them for the money they owned me, and was told, "money is exceedingly ſcarce, the times are very hard, and it is an impoſſible thing to get money." I offered to take live *ſtock*, or almoſt any other article; but they had nothing to pay me, except land, and that they could not ſpare; ſo my debt was diſcharged by inability. The reaſon why I mention this circumſtance, is to ſhow, that the extravagance of people to decorate their bodies, is the origin of their poverty, and the hardneſs of the times ariſes from a fooliſh pride. Every man is honourably

* In America.

and elegantly dreſſed, when he is dreſſed ſuitably to the buſineſs he is doing.

Agriculture, by ſome, is thought a very *mean* employment; yet thoſe who eſteem it ſuch (I will venture to ſay) are mere ſimpletons; and, the true principles of honour are not in them. Is it more honourable to be ſervant to every body, to weigh out an ounce of indigo, to draw a quart of molaſſes, than to cultivate the earth, and reap the yellow harveſt to procure the neceſſaries and luxuries of life? The employment of a farmer is really the moſt honourable of any on earth. Where, or what would be the merchant, the lawyer, the phyſician, or the fine gentleman, if it were not for the farmer? Where or what would be the ſtateſman, the prince, the emperor, or the monarch, with all their brilliant equipages, were it not for the farmer? Where would be the dazzling cities, and their ſpiry pride, were it not for the farmers? The branches are not ſo honourable as the roots; let them not, therefore, boaſt of their own gawdy appearance, and deſpiſe the root that bears them. The huſbandman ſurely is worthy of much honour, as he is the foundation on which kingdoms and empires ſtand. Monarchs and emperors are ſupported by the induſtry of the huſbandman, and all their greatneſs ſtands on his ſhoulders. Let him, therefore, be honoured and reſpected, that his heart may be encouraged, and his hands ſtrengthened, in his laborious and tireſome work!

ON HAY MAKING.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

We inſert, for the amuſement of our more careful readers, a deſcription of the rude manner of Hay-making in the Fens of Lincolnſhire.—It is a melancholy proof how long bad cuſtoms keep their ground againſt improved practices. E.

IN the fens, many of the large farmers practiſe a very cheap but ſlovenly manner of making hay; and the level, open, unſhaded ſtate of the country, is certainly much more favourable for ſuch a practice than any other equally extenſive diſtrict in this empire. Many fen farmers mow their hay down whenever they think it is ripe; when they have begun to mow, they ſeldom ſtop on account of ſhowery weather; and when it is mown, ſome turn the ſwaths over once, and, in rainy weather, ſometimes twice; but many never turn the ſwaths at all, but let them lie till they are dry, and then throw them into large rows, which they call wind-rows. Then they tie a cart rope behind two horſes; one horſe goes along one ſide of the row of hay, and the other horſe goes on the other ſide of the row, a cart rope being placed at the end of the row of hay; and the perſon that drives the horſe, having a fork in his hand, contrives

to hold the rope, or to ſtand upon the hay with his feet in ſuch a manner, that when the horſes draw the rope along, it draws the row of hay into a heap; and when the heap is ſufficiently large, they ſtop the horſes, leave it, and begin to draw up another. This done, a man follows and tops the cocks up, another rakes with a drag, and it is very aſtoniſhing, how ſoon they will cock a large land of hay conſiſting of many acres. Nevertheleſs, the mode is extremely waſteful and ſlovenly, but amazingly expeditious. After any hay is got into large cocks, if the weather continue fine, it ſhould ſeldom be ſtirred till the day it is carried, except it was rather damp or green when it was made into cocks; in which caſe, the cocks ſhould be turned over, and if neceſſary, opened a little. But ſhould the weather be rainy, it is beſt not to ſtir the cocks, except any of the tops fall off, which may be put on again till the weather is fine; then they muſt be opened, and ſpread to dry before they be carried.

And when the hay is carried, it ſhould ſeldom be put into any building, except an open one, conſtructed on purpoſe to put hay into, which are ſometimes called hay barns; but the hay ſhould generally be put into ſquare or round hay-ſtacks as they are called in ſome counties in England; in others, they are called hay-cocks, and hay-ricks.

In the fens, they generally place their hay-ſtacks on the land where their hay grew, and often ſlide the cocks to the hay-ſtack with two horſes and a rope; when the hay-rick or ſtack riſes high, a waggon is placed by the ſide of the hay-ſtack, and the cocks are ſlidden up to the ſide, and then firſt thrown up into the waggon, and afterwards upon the hay-ſtack.

But many farmers in the fens carry their hay to the hay-ricks in waggons and carts, in the ſame manner that hay is carried in moſt other diſtricts in England and Wales; the hay in the moſt mountainous parts, is frequently drawn upon a ſled over the mountains, which ſled is drawn by one horſe only; theſe one-horſe ſleds are made in the ſimpleſt and cheapeſt manner, conſiſting of little more than two poles and two ſlabs acroſs, and a few upright ſtaves at the end, to keep the hay, &c. from ſlipping off behind. The reaſon why theſe ſleds are uſed in the mountainous parts of Wales, is, becauſe wheeled carriages would overturn on the ſides of the high hills, and almoſt all the ſurface in ſome parts of Wales is very mountainous, ſo that the corn is carried on ſleds in the ſame manner as the hay is carried. I have often ſeen theſe ſleds uſed to carry butter, cheeſe, fowls, eggs, &c. to market, and the Welch women ride up and down the hills as merrily to market on theſe ſleds, as the Engliſh do in their market carts.

Hay-ſtacks may be made very well, either ſquare or round; but the ſquare are rather beſt for cutting truſſes out of, and have,

in my opinion, a more elegant appearance, and ſuit better, where the owner is ſtraitened for room. Nevertheleſs, the round ones require leſs thatch, and are very neat when well made; the ſize of either round or ſquare hay-ſtacks, ſhould be, in a great meaſure, proportioned to the wet, green, or dry ſtate of the hay; if the hay be in danger of heating till it fires, or even heating too much, the hay-ſtacks ſhould never be made very large. And when the hay is in danger of heating, it is often prudent to draw up the middle of the ſtack, ſtraw tied together, or ſome other ſubſtance, as it is making, to make a tunnel in the middle, which will prevent it from heating ſo much; and ſome have tunnels of wood made on purpoſe. But perhaps it is better to make the ſtacks ſmaller and to make no tunnels at all, becauſe, the tunnels exhale the valuable juices out of the hay.

And when the weather is very unfavourable in hay harveſt, and the hay is in danger of moulding, if ſalt be ſprinkled among layers of hay, it will preſerve the hay from moulding ſo much in the ſtack, and cattle will eat it the better.

In many places in ſeveral counties of England, where they make their hay-ſtacks very well, and take great pains to rake the tops down in a neat manner, they never thatch their hay-ſtacks at all; but now hay is commonly both ſcarce and dear, eſpecially at ſpring, ſurely ſuch a waſteful mode ought to be entirely diſuſed; becauſe, however well ſuch hay-ſtacks are raked down, yet ſtill, either by winds or weather, or accidents, or the weights that are generally laid on the tops of ſuch hay-ſtacks, much good hay is always greatly damaged, and, frequently, not a little ſpoiled. Yea, I have often ſeen the wet get in, and rot a hole in the middle of ſuch unthatched hay-ſtacks, almoſt down to the ground. Therefore, hay-ſtacks ought always to be thatched, becauſe in thoſe counties where they do not thatch their hay, they often waſte more time in raking down the tops of hay-ſtacks and topping them up again, than would be neceſſary to thatch them; and particularly, as on the ſides of rivers, dikes, or ditches of low lands, there frequently grow reeds, flags, ruſhes, or rubbiſh, that would do for thatch.

In ſome parts of the fen-counties where hay is the moſt plentiful, the milking cows and ſome young ſtock lie generally out in the open fens all winter, which fens are parted by dikes, and the hay ſtands in hay-ſtacks in the ſame lands where it was mown; but when it is cut and carried about, and laid on the ground before the cattle, the cows and cattle eat it off the ground; this is a moſt imprudent and waſteful mode of uſing hay; for the winds frequently blow ſome of it about the land, and ſometimes into the dikes, when the cows tread not a little of it into the ſoft ſurface with their feet; and therefore, as it waſtes the hay ſo very much, in time, I hope this cuſtom will be laid aſide, and a more œconomic mode ſubſtituted in its ſtead.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

THE FATAL CONSEQUENCES OF LUXURY.

THERE is no greater calamity can befal any people than when luxury is introduced among them, eſpecially where it becomes general, and is carried to ſo great an height, that every individual is under ſome neceſſity of living beyond his fortune, or incurring the cenſure of being avaricious. A man once engaged in this extravagant courſe of living is ſeldom able to extricate himſelf in time; but is hurried on to the brink of ruin, reduces a helpleſs family to want and miſery, and muſt at length ſink under a weight of misfortunes, or, through neceſſity, be driven to what may ſacrifice his honour, country, conſcience, and every other conſideration, to a preſent relief; which may, which muſt at laſt, end in his deſtruction. However amiable virtue and integrity may appear in our eyes, human nature will find it difficult to withſtand the threatening miſery of immediate want. A priſon ſtaring a man in the face, continual dunners at his door, or a want of his accuſtomed pleaſures, will drive him to extremities, which nothing but neceſſity could occaſion. He is no longer maſter of himſelf, but like a drowning man, catches at every thing, even his deareſt friend, though he knows that he muſt periſh with him. To what melancholy extremities will not this unhappy ſituation lead a man!—to poverty, ſhame, villainy, dependency, and diſgrace; and, at length, to ſell one's country to an idle extravagance. Let a man's income be what it may, if he lives beyond it, this will be the caſe ſooner or later; and if ever a ſuperior power ſhould fall into ſuch neceſſitous hands, the very thing that ſhould make the people happy, *the abundance of the public treaſure*, may, if artfully managed, prove the means of their deſtruction.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

ON FRUGALITY.

FRUGALITY is ſo neceſſary to the happineſs of the world, ſo beneficial in its various forms to every rank of men, from the higheſt of human potentates, to the loweſt labourer or atificer; and the miſeries which the neglect of it produces, are ſo numerous and ſo grievous, that it cannot be too often or too forcibly recommended.

Frugality may be termed the daughter of prudence, the ſiſter of temperance, and the parent of liberty; he who is extravagant, will quickly become poor; and poverty will enforce de-

pendence, and invite corruption; and it will almoſt always produce a paſſive compliance with the wickedneſs of others.

If there be any who do not dread poverty as dangerous to virtue, yet mankind ſeem unanimous enough in abhorring it as deſtructive to happineſs, and all, to whom poverty is terrible, ought to think themſelves obliged to learn the ſage maxims of our anceſtors, and attain the ſalutary art of abridging their expences; for, without frugality, none can be rich; and, with it, very few would be poor.

Caſual calamities excepted, there might, by univerſal prudence, be procured ſuch an univerſal exemption from want, that he who ſhould happen to have leaſt, might, notwithſtanding, have enough.

Thoſe, to whom Providence has allotted no other care than that of their own fortune and their own virtue, who make far the greater part of mankind, have ſufficient incitements to perſonal frugality; for there is ſcarcely any individual entering the world, who, by prudent parſimony, may not reaſonably promiſe himſelf a cheerful competence in the decline of life.

The proſpect of penury in age is ſo gloomy and terrifying, that every man, who looks before him, muſt reſolve to avoid it; and it may be avoided generally, by the ſcience of ſparing; and the bulk of mankind muſt owe their affluence to ſmall and gradual profits, below which their expence muſt be reſolutely reduced.

The poſition of *a penny ſaved, is two-pence got*, is replete with mercantile wiſdom, and deſerving the ſerious conſideration of mankind, from the ſtateſman to the apprentice.

It may be accommodated to all conditions, by obſerving, that not only they who purſue any lucrative employment, will ſave time when they forbear expence, and that the time may be employed to the increaſe of profit; but that they who are above ſuch minute conſiderations, will find by every victory over appetite or paſſion, new ſtrength added to the mind, ſo that they will gain the power of refuſing thoſe ſolicitations, by which the young and vivacious are hourly aſſailed, and in time, ſet themſelves above the reach of extravagance and folly.

It may, perhaps, be enquired by thoſe who are willing rather to cavil than to learn, what is the juſt meaſure of frugality? And when expence, not abſolutely neceſſary, degenerates into profuſion? To thoſe queſtions, no general anſwer can be returned; ſince the liberty of ſpending, or neceſſity of parſimony, may be varied without end by different circumſtances.—It may, however, be laid down as a rule, never to be broken, that a man's voluntary expence ſhould not exceed his revenue. This is a maxim ſo obvious and incontrovertible, that the civil law ranks the prodigal with the madman, and debars them equally from the conduct of their own affairs. Another precept ariſing from

the former, and intended to be included in it, is yet neceſſary to be diſtinctly impreſſed upon the warm, the fanciful, and the ſanguine; let no man anticipate uncertain profits. Let no man preſume to ſpend upon hopes, to truſt his own abilities for means of deliverance from penury, to give looſe to his preſent deſires, and leave the reckoning to fortune, or to chance.

To theſe cautions, which, at leaſt, among the graver part of mankind, are undiſputed, another may be added,—Let no man ſquander againſt his inclination. With this precept, it may, perhaps, be imagined eaſy to comply; yet if thoſe whom profuſion has buried in priſons, or driven into baniſhment, were examined, it would be found, that very few were ruined by their choice, or purchaſed pleaſure with the loſs of their eſtates; on the contrary, it would appear, that they had ſuffered themſelves to be borne away by the violence of thoſe with whom they converſed, and had yielded reluctantly to a thouſand prodigalities, either from a trivial emulation of wealth and ſpirit, or a mean fear of contempt and ridicule; an emulation for the prize of folly, or a dread of the laugh of fools.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine:

ON THE PROFIT OF BEES.

Anſwer to a late Queſtion on the Profit of Bees, by the Rev. Dr. Iſaacs.

TAKING up the Agricultural and Commercial Magazine, No. 11, I obſerved a ſtring of Queries, demanded by a Correſpondent, under the ſignature of Leiceſtrienſis, apparently well practiſed on œconomical ſubjects. The queſtion being reſoluble at no great length, and in my department, for I have been forty years a Bee-maſter, on a pretty large ſcale, I ſhall do my beſt to anſwer it; and as this Magazine ſeems peculiarly devoted to ſubjects of public utility, I ſhall, in future, not refuſe to dedicate a few hours to its ſervice, even on themes of much greater conſequence and extent.

Was the growth of honey to be entered upon to any great extent in this country, it would totally defeat its own end, becauſe ſo little is uſed among us for any but medical purpoſes; and ſmall as the growth has even been, the price has ſeldom or never been very encouraging. Its import does not apparently ariſe from demand in point of quantity, but, as I apprehend, chiefly on the ſcore of ſuperior quality, as, for inſtance, of the Mediterranean honey; the warmer climes from the dryneſs of the air, and the ſuperior fragrance and ſtrength of the bloſſoms of flowers and ſhrubs, naturally producing the commodity of ſuperior flavour, conſiſtence, and medical quality. The caſe ſeems quite analogous with that of perfumes and eſſences.

Farther, in this country, where labour and attention is devoted to such important purposes, the people have very little leisure, and sooth to say, less inclination, to run gadding after bees. As to the aptitude of the soil and climate, the dry and warm parts of the island are doubtless very suitable to the honey culture, provided the management were well understood and sedulously pursued, which is far enough from being the case; and in a climate, subject to almost perpetual changes, to rains and storms, the industrious little animals are very liable to be overpowered and destroyed by boisterous weather, when necessitated to seek their subsistence far and wide, returning home labouring under heavy burdens. No doubt but great quantities of honey might yet be obtained, and the observation is equally true, that it is a cheap acquisition, there being no other cost, than of labour and hives; but when the demand for the country should be satisfied, what must be done with the surplus? No advocate for honey-making, that I know of, has ever even hinted at the probability of an external demand; and although so little has been grown, the commodity has often gone begging, at two-pence halfpenny per pound, for the virgin honey; and three halfpence for the squeezed; at the distance of only a few hours' journey from London. Nor would a resource be found in alimentary consumption, for people in general dislike the taste of honey as a medical sweet; a favourable determination of nature since the article is, indubitably, as the ancients held, emaciating and productive of melancholy; in fact, fit for few other purposes, in substance, but the medical. I speak this feelingly, for I am immoderately fond of honey. But taking into the account, wax, distillation, and the manufactory of mead, stum, &c. I must own the affair puts on a different face; yet, at present, this country has already a sufficient number of *irons in the fire*. The *sweetness* of this subject, and my natural relish have, I fear, led me on, to an unintentional prolixity, for which I hope to be excused.

Tunbridge-Wells, July 10. HENRY ISAACS.

ON THE COLLEGE METHOD OF SHOEING HORSES.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR.

A CORRESPONDENT in your last Magazine, amongst a number of far more interesting questions, proposes the following: *Is the mode of shoeing horses adopted by the Veterinary College, practicable with the generality of road and post horses? and in what degree has the practice prevailed?* Now, Sir, had your respectable Correspondent been as fully *au fait* on this, as on the various topics of rural œconomies, by him intro-

duced, he would not have troubled you with a queſtion which every groom and poſtillion is capable of anſwering, and a ſolution of which may be found in every highway. The College Shoeing, as it is inaccurately called, for in truth there is no novelty in the principle, whatever additional fiddle-faddle and ſuperfœtation of novelty there may be in the practice, was never practicable, far leſs practiſed, with either poſt or road horſes in general, nor with any other than parade and military horſes, and with thoſe even, per *influence and force*. Every horſeman knows the expectation to be idle and ridiculous, that horſes laboured, and driven (as they are, over the roads of this country) will ever be able to endure an expoſure of their frogs and quarters; and I cannot ceaſe to wonder what could poſſibly induce Lawrence, with all his pretenſions to jockeyſhip and practical knowledge, to give the ſlighteſt countenance to ſpeculative ideas ſo extremely futile; ſurely he, who in his political writings, will not ſtoop to flatter kings and miniſters of ſtate, could never think of degrading himſelf by offering incenſe to College Profeſſors.

The fact is, this College Shoeing, as they phraſe it, is of French origin; and even in France, where they (formerly at leaſt) did not Jehu-it, in the ſtyle of this country, it did not ſucceed. It was invented, beſides, by men who, to be ſure, knew a dead horſe very well, or a living one ſtanding ſtill, but nothing of one rattling and tearing along in quick progreſſion. The odds are much, that old father La Foſſe (who, by the bye, was living in a hut at Calais, in extreme old age and poverty, during the tyranny of Robertſpierre) never rode a journey of twenty miles in his life, or ever ventured beyond ſix miles an hour; and that even the flouriſhing Saint Bel, who was by death, robbed of the reputation he might have acquired by teaching us Engliſh jockies how to ride over the road and field, had ventured but little on horſeback, and ſeldom without the ſafe and ſober purlieus of the riding-houſe. They were, however, both excellent Veterinarians, although they might ride like taylors; on the former ſcore, *they have not left their like*.

To purſue the ſubject, nothing can exceed the ignorance and ſtupidity of our ſmiths and horſe-doctors,—excepting that of thoſe conjurors who rely upon them. The public do well to introduce ſurgeons into this department; but, *eſt modus in rebus*; and ſurely theſe men, previouſly to a peremptory demand of the public confidence, ought at leaſt to have poſſeſſed themſelves of a competent knowledge of the animal, whoſe uſe and feelings are to be entirely ſubmitted to their power and management. A man, by the intereſt of friends, by a fortunate concurrence of circumſtances, or by the pure virtue of a good front, may be thruſt forward into a public, or confidential ſituation, and exhibit the undeniable merit of making thouſands a

year.—He may know ſomething of pharmacy, may be able to lay about him adroitly and without much concern, in all the operations of ſurgery; may have gotten by rote, the anatomy of the horſe, and even be able to write abundance of fluent, plauſible, and dapper nothings (all that is required now a-days on any ſubject) and yet know not an atom of ſhoeing, riding, or the general proper management of horſes.

Every new veterinary ſurgeon ſtarts with this manifeſt advantage.—The Devil muſt be in him, if he makes more blunders than a common farrier.

A Country Surgeon and a Horſeman,
BUT NO
PROFESSOR VETERINARIUS.

Berks, July 14.

P. S. I ſhould not have been diſinclined to have analyſed a late Pamphlet on Shoeing Horſes, but on peruſal, I find nothing new, or noticeable, but a ſhow-bill for the ſale of ſhoes, and ſeveral errors which a practical horſeman could not have made. *De l'argent!—beaucoup de l'argent! Hæ tibi erunt artes. Anglicè.*—That's your ſort for fingering the caſh.

REMARKS ON DR. ANDERSON'S THEORY OF MILKING; ON WHINS, &c.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR.

I HAVE juſt laid down the laſt Month's Recreations of Dr. Anderſon, a valuable writer on Rural Œconomy, and one to whom the country is truly indebted; allowing this, however, we may examine the Doctor's poſitions with all freedom, and without intending, or manifeſting towards their author, the ſmalleſt diſreſpect.

It is ſtrongly recommended by the Doctor, to milk cows three times, inſtead of twice a day, according to the uſual practice; an alteration, which I believe would be, or rather, which I have found, beneficial to theſe individuals, naturally producing an uncommonly large quantity of milk, or apt to drop and loſe their milk: but with reſpect to cows whoſe udders very conveniently retain their burthen, without much diſtention or heat, I am inclined to queſtion the profit of ſuch an innovation, and to doubt whether the extra labour would be repaid by a ſufficiently additional quantity.

But on the collateral reaſonings of the Doctor, I ſtand in a very different predicament; here I remain without any ſort of doubt. He is not a Doctor of Phyſic, and in truth, does not make a good figure on ſubjects of phyſiology. To talk of the ſalutary effects of diurnal draughts of that moſt precious fluid, the ſupport of animal life, blood, and thence to argue the infinite increaſe of a congenial fluid, from its perpetual, purpoſely

increaſed exhauſtion, is indeed, a dangerous ſpecies of empirical reaſoning. Would he adviſe us then to bleed ourſelves, to the amount of a certain number of ounces every day, in order to increaſe the quantity, and mend the conſiſtence of our blood? According to his account, there is a good probability that milk in cows would be increaſed in a conſiderable ratio, by the meer act of taking it away, or in plain milk maids' Engliſh, that the more you milked the more you would obtain: but the true probability is, I believe, that nature would very ſeldom anſwer theſe reiterated demands, and that where ſhe was ſo profuſe as to comply, in any very increaſed quantity, the quality would become weak or ſulphureous, and the poor animal herſelf, in no very great length of time, attain a bodily ſtate very properly adapted to the uſe of the Veterinary College, or the dog kennel. Dr. A. has not obſerved it; but it is not uncommon for a free milker, to milk herſelf nearly to death, in twelve or eighteen months, being never in a fit ſtate, from the debility occaſioned by ſuch an exceſſive exhauſtion, to receive the male.

In the aſſertion that cows fed, ſtalled, and in a ſtate of confinement, give a ſuperior quantity of milk, according to my experience, Dr. Anderſon is totally wrong; and before he blamed the London keepers, for ſuffering their cows to ſtand, or walk about, in ſuch muddy and uncomfortable places, in the winter, he ought to have conſidered that ſuch was matter of neceſſity, at leaſt, the avoidance of the greater evil.

I farther conceive, that the Dr's. opinion of furze, as a winter food for milch-cows, is much too favourable; nor have I ever ſeen any thing in the uſe of whin-tops, to warrant ſuch an extravagant aſſertion, as that of their producing as much, and as rich milk and butter in the winter ſeaſon, as is afforded by the head of the ſpring graſs! Furze is doubtleſs ſubſtantial and good wholeſome cattle fodder, but it is not of a nature ſufficiently ſucculent, particularly in winter time, to force large quantities of milk. Furze joined with cabbages, or fog, ſucceeds very well with the dairy, and is, in fact, a very wholeſome food for every ſpecies of our domeſtic animals.

Market Harborough, July 3. LEICESTRIENSIS.

Errata in the Eſſay ſigned Leiceſtrienſis, laſt Number. Page 410, *read* Cyerian Cats.—411 near the top, place an Interrogation at reſources?—near the bottom, for caſes, *read* leaſes.

ON LARGE FARMS.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magzine.

SIR,

WHEN I promiſed you a communication on the ſubject of large Farms, I was not aware that the ſame topic had already been ably diſcuſſed in your Magazine for March. This diſcovery made me leſs anxious to be early in fulfilling my engag-

ment, and must be taken as an apology for delay.—The original size of Farms may be guessed from the small patches of land in common fields (where those nuisances are still extant); it may be presumed that each occupier had originally a piece of land in each grand division (or lane) of the common field. Had it not been so minutely divided, surely every occupier would have chosen to have had his entire share marked out *together* in each lane.—The palpable annoyance of interfering head-lands, and of the fluctuating property of the outside furrow of every land, must have been perceived in the rudest ages. Whether these minute divisions were marked out as shares for a conquering army, or whether as tenures for feudal vassals, must remain ever uncertain; though the irregular mixture of free-hold and copy-hold land in some common fields, seems rather to indicate the former supposition. Be that as it may, whether a Saxon, a Norman, or a feudal division, it is evident enough, that a *customary* acre (often not above half a *statute* acre) in each division, was a usual allowance. But as every man may be supposed to have possessed some little inclosure about his hovel, we may venture to suppose him lord of four acres. In this state, general poverty must have made the cultivation wretched indeed. A whole township could only possess a few coarse ploughs, &c. in common; and we must suppose the horses of that race of ponies, which cater for themselves through the winter on commons and in forests; since hay (in those days of no inclosure) must have been a very unusual delicacy. These half-starved animals, caught in the spring, must make a feeble furrow among the roots of perennial weeds; and doubtless, the arrangements about taking the team *in turn*, must have depended so much on personal strength and influence, that half of the land must have been sowed out of season.

The nearest approach to this state of Agriculture yet extant, I have remarked about Blandford in Dorsetshire, where it is not unusual, for great part of a parish to be divided into what is called, livings; meaning probably, a sufficient maintenance for one family. These livings vary in size from ten, to fifteen or twenty acres. Curiosity made me enquire into the œconomy of these husbandmen, who seemed so nearly to approach the golden age, or at least, the *primitive* age of cultivation. They had the advantage of a stinted sheep walk, about one sheep to an acre; but complaints of damage in strayed and stolen were too frequent to permit any high estimate of profit. Indeed, some of them thought it best to *neglect* their right to sheep-common on these accounts. The profit must therefore have been dubious. They possessed gardens over-run with apple-trees, in their turn, over-run with ancient moss.—Nevertheless, their produce of cyder seemed to average at full two guineas per annum. But the shaded condition of their garden ground did not permit this to be put wholly on the profit side of the account. They all

poſſeſſed one horſe, many two.—In the latter caſe often, the ſecond was a colt, intended for market, at five years old. The other horſes, wretched and half-ſtarved, as muſt be the caſe, where the whole land they cultivated had been ſcarce enough for a plenteous ſubſiſtence. Theſe ſmall occupiers were daily breaking, and their land laid together by the purchaſers.—But in fairneſs, it muſt not be concealed, that the frequent lamentations I witneſſed, were to be more immediately aſcribed to an operation of the poor-rates. The larger farmers (ſuch is mankind) contrived to ſhift great part of the extra-rates of 1795, on their little neighbours,—by refuſing to deal out corn at an under price (each to his own labourers) but making them apply to the pariſh for relief, which was thus drawn from men who kept no labourer, and were thus compelled indirectly to pay the labourer of their potent neighbour. Thus, the poor-rates were doubled, and theſe little farmers, who conſumed their own wheat and barley in their family, and depended on taſk-work and button-making for money to pay their tradeſmen, were convinced, that the labourers' caſe was far preferable to theirs, though falſe pride prevented their deſcent into that ſtation. The labourer demanded relief from thoſe who were nearer ſtarving than himſelf; the poor, from the poorer. I ſuppoſe, the ſcarcity of the preſent year, muſt have aboliſhed many more of theſe ſmall farms.

I do not, however, mean to ſuppoſe, that theſe *very* ſmall farms are the deſiderata of coffee-houſe goſſips; though I muſt obſerve, that he who wiſhes to advocate a cauſe with any hope of ſucceſs againſt the ſcrutiny of oppoſition, muſt expect to be aſked diſtinctly and definitively, what quantity of lands he attributes to the ſmall farm he ſuppoſes ſo beneficial to the intereſts of the community? In a commercial and manufacturing country, much extra corn muſt be produced beyond the neceſſary ſubſiſtence of the producers.—Whence, otherwiſe, are our towns, our vaſt metropolis to be fed? If a man has (as uſually computed on an average) five in family and a dozen acres, let us examine his ſurplus produce. Three acres in wheat (under weak cultivation) perhaps ſeven quarters. As much barley on three acres more, three fallow, and three for horſe feed in clover, or perhaps oats. An individual feeding much on bread (as do all the poor) conſumes, at leaſt, one quarter per annum. Small beer, and the annual pork or bacon conſumes the barley, and the two quarters of wheat remaining, paſs to the butcher, for meat which has been the produce of other land, and therefore, ſtill only feeds the grazier; another ſpecies of cultivators. No ſurplus for manufacture beyond the price of a canvaſs round-frock, or ſome ſecond-hand coat. A power of paying any rent quite out of the queſtion.

I ſhall now produce (a ſubject to the welcome animadverſions of your readers) my own ideas on the ſize of farms; thus, at-

tempting to ſubſtitute contemplation and argument to ſenſeleſs clamour.

The indiſputable limit of the ſmalleſt farms, ought to be that extent which may *fully* employ one plough-team. In ſome countries, this may be a little more land, in ſome leſs, according to the ſtubborn, or eaſy nature of the ſoil: which may alſo make the number of horſes in a team vary from two, to four or five. However, the quantity of land to be cultivated in both caſes, will be about 120 acres. But where meadow or paſture land conſtitutes part of the farm, I would be underſtood to add that beſides; ſince ſtock of all kinds, is kept to more advantage to the owner, and to community, on farms thus happily of a mixed deſcription. I can ſuppoſe, an induſtrious œconomiſt may proſper himſelf, and do juſtice to the community on ſuch a farm; but for reaſons (hereafter to be given) I do not think it ſo *likely*, that induſtry and œconomy ſhould be ſo general here, as among the claſs of more extenſive cultivators.

Let us proceed now to ſettle the largeſt proper extent of a farm.—Where inſpection can be perfect, it muſt be allowed, the community cannot loſe. Be it conſidered, that if a circle be deſcribed round a farm-houſe, a mile diſtant, the area is no leſs than 960 acres. Unleſs the fields were univerſally ſmall (which time would ſoon remedy) a man on a poney muſt be allowed (in this caſe) to be capable of inſpecting every workman many times every day.—An active man would inſpect much more extent of territory. But this muſt vary according to the various compactneſs and contiguity of a large farm.—In many of 100 acres, the farmer has land a mile or two from home. Under the moſt favourable ſituation of compactneſs, a man of moderate abilities, might take the beſt poſſible care of 2000 acres,—a man of unuſual activity and genius, proportionally more. I would be underſtood to have ſpoken of arable land.—The extent of a grazing farm, ſeems only determinable by the length of the farmer's purſe; while he can ſtock it with the beſt of cattle, he can hardly hold too much in hand.—Improvement in the breed of cattle, has moſt notorionſly and indiſputably proceeded from large farmers.

I ſhall now proceed to conſider the reſpective comfort, œconomy, and morality, of the various claſſes of farmers, and conclude with a view of the effect of Large Farms on the general happineſs and population of a nation.

The very moderate annual ſavings which can reſult from a ſmall farm, and the very unuſual inſtances of important ſavings in a whole life in petty concerns, too often incline the ſmall cultivator to limit his wiſhes in life, to a ſtile of living rather ſuperior to his labourers. That is, he drinks more ale at home, and talks louder at the ale-houſe; waſtes at leaſt one day in the week at market, though without any buſineſs there, and has the prerogative of manifeſting his power to do evil by clamarous oppo-

ſition to all improved arrangements in the management of the poor, or the roads. The rudeneſs of his education leaves him but half civilized, and his broad countenance never aſſumes ſo triumphant a grin, as when he can find auditors to reliſh his ſtupid obſervations on book-farmers, and new-fangled ſchemes. Hence, he himſelf, is indeed, ſufficiently ſecure from any innovations in his practice; and the imperfect cultivation of our anceſtors is perpetuated in his fields.—But this, ſay my opponents, is an unfavourable picture.—Be it ſo: it may be *truly* ſaid, that poverty itſelf (without the perverſe inclinations here attributed to the petty farmer) is evidently ſufficient to ſtop any improvement.—The moſt enlightened of the claſs, ſay very rationally, "Gentlemen may try theſe things, but we cannot afford the riſk."

Suppoſe a law, or a cuſtom, equally efficacious, limited the ſize of farms to the work of a ſingle plough-team; would any man in whom accident had united a reſpectable capital, and inventive intellect, enter on this line of life? Surely not, becauſe that very intellect would repreſent to him, the madneſs and folly of engaging in a buſineſs, in which large gain was impoſſible, and therefore, augmented exertion ſpent in vain. Farms are conſtantly conſolidating, never dividing in an improving country: this is a direct proof, that large farms and improved agriculture, have ſome native affinity, which, in every ſituation, keeps them inſeparable.

The large farmer, whoſe implements and whoſe horſes are in conſtant uſe, has *therefore*, an intereſt in procuring the beſt of every thing.—Any proſpect of a minute gain, is (to him) reſpectable in the aggregate, and accordingly purſued. He collects his reeks, his fodder, and his cattle into the ſame yard, whereby the infinite labour and waſte of removals is avoided; the devaſtation of rats obviated by capped-ſtones; his own eyes ſee his own ſtock in one view, and provides for their future wants, or obſerves the drooping appearance which precedes illneſs, or indicates lack of food.

Invention is the firſt ſtep towards improvements; but the ſecond ſtep, the general diſſemination of inventions is more difficult, and muſt precede their general utility.—Who, but the large farmer can operate this benefit? Agricultural Societies are compoſed of theſe men.—Experiments on new machines are excluſively theirs, becauſe, to them only, the expence is a fair ſpeculation. If a Threſhing Machine coſts forty pounds, no man can wiſely adopt it, however perſuaded of its benefits, without he hopes to gain at leaſt 20 per cent. (8*l.* per annum.) by it. The whole amount of the threſhing of the little farmer cannot amount to this ſum, and excludes the idea for ever. Large farmers go to market no more than others; but it is very different to the community, whether one man on four hundred, or one on

forty acres, waſtes a day's work, and much more, a day's attention every week. Finally, let us contemplate theſe different beings in the frequent circumſtance of a very good, or very bad year.—The price of corn varies much more than its quantity—a fourth part leſs corn *doubles* the price,—a fourth part more reduces it by half.—Thus the leſs the *general* crop, the better for the farmer. Hence, in 1795, the profits of the farmers were generally very high. In that caſe, thriving large farmers added conſiderably to their former ſavings,—ſmall farmers drank more ale,—and more of them were in diſtreſs the next year than otherwiſe would have been ſo;—the bad habit of ſpending more freely, ſtuck to them beyond the period of unuſual gain. Of the comfort of ſmall farmers, let the example adduced from Dorſetſhire ſatisfy: their œconomy let them calculate, who ſee them reckleſs of the future, enjoy the preſent day in a lazy chimney corner, well ſatisfied to leave their children no worſe than themſelves were at ſtarting in the world.—Their morality muſt be, *generally ſpeaking* (it is a ſubject liable to many individual exceptions) as much leſs than that of their more reſpectable, more opulent neighbours, in the proportion, that tolerable education is more common, and a good character more valuable to the higher claſs of mankind.—A wicked, croſs-grained, petty farmer, is like the ſow in his yard, almoſt an inſulated individual, who has no communication with, and therefore, no reverence for the opinion of the world.—To no perſon is good character of ſo little importance.

But ſome have fallen into an opinion (reſpectable, becauſe ſpringing from humanity) that to take from the peaſant any chance of riſing from a labourer to the dignity of a ſmall farmer, is a conſiderable ſubtraction from the happineſs of that numerous claſs of mankind.—Very few have ever accompliſhed this point;—many more who have ventured their little ſavings, in ſtocking a ſmall farm, in a weakly manner, have loſt their all, and returned again to the more certain maintenance, and leſs anxious life, of a reſpectable labourer *.—It is probable, that the improvements of the age, will ſoon make the appendage of a large allotment of garden-ground to cottages more general, and then (with the inſurance afforded by Benefit Clubs againſt illneſs) we may expect to ſee, in the next generation, a numerous hoſt of independent cottagers, induced by the ſtimulus of emulation as well as gain, to ſurpaſs their neighbours in dexterity, in property, and in good character.

While the population of our nation has ſuch copious reſource in the encreaſing manufactures, it is ſcarce neceſſary to be ſolicitous about the effect of Large Farms in that light.—However,

* See the Narrative of Britton Abbot in Vol. I. of Comm. to the Board of Agriculture.

as it is poſſible to refer to an authentic document in poof, that the ſuperior care exerted on large farms more than equals the former number of hands; it may be worth while to notice this topic.

Sir Thomas Moore in his Utopia, ſays, he knows a country, where ſheep eat men; meaning, that in his days, the noblemen and gentry, being unable to procure the ſtated rents from the wretched occupiers of detached acres, threw their eſtates into ſheep-walks, and were ſuppoſed to depopulate whole diſtricts.—However, the evil was ſhort-lived; the people did not periſh, but turned to manufacture and commerce, which then began to exhibit her benefits in Europe. The ſmall farms of Flanders would ſtarve their occupiers, but that they are alſo manufacturers,—chiefly *weavers*, for half the year. America is ſaid by Mr. Strickland *, to produce only eight buſhels of wheat per acre; it is ruined by the extreme diviſion of property, which is daily more divided in every family.—Hence, Agriculture goes backward there faſter than it improves in Europe. In the parts of Scotland moſt notoriouſly and eminently conſolidated into large farms, population has increaſed, and elſewhere diminiſhed, within theſe fifty years.—This may be ſeen, demonſtrated in a letter in the *Scotch* Farmer's Magazine, page 138; and is the document to which I refer. A copy of it might be an acceptable preſent to your Readers †.

As to thoſe people who complain of ſcarcity and dearneſs, becauſe more beef, mutton, and pork, and fewer poultry, houſe-lambs, and roaſting pigs, are produced by large farms, I may venture to leave theſe luxurious growlers to their own imaginations.—The high freight of turtle to *ſome* people, is a ſerious aggravation of the evils of the war. Since theſe laſt articles are dearer than formerly, in proportion to meat, there are fewer of them in the market; if fewer in the market, more are nurtured to maturity, from the increaſing facility of raiſing food for them. This reſults from the laſt improvements of agriculture, and is a very real benefit to the community. It is true indeed, this circumſtance is at once a proof of the conſolidation of farms, and of the general utility of that conſolidation.

I ſhall conclude this letter (which I fear is already ſomewhat too long) by aſſuring you, that I ſhall not be inattentive to any obſervations of your Readers, who may expreſs any diſſent, or want any explanation. It will be perceived, that thoſe who are totally unuſed to Rural Affairs, are not very likely to throw any light on this ſubject.—However, it is fairly open to all.

I remain, &c. R.

* See Vol. II. Com. to the Board of Agriculture.

† It ſhall be inſerted in our next. E.

CRITICAL CATALOGUE.

I.—*Communications to the Board of Agriculture, Vol. 2.*

THE firſt article in this volume is a liſt of the premiums offered by the Board for various improvements, and accurate information on important ſubjects; we thought it incompatible with our duty to our agricultural readers not to inſert this for their uſe: it will accordingly be found at length in the magazine for May. We then find a very elaborate treatiſe on the various Modes of incloſing Land, by R. Somerville, Eſq. The general benefit of incloſure, and the hopes of the nation, that much work of this kind is not very diſtant, confers no ſmall value on this production, which alſo ſeems well placed for uſeful notice in this volume, which will be in the hands of all extenſive land owners. For as careful incloſure is a work of perennial (perhaps eternal) benefit, their care is *moſt* intereſted, and, of courſe, their knowledge in the art *moſt* important to the community. We ſhall, however, attempt to diſſeminate ſome of the moſt uſeful ideas, which may be uſeful to many of our readers.

A ditch is not to be conſidered as a reſervoir, but as a channel for water; therefore the depth and ſize is of much leſs importance, than the care of ſo placing it as to permit free egreſs of the water which the ſurface or the drains may convey to it in wet weather. The dead hedge is juſtly a great eye-ſore to Mr. S., and it may certainly be advantageouſly replaced by *ſome* live hedge any where; if the ground is too ſterile for buſhes, it will bear nothing, and, conſequently, is not worth a dead hedge. Perhaps, practically, the excluſive uſe of the white-thorn in planting hedges has inſtilled an injurious prejudice againſt planting any thing elſe. At all events, Mr. S. is adverſe to any mixture in planting hedges: his reaſons are very concluſive, and often repeated, becauſe often diſregarded in practice; which too often does not eradicate other eſtabliſhed buſhes when it adds quick-ſets. As the uſe, and, properly, even *idea* of a hedge, implies a *continuity* of fence, it is highly abſurd to leave a certain origin of future gaps, which muſt reſult from the various or oppoſite natures of divers plants. Some pertinent obſervations are made on the abſurdity of planting hedges with much leſs care than many annual crops; however, this abſurdity may be eaſily accounted for: moſt hedges are planted by farmers, whoſe intereſt is leſs concerned in the proſperity of a hedge than of a wheat crop, and will not expend their dung and labour for the diſtant benefit of a landlord. The force of this ſlovenly example infects the very land owners who alſo cultivate, and hence beautiful hedges are ſo ſeldom ſeen; the cuſtomary weeds choak the ſets in their infancy, and the eaſy remedy of the hoe is unthought of. Quicks will thrive rapidly if planted older than uſual; in all caſes they ſhould be ſorted, that they may choak each other by various ſizes in contact. Moſs may be deſtroyed by the application of lime;—an important hint. At page 57, a catalogue is inſerted of eighteen ſorts of hedge-plants. Of theſe white-thorns require a dry ſituation, which may be ſufficiently inſured to them in moſt ſoils by a ditch. Black-thorns will thrive on cold clays. Beech is next noticed; this plant will be ſeen in an important light whenever Bagſhot Heath ſhall ceaſe to diſgrace the vicinity of London. The watery

plants are noticed as productive of profit as well as fence in their proper situations. Hazel will sell for hoops, if it can be spared from the usual necessities of the dead-hedges on most farms. Larches are *proposed* as hedge;—a fair experiment. An objection to furze is evident in northern situations, because the frost is sometimes fatal to it; elsewhere it answers well, where nought else thrives: Mr. S. seems ignorant of a judicious, and not unusual practice, in cutting it. This consists in cutting only one half of the thickness of the hedge at a time. Thus every two years a quantity of fuel is produced, and the fence always remains perfect. Many fruit-bearing shrubs are proper for hedges; but the *first* adoption of the practice would insure the ruin of the fence by children; therefore there can be little hope of this beneficial practice, which would indeed furnish wine and brandy. Rows of trees are not approved of; but their condemnation is more feeble than we should bestow: they are infinitely injurious. The treatise closes with a defence of improved agriculture. We hope such a defence is needless.

An Account of draining a Marsh in Cornwall is interesting. To those who have before seen this detail, the *plan* will be a pleasing novelty. The farm, and attentive cultivation of Sir C. Middleton, throws much light on Kentish husbandry. Hops are there profitable; fatting beasts decidedly a loss. Would this were reversed!

Mr. Strickland has communicated much information on American culture. It is below all ideas an Englishman can form of careless cultivation. Eight bushels of wheat an average crop through whole states. The export decreases; partly from this cause, partly from increasing population. The American revolution has produced a law similar to the Kentish gavelkind. To this much injury is attributed; but if the equal distribution of estates (in intestate cases) has produced no manifest evil in Kent in a thousand years, this cause is inadequate to the supposed effect. It must be confessed, that throughout Mr. S. manifests an unseemly prejudice against America. The last page, after replying to a question of the Board relating to the management of the poor there, "that there are no indigent poor in the United States," gives a character to the western settlers, which would insure *starvation* to a large portion of any community. We cannot but think, that where there are *no poor*, there cannot be such excess of moral depravity.

A letter from Mr. Knight on the Herefordshire Breed of Cattle, &c. is very well; but too evidently rather a series of answers to miscellaneous subjects, than the production of a man writing on a subject on which he felt superior information. A very judicious remark on the advantage of large hogs must not be admitted: "As the meat, when cured, has less external surface, it is cured and preserved with less loss." A little local prejudice in favour of Herefordshire sheep and cattle is perceptible. But such a moderate *excrescence of emulation* must be excused for its noble origin. A scientific letter from Mr. Campbell (in the East Indies) on propagating useful plants throughout the world, is most laudable. Mr. R. Somerville has given the result of a laborious investigation of the cause of the general unproductiveness of the wheat-ears last harvest. It resulted from the injuries of an insect, which probably always exists late in the year. Thus a late harvest is disadvantageous for more reasons than one.

We feel much ſolicitude that a careful encouragement of *early* ſeed may obviate all theſe inconveniences at once. Pickles are propoſed for deſtroying the eggs left on the grain; but the conſtant uſe of lime in South Britain, and its cauſtic qualities, make it very problematical whether any ſuch remedy can be at all beneficial. The propoſed cure of blight by a medicated cloth is ſcarcely reduceable to practice. The rugoſities of an ear of wheat furniſh too many ſnug corners for the vermin.

After ſome obſervations on embankments, which diſplay more genius than experience, we come to a paper on Improving Moſſes, or Peat bogs. The experiments diſplay much judgment in analyſis, and eſtabliſh, on chemical, as well as practical arguments, that lime muſt be the beſt fertilizer of ſuch lands. It muſt be uſed before the land dries too much by the previous draining. The theory of moſſes is ſo well explained and demonſtrated, that we may ſafely pronounce that ſcience will no longer acknowledge a chaſm on this ſubject. The progreſs of incipient vegetation in a new world, or a continent newly emerged from the ſea, was never ſo ſuccinctly explained as in page 287. Mr. Headrick (the author of this paper) deſerves great praiſe; if there be not an *erratum* in page 320, reclaimed moſſes are the moſt fertile ſpots in Great Britain. They are ſaid to produce ſometimes 100 bolls, or 800 buſhels per acre. More than even *garden culture* can boaſt of in the vicinity of London. We muſt go *northward* for ſpecimens of ſuperior fertility!

The curl in potatoes, page 325, is diſcuſſed at ſome length, and is fairly attributed to poverty of ſoil, imperfect cultivation, or undue expoſure. An accurate experiment is recited, which proves that potatoes ſhould be ſet at three or four inches depth. Irrigation, and ſome experiments on ſalt as manure, ſupply the ſubjects of the next articles. A letter from Sir Joſeph Banks, on the miſchievous effects of an aquatic weed infeſting drains, is very pertinent. The title of the paper exhibits a barbariſm which Sir Joſeph B. is not guilty of. In the body of the letter the plant is termed, *Equiſetum Paluſtre*.

Obſervations on the different Effects of various Carriage Wheels on the Roads, fill up more than 60 pages; but not one word is waſted. This moſt brilliant part of the volume diſplays, at competent length, a reſearch as new as it is uſeful; we ſhall ſay nothing of it, becauſe we hope to ſee it in a ſeparate pamphlet for general uſe; it has received due notice from the Board of Agriculture, and will have important effects on the legiſlative arrangements concerning roads. Mr. Cumming's ingenious and verſatile mode of combating vulgar error, ſhews intimate acquaintance with the human mind, and an unwearied aſſiduity in inſuring the converſion of the moſt ſtupid or moſt prejudiced intellect.

Some Varieties of Carts and Double Ploughs (of the invention of Lord Somerville) are next inſerted. It is indeed wonderful that the lever, uſed for checking the too rapid deſcent of coal waggons, under the name of a *convoy*, has not before been more extenſively applied. Two-furrow ploughs may be uſeful, as a kind of inducement to ploughmen to make more diſpatch with a ſtrong team; thus breaking by degrees a bad habit. But, in the end, it will appear that the ſame reaſons which would prevent the adoption of a twenty-furrow plough, apply (though with diminiſhed force) to a double furrow

plough. A Field Account of a lucrative Farm, is given at page 433. It is in a very crude ſtate; and chiefly valuable for the remarks added to it. An exact performance of the ſame kind would be highly valuable as a pattern.

Many documents, proving the attention of Lord Somerville to the important Commodity of Wool, are next inſerted. The ſpeedy effect on the markets is an aſtoniſhing fact; and, we hope, augurs that general information has gained *wings* among practical and commercial men. The Preſident (Lord Somerville) recommends ſalt to be ſprinkled among hay and green ſeed; and ſeems to have conduced to the creation of numerous country ſocieties, by an influential letter circulated among the great. Iron-rail-ways offer novelty to many readers; they are (after the ſteam engine) the ſecond mechanical benefit the country has received from the northern coal mines.

The volume concludes with Sir John Call's Reſearches about Population, which we alſo found and noticed in the laſt publiſhed volume of the Bath Society.

In eſtimating all publications which ſincerely aim at public benefit, a reluctance to ſee faults ſhould influence the critic; moſt part of this production little wants this favourable preponderance of opinion. We are well pleaſed to ſee any notice of the change of Preſidents cautiouſly avoided; becauſe if the Board were induced to a bad action on *political motives*, it is hence ſeen, they are not indifferent to good fame. We do not inſinuate the ſmalleſt inequality of Lord Somerville to this important ſtation; his exertions in the wool trade have been eminently beneficial: but the ſtudied ſlight on Sir John Sinclair, the founder of the Board, diſplays an unjuſtifiable ingratitude for his labour in the cauſe.

II.—*Some Account of the Shrewſbury Houſe of Induſtry.* *By* J. Wood. 3s. 6d.—A fifth edition of this valuable work is now preſented to the public, with an Appendix, giving an agreeable account of the reformation of this inſtitution, thus proving that it contained power of ſelf-amendment, as well as of primary utility. The introduction adduces many great names as giving a powerful ſuffrage againſt the preſent ſyſtem or adminiſtration of the poor-laws. So ſoon after their origin as the reign of James the Firſt, the immortal Bacon animadverted on their bad effects, and even hinted at the eſtabliſhment of houſes of induſtry. However, among theſe authorities we obſerve much prejudice, and all ariſing from the local ſituation of the obſerver. Men of genius are ſo much in the habit of ſimplifying all ſubjects, that they cannot ſuppoſe the condition and management of the poor is liable to ſo many diſtinctions. Mr. Wood indeed has the candour to acknowledge, that the objections to the preſent ſyſtem are much leſs weighty in the country than in populous towns. This, we apprehend, is exactly the caſe; and as the aggregate population of the country exceeds that of towns, we ſhould be ſorry to ſee the preſent ſyſtem of poor-laws overthrown by ſuch inconſiderate meaſures as are occaſionally propoſed by the miſtaking humanity of individuals in Parliament.

We are glad that Mr. W. does not accede to the common reports of the peculation or inhumanity of pariſh officers. Careleſſneſs and ignorance may indeed be imputed to them, though hardly as crimes; ſince an irkſome occupation (without reward) can ſeldom be carefully

executed by men much more intereſted in their own affairs. This ſhould not be expected from human nature. The pity excited by poverty ſuffers no miſconduct to be imputed to the poor; though their ignorance ſeems to promiſe no exact obſervation of moral rectitude. In fact their whole abilities are exerted in the execution of deceit, which may procure from the pariſh officers an allowance of money for idle and profligate purpoſes. Why ſhould the poor be ſuppoſed exempted from the love of money and the hatred of labour?

Some alterations of the laws of removals, &c. are propoſed, with a view to diminiſh litigations. Any alteration would ſuperadd another century of litigations to determine its meaning. The law expence of pariſhes is rather on the decline. The abuſes in friendly ſocieties, by their own bye laws, are ſuccinctly exhibited, and the propriety of the obvious encouragement and ſecurity afforded by honorary members diſplayed. A little money ſo beſtowed, will be found to annihilate ſome heavy articles of parochial diſburſements. We believe this ſalutary expedient is becoming general.

A national board is propoſed for the inſpection of the whole management and operation of the poor-laws, work-houſes, &c. through the kingdom. Nothing can be more uſeful than ſuch boards, when well conſtituted; but that ſeldom happens. Many men of intereſt get their names inſerted merely from oſtentation, and think no more about the matter; and where a ſalary is given, there is another motive for improper (that is lazy) men to offer their ſervices. The general experience of national boards in England and Ireland has given little encouragement for thoſe expenſive experiments. Such a cenſor as our author does more by a pamphlet, than a board might do in twenty years.

After this long introduction, the immediate ſubject of the book is appoſitely prefaced by obſervations on the depravity and wretchedneſs of the poor in large towns. As there the overſeer can have no perſonal acquaintance with the applicants, deceptions are infinite, and ſoon induce a general careleſſneſs of conduct, when he perceives that no diligence can be completely effectual. The Houſe of Induſtry at Shrewſbury was eſtabliſhed under a diſtinct act of Parliament; is governed by twelve directors, of certain property, choſen by the pariſhes, but compellable to ſerve. Except an immediate and general reſolution to pay no houſe-rent, all other changes have been made by degrees, and founded on experiment. The effect has been a vaſt diminution of poor-rates. To good behaviour in the poor is allowed certain honorary rewards; to induſtry, one ſixth of its earnings. A ſeparate houſe for the ſick, and plenty of wholeſome food to all. Many uſeful hints are given to the founders of ſimilar inſtitutions; and thoſe who apply for a diſtinct act of Parliament will do well to attend to the experience gained at Shrewſbury. The moſt prominent alteration is in preventing the twelve directors from determining their office *all together*; thus no perſon of experience is left, and the whole direction naturally devolves on the ſteward, who will always have the wiſh, and generally the power, to embarraſs matters, ſo as to keep every thing at his own diſpoſal. A ſerious abuſe of this ſort was extant at Shrewſbury, and it required no common exertions to reduce affairs to their original order and ſimplicity. This is an excellent general leſſon for all employers. Agents muſt be confined

to the arrangement of details, or they will ſoon become in reality bad maſters; poſitive in error, if not diſhoneſt in principle. Peculation had made conſiderable inroads at Shrewſbury. The bye-laws and rules of the houſe appear well digeſted; ſanctioned by the practical approbation of ſeventeen years, they carry high authority; perhaps the account-books to be kept by the ſteward (p. 87.) are too numerous; but we hint this with much diffidence.

We are perfectly convinced that the general peruſal of this ſenſible, perſpicuous work, would have a powerful and happy influence; hence we recommend it to all who poſſeſs general humanity, and aſſure thoſe, whoſe ſituation forces them to ſerve pariſh offices, or to pay heavy poor-rates, that the time allotted to reading this book will be profitably ſpent, as it may lead to eſſential and general improvement.

IV. *The Villager's Friend and Phyſician. By* JAMES PARKINSON. 1s. 1800.—Conſcious of the extreme utility of ſuch a publication as the title promiſed, we were ſorry to feel diſappointment on peruſal; the precepts and obſervations are not deficient in propriety or judgment; but the ſubject is not handled in that popular manner which it is ſo much more eaſy to recognize than to deſcribe, and which is ſo indiſpenſible in a Book addreſſed to untutered villagers. It begins rather oddly in deſcribing the wretched ſituation of a village Apothecary; we ſuppoſe this is intended as a general portrait; becauſe otherwiſe it would be obviouſly waſte paper; yet we have ſeen no cauſe that theſe gentlemen are more ſcantily renumerated than others. Their education coſts much leſs; their habits of life are not neceſſarily expenſive; we ſhould rather complain that the extreme ignorance of many village *doctors* makes their exiſtance a public nuiſance. The beſt part of this little volume is towards the end, where it is to be found a well written caution againſt Quack-medicines.—This is in point, as the great conſumption of theſe poiſons is among Ruſtics. Gentle treatment of children is recommended, and the advantages of *learning* (that is of learning to read, write, and cypher) are oftener than once noticed.—The Book is good; but it might have been much better.

V. *A Meteorological Journal of the Year* 1799.—*Kept in London by* WILLIAM BENT, 1800.—The weather of laſt year was ſo truly extraordinary, that a Meteorological Journal of it is more generally intereſting than uſual. Mr. Bent's annual publication has obtained a merited reputation of accuracy. The total quantity of rain in 1799 appears to have been 21 inches 18-100. We ſuſpect that the apparatus for aſcertaining the quantity of rain, is placed at ſome height from the ground, or it would have indicated a larger total. Since a modern diſcovery has proved that height makes ſuch a difference, the height ſhould always be expreſſed (with other particulars) in the prefatory page. "From the 8th of July to the 16th November, was a rainy period, except the firſt ten days in September, which were fine and ſeaſonable." After ſuch a ſtatement it is a real wonder that we had not felt the effects of famine inſtead of ſcarcity; and yet we hear complaints of monopoly. The crop of potatoes (which was not ſcanty) ſtood us in good ſtead.—We hope the encouragement of the high price at planting time, will cauſe an unuſual plenty of that moſt uſeful root through the next winter.

HISTORY.

National Transactions,

CIVIL AND MILITARY.

EAST INDIES.—After the taking of Seringapatam, Colonel Dalrymple was ſent with an army to review and ſettle the extenſive and fertile country lying between that place and the Nizam's dominions. The colonel defeated ſeveral parties of banditti, under the command of one Dhoondiah, took the fort of Chandgerry by aſſault; and when the laſt accounts came away was in full purſuit of the inſurgents. A courier has arrived over land from India, which brings letters dated as late as the 7th March from Calcutta. At this time every thing was quiet in India. A negotiation was on foot with the nabob of Oude to aſſign over his revenues to the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, and to retire on a penſion. The pretence for this demand, on the part of the Engliſh, is, the intrigues and very unſettled ſtate of the court of Oude; but the real motive ſeems to be their inordinate deſire of acquiring dominion, which has ſeized the company's ſervants ever ſince they quitted the proper paths of commerce, to which they ought either to confine themſelves, or be confined by their maſters. As to the unhappy prince, he knows that a demand of this nature muſt be complied with, otherwiſe, in a ſhort time, a quarrel may be picked with him, and inevitable deſtruction enſue. The diſturbances which aroſe in the cotiote country are all happily ſuppreſſed.

TURKEY and EGYPT.—Ever ſince the capitulation was ſigned between the Grand Vizir and General Kleber, a manifeſt appearance of diſtruſt has ariſen between the Engliſh officers and the Turks. Sir Sydney Smith, his brother, who was Britiſh reſident at Conſtantinople, General Kochler, and the officers who went out with him from England, are ſaid to be coming home. A myſtery prevails in the tranſactions of the porte, and it is evident that the Britiſh have loſt much of their intereſt in the Divan. It is ſaid that Lord Keith, having been informed of the convention, wrote to General Kleber, informing him that he could not ratify it, and deſired Sir Sydney Smith to continue the blockade of Alexandria. This letter arrived at the moment when the French were about to evacuate Cairo. Kleber, on this, informed the Grand Vizir, that he conſidered the capitulation as broken, immediately attacked the Turkiſh army, and totally deſtroyed it. Whether Lord Keith received orders from hence to take ſuch a ſtep is unknown; but it is evident the conſequence have been the revival of hoſtility; a loſs of an army of thirty thouſand men to the Turks, and, perhaps, the total loſs of the whole of Egypt. It is reported that negotiations have been renewed between the Turks and Kleber; but of this no confirmation has been received. If we may give credit to the French papers, they aſſure us it is not General Kleber's intention to keep poſſeſſion of Egypt.

NAPLES, SICILY, and MALTA.—Great preparations are making at Palermo for the journey of the queen of Naples to Vienna. Later accounts ſay that ſhe has arrived at Leghorn, eſcorted by an Engliſh fleet, under the convoy of Lord Nelſon.

At Naples the government ſeems to have relaxed in its ſeverity, and near fifteen hundred perſons who had been impriſoned for what are called French

principles have been liberated. The king has, to reward thoſe who have adhered to him, inſtituted a new order of knighthood, which is to be called the Order of Loyalty. Theſe alterations in the conduct of the Neopolitan government may be attributed to the abſence of the queen.

OTHER ITALIAN STATES.—The arrival of the French newſpapers has furniſhed us with ample details reſpecting the operations of war in the northern parts of Italy. General Maſſena writes to the Grand Conſul from Genoa dated 7th June, that he had been obliged to capitulate for want of ſubſiſtence; that, on the day he wrote, he had ſerved to the troops the laſt of what was called their bread, which was only a bad mixture of bran, chapped ſtraw, and cocoa; that the mortality from famine had been great; but the troops had borne it with a reſolution unparalleled. The capture of Genoa, for which the Auſtrians had been prodigal of ſo much blood, ſeems, however, to have haſtened their ruin. While General Ott was employed in ſettling the terms of capitulation, the French army, under the grand conſul, made themſelves maſters of Lodi, of Placentia, of Breſcia, and other places where the Auſtrians had magazines; and, on the 6th, croſſed the Po, and took poſſeſſeſſion of the ſtrong poſt of Stradella. Ott advanced againſt this poſt with 15,000 men. After a hard fought battle the Auſtrians were defeated, with the loſs of 3,000 killed and wounded, and near 6,000 priſoners. They were purſued to Montebello. Mean time Melas was advancing from Turin with the remains of his army, and having joined the fugitives, found himſelf, by the manœuvres of the French, completely ſurrounded. He had nothing then to do but to make an attempt to cut his way through, which he eſſayed to do at Marengo, a ſmall town between Alexandria and Tartone. Here one of the moſt obſtinate battles was fought which has taken place during the war. The French were at times in danger of being defeated, but, by the prudent conduct of their generals, the preſence of Bonaparte, and the advance of their *corps de reſerve*, they obtained a complete victory. The loſs of the Auſtrians being 15 pair of colours, 40 pieces of cannon, 8,000 priſoners, and near 6,000 men left on the field of battle. So deciſive a defeat left General Melas no other reſource but a capitulation to ſave the remainder of his army.

By this capitulation the fortreſſes of Piedmont and Genoa are to be given up, and the whole Auſtrian corps to retire beyond the Mincio. The duchy of Tuſcany to be neutral. Theſe articles were ſent off to the emperor for his ratification. Several of the articles of capitulation were, however, complied with; Melas's troops have been permitted to march to the place of their deſtination, and ſeveral of the ſtrong towns of Piedmont have been delivered up to the French. At Genoa an unpleaſant circumſtance took place; Lord Keith, who had blockaded Genoa, inſiſted that the neutral ſhips he found there, amounting to 120, ſhould be conſidered as prizes, and actually took them out of the harbour. He then inſiſted that they ſhould be ranſomed for 500,000 livres; and, we have ſince been informed, that a very conſiderable ſum has been paid him.

This ſucceſs of the French has given a decided turn to the affairs of the north of Italy. General Berthier is employed in organizing the Ciſalpine republic; and it is ſuppoſed that the Ligurian republic, and the different eſtates of the king of Sardinia in Piedmont, will be invited to join them. If this event takes place, that republic will be truly reſpectable. The univerſity of Bologna, and that of Pavia have been re-eſtabliſhed, and profeſſors appointed in every part of ſcience. The deſertion from the Auſtrian army is ſaid to be ſo great as to threaten its diſſolution. This deſertion, we may preſume, is among the Italian troops, ſerving in the Auſtrian army.

Later accounts from Vienna aſſure us, that the Emperor has refuſed to ratify the treaty between Bonaparte and Melas: but this can be of little conſequence, as the French have got poſſeſſion of all the fortreſſes and of the Piedmonteſe troops which were with the army of the Emperor; the greater part of them amounting to 15,000, have entered into the French ſervice. To

the emperor likewiſe we can ſee no advantage that will accrue, but the neutrality of the Tuſcars.

FRANCE.—The government of France ſhew a fixed determination to keep the territory on the left bank of the Rhine; they have appointed prefects to govern thoſe departments and prefectorial councils.

Orders have been given not to take recruits from among the enemies' priſoners; a clear proof that France does not find herſelf by any means exhauſted by the levies ſhe has made. Indeed we are aſſured, that although ſo many more have been ſent from Dijon for Italy, yet that a very ſtrong army, ſaid to amount to 65,000 men, aſſembled there ready to march whereever they may be wanted. Of the emigants, who have been permitted to return to France, many have been again expelled on account of their bad behaviour.

The American envoys at Paris have begun their negotiations, and they promiſe a ſpeedy reconciliation.

The return of the chief conſul to Paris had been anxiouſly expected, and on his arrival, every demonſtration of joy was ſhewn, by illuminating, addreſſing, &c. He ſtopped at Lyons to lay the firſt ſtone of the building for the new ſquare, and was there alſo received with unbounded joy.

All the officers on leave of abſence have been ordered to join their reſpective corps. Indeed it ſeems to be the reſolution of the government of France to make the moſt vigorous exertions this year, and to command a peace, if poſſible.

HOLLAND. The government of this country are employed in plans to revive their commerce. They permit the importation of ſuch goods as they want. A diſpute has ariſen between this country and England, reſpecting the fiſhery on the Dutch coaſt. In all former wars, fiſhermen were permitted to exerciſe their calling; but in this deſtructive conteſt, the Engliſh have thought proper to interrupt their enemies, in thus procuring themſelves proviſions. A negotiation was on the carpet to permit the Dutch fiſhermen again to fiſh; and ſome conceſſions were to have been made to this country for that permiſſion; but it being ſtipulated by England, that the veſſels thus fiſhing were to carry the ſtadtholder's flag, the government of Holland refuſed, and, of courſe, the permiſſion was refuſed likewiſe.

SWEDEN and DENMARK.—Some diſturbances are ſaid to have taken place in the diet of Sweden; but as the king of Sweden has been on a viſit to Copenhagen, we may be aſſured there was not any thing ſerious. This young prince's journey, at this period, affords ground for ſpeculation, and in ſome degree confirms the report of a negotiation between the northern courts. Sweden and Ruſſia, we know, have entered into a treaty; the viſit to Denmark ſeems to ſhew, that there is a negotiation between thoſe countries; and the king of Pruſſia's intereſt ſo clearly points out to him an alliance, in which he has every thing to hope and nothing to fear, that there can be little doubt that he either has or will accede.

RUSSIA.—From Hamburgh we learn, that the grand triple alliance is actually ſigned. Indeed it promiſes ſuch ample good to every one concerned that little doubt can be entertained of its accompliſhment. Sweden, by its treaty with Ruſſia, ſecures a protector who will ſtand forth to ſecure the independence of her flag; and Denmark, although ſhe has not, as the Swedes, been moleſted in her trade, yet it cannot but be pleaſing, and highly advantageous to her to have the freedom of her navigation protected. Pruſſia has no fleet of war of her own; but as ſhe has a moſt ardent wiſh to become a commercial ſtate, an alliance which, in the end, will protect her commerce, muſt unavoidably be courted by her. Mean time the emperor of Ruſſia, to whom the other three look up, cannot fail to be gratified at ſeeing himſelf the head and protector of a confederacy ſo truly reſpectable. All Ruſſia can now want, to be the firſt naval power of Europe, is a port that has a conſtantly open communication with the great Atlantic, and this ſhe hoped

for in Malta. No wonder, therefore, the Emperor's disappointment in respect to that island has wrought such a powerful change.

GERMANY.—Moreau's head-quarters, on the 8th June, were established at Memmingen, and Lacourbe collected his corps in a position near the river Guntz. Kray attacked, with 40,000 men, the corps of the French on the Iller. Assistance coming to them from the main army, the Austrians were repulsed, and left 2,000 prisoners, and eight pieces of cannon in the hands of the French. Next day Lacourbe marched towards the Lech, and the head quarters were removed to Babenhausen. In these movements several partial actions took place, and the French made many prisoners. By these manœuvres Kray has been completely deceived. Moreau, by stopping any reinforcements going to Italy, has secured the success of the consul in that quarter.

On the 28th June, actions took place at Nedersheen, Nordlingen, and Oberhausen, where General Kray commanded in person, and was defeated by Moreau. The enemy were pursued as far as Ingoldstat. The result of these victories have been the taking of Munich, from whence the Elector of Bavaria was obliged to fly with his whole court.

The convention, or treaty, between the Emperor and the King of Great Britain, for a subsidy of two millions, was signed at Vienna on the 20th June. By this treaty, both parties contract not to make peace or truce without the consent of each other. The Bavarian, Wertemberg, and other troops in the pay of Great Britain, are all to join the emperor's army, and act under his order.

AMERICA.—United States. The public mind in these states is by no means tranquil. Mr. Adam's conduct, since he was elected president, has given great offence to the real friends of his country which has been much increased by several prosecutions for libel, evidently tending to abridge the liberty of the press. Among other subjects of prosecution, Mr. Cooper, late of Manchester, has been tried and found guilty, and rather severely punished. Mr. Jefferson certainly stands for the post of president, and Mr. Washington, nephew of their late worthy president, for vice president. Whether Mr. Washington now sees the error of the late conduct of his party or not, this event will be highly favourable to Mr. Jefferson's election, as Mr. Washington's friends must, however, be inclined to withhold their vote for Mr. Adams; otherwise they may poll him above their friend, and, by that means defeat his election. Pickering, the secretary of state, who is much attached to the English, has been removed. The congress of the United States is to meet this year in the month of November, at the new city of Washington, which is to be the future seat of government. Before the congress for the last year separated, they ordered twelve regiments of the line to be disbanded, and the standing army of the Republic will then consist of one regiment of cavalry, four of infantry, and two of artillery only. The line of boundary between the United States and Spain has been finally settled.

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.—Monday, June 9th. A report was brought up from the committee, appointed to consider of the high price of coals; which was ordered to lie on the table. Sir Ralph Milbank observed, that no final measures could be adopted this year; but he doubted not, it would appear that no faults were attached to the coal miners. Lord Temple brought up the report of the committee on the Union Bill. The house, in a committee relative to the duties on paper, resolved that the paper for printing newspapers might be enlarged to 28 inches, without subjecting it to the additional duty. On the order of the day to go into a committee on the Bill for Limiting Monastic Institutions, Mr. Wildham, in a long speech, opposed the speaker's leaving the chair. He was answered by Mr. Jones, Sir H. Mildmay, and Mr. Hobhouse, and supported by several members; at last the motion was carried by a division, 55 to 39.

June 24. The Union Bill was read a third time; passed; and sent to the Lords. The house in a committee on the motion of Mr. Sylvester Douglas,

agreed that 65,000 pounds ſhould be employed to erect a Lazaretto; and ſeveral other reſolutions were agreed to, relative to a new ſyſtem of quarantine and alſo reſpecting duties to be paid by veſſels coming under the quarantine laws.

Next day the lords ſent a meſſage to the commons, requeſting the houſe to ſend their lordſhips the exemplification, under the great ſeal of Ireland, of the Iriſh Repreſentation Act; which was complied with. The ſame day a meſſage was brought from the king to the houſe of commons, acquainting them, that he had entered into a convention with the hereditary Prince of Orange, Stadholder of the United Provinces, for taking ſome of his ſhips and ſeamen into his ſervice; and recommending to the houſe to make proviſion for the ſame; which was agreed to be taken into conſideration on the morrow,—but, there not being members enough preſent to make a houſe, the buſineſs ſtood over.

Monday, June 20. In the houſe of lords, on a motion of Lord Grenville, the Bill for the Union with Ireland was read a third time, and paſſed. In the houſe of commons, the Attorney General moved to bring in a bill for regulating Trials for High Treaſon, and for Securing the Perſons of Lunatics charged with Offences; leave was given accordingly. Leave was alſo given to bring in a bill to prevent Combinations among Workmen and Labourers.

On Monday, the 27th, the ſubſidy to the Elector of Bavaria was taken into conſideration, in the houſe of lords, and, with ſome ſmall oppoſition from Lord Holland, paſſed. In the houſe of commons, on the ſame day, Mr. Sheridan called the attention of the houſe, in a long ſpeech, to the ſtate of the campaign; and concluded with moving, that a call of the houſe ſhould take place on that day fortnight; he was anſwered by Mr. Pitt, which drew from Mr. Sheridan one of the moſt ſevere replies ever heard in that houſe. On a diviſion, the numbers were—Ayes 27, Noes 124. Immediately after which Mr. Dundas brought forward a motion, to take the Dutch ſhips into Engliſh ſervice; which, after ſome oppoſition, was agreed to, and the ſupplies voted accordingly.

On the 1ſt July, the Speaker called the attention of the houſe to a bill to regulate the Salaries of Officers of the Houſe, and propoſed that when the patent intereſt expired, the fees ſhould all go into one purſe, and the clerks, &c. receive the following annual allowances, viz. The clerk 3,000l. aſſiſtant-clerk 15,000l, for five years, and 500 more after; to ſerjeant at arms 1300l.

On the 3d July, The duke of Bedford, in the houſe of lords, after a long ſpeech, moved that the houſe ſhould agree to the reſolutions of the houſe of commons, reſpecting the Incloſure of Waſte Lands. The conſideration of which was poſtponed to Monday. In the commons, ſeveral diviſions took place on the bill for eſtabliſhing a company to grind corn, &c. The conſideration was poſtponed till the next day, July 4th; when, after ſeveral more diviſions, the bill paſſed.

On the 8th, Mr. Jones made a motion for papers reſpecting the convention in Egypt, which, after ſome debates, was withdrawn. Next day, in the houſe of lords, Lord Holland made a like motion, which was negatived out a diviſion. Contents 2 non-contents 26. The duke of Bedford moved to agree to the reſolutions entered in reſpecting the improvement of waſte lands.

Lord Holland, next called the attention of the houſe to the ſtate of the nation, and moved that an humble addreſs ſhould be preſented to his majeſty, praying him not to prorogue parliament at the preſent alarming juncture. No other perſon replied but Lord Grenville, when the houſe divided. Contents 2 Non-contents 26. A like motion was made by M. Weſtern, in the houſe of commons, when a long debate enſued, and the houſe divided; for the motion 27; againſt it 143.

July 10th. The houſe of lords took into conſideration the London Flour and Bread Company's Bill. An account of foreign wheat imported was preſented from the Cuſtom-houſe, when the houſe reſolved to hear evidence at the bar on the ſaid bill on Monday next. The bill relating to foreign religious orders was preſented to be read a ſecond time, when, after a debate, in which the biſhops of Rocheſter and Wincheſter, and the Lord Chancellor took part, the bill was committed to that day three montns.

July 11. Sir Francis Burdett made a motion reſpecting the priſon in Cold Bath Fields, which was withdrawn, and notice given that it would be brought on another time.

Commercial Affairs.

WEST-INDIA DOCKS.

THE ceremony of laying the Firſt Stone of the buildings of this magnificent Undertaking, was performed on Saturday the 12th inſt. (being the anniverſary of that day, July 12th, 1799) on which the act of parliament for carrying the ſame into effect, received the royal aſſent.

The company aſſembled at the London Tavern, at one o'clock, and moved in the following proceſſion to the Iſle of Dogs:

The directors of the Weſt India Dock Company, and in the laſt of their carriages	The Right Hon. William Pitt,
	The Right Hon. Henry Dundas
	The Right Hon. Dudley Ryder
The Chairman and Deputy-chairman	The Right Hon. Thomas Steele
The Lord Chancellor	The Right Hon. Silveſter Douglas
Earl Spencer	Sir Joſeph Banks, Bart. K.B.
Lord Hawkeſbury	Sir Andrew Snape, Hamond, Bart.

And a numerous train of Members of Parliament, including thoſe of the houſe of commons for the improvement of the port of London.

Soon after two o'clock, the proceſſion arrived at the works, where Lord Carrington and many other diſtinguiſhed perſonages of both ſexes had aſſembled to be preſent at the ceremony, which was conducted in the following manner:

The ſtone had been previouſly prepared to receive two glaſs bottles, one of which received the ſeveral coins (gold, ſilver, and copper) of his preſent Majeſty's reign, and in the other, the following inſcription and tranſlation thereof in Latin, were placed:

Of this range of buildings
Conſtructed, together with the adjacent docks,
At the expence of public ſpirited individuals,
Under the ſanction of a provident Legiſlature,
And with the liberal co-operation of the corporate body of the
CITY of LONDON,
For the diſtinct purpoſe
Of complete SECURITY and ample ACCOMMODATION
(hitherto not afforded)
To the SHIPPING and PRODUCE of the WEST INDIES at this
wealthy PORT,
THE FIRST STONE WAS LAID,
On Saturday the Twelfth Day of July, A. D. 1800.
BY THE CONCURRING HANDS OF
THE RIGHT HONOURABLE LORD LOUGHBOROUGH,
LORD HIGH CHANCELLOR OF GREAT BRITAIN;
THE RIGHT HONOURABLE WILLIAM PITT,
FIRST LORD COMMISSIONER OF HIS MAJESTY'S TREASURY,
AND CHANCELLOR OF HIS MAJESTY'S EXCHEQUER;
GEORGE HIBBERT, ESQ. THE CHAIRMAN.

AND

ROBERT MILLIGAN, ESQ. THE DEPUTY CHAIRMAN

OF THE WEST INDIA DOCK COMPANY;

The two former conſpicuous in the Band
Of thoſe illuſtrious Stateſmen,
Who in either Houſe of Parliament have been zealous to promote,
The two latter diſtinguiſhed among thoſe choſen to direct,
AN UNDERTAKING
Which, under the Favour of GOD, ſhall contribute
STABILITY, INCREASE, and ORNAMENT,
TO
BRITISH COMMERCE.

The bottles being depoſited in the receſſes made to receive them, and alſo a plate with the Directors' names engraved thereon. Mr. Tyrrell, the Clerk and Solicitor to the Weſt-India Dock Company, read the inſcription, and the four Noble and Honourable Perſonages named for that purpoſe, raiſed the ſtone (by means of four rings fixed thereto), and laid it in the proper ſituation.

The ſpectators then gave three times three hearty cheers, and declared their beſt wiſhes for the ſucceſs of the undertaking.

The Band of the Weſt London Militia attended, and played appropriate muſic before and after the Ceremony, which was graced with a ſplendid diſplay of beauty; amongſt the ladies of diſtinction were, the Counteſs of Liverpool, Lady Mary Bentinck, Lady Georgiana Gordon, Lady Charlotte Jenkinſon, and Lady C. Greville.

After the Ceremony, the Company viewed the extenſive works carrying on at the Iſle of Dogs, and expreſſed great pleaſure and ſatisfaction at the ſpirited exertion manifeſted by the progreſs already made in a concern of ſuch magnitude.

The Company afterwards returned by water from Blackwall, in the barges belonging to the Admiralty and Navy Boards, &c. &c. which were in attendance on the occaſion.

An elegant entertainment was provided at the London Tavern, where the Duke of Portland, and ſeveral other Noblemen and Gentlemen of diſtinction joined the company, and the remainder of the day paſſed with great conviviality.

Some of the Toaſts after Dinner were as follow:

The KING and CONSTITUTION (with repeated plaudits).

Succeſs to the Works at the Iſle of Dogs; and may our Corner Stone ſtand firm under the weight of increaſing Commerce.

Proſperity to the City of London; and may every ſucceſſive Improvement of its Port produce the need of more.

Proſperity to the Weſt-India Colonies.

Lord Hawkeſbury, and the Gentlemen of the Select Committee of the Houſe of Commons, for improving the Port of London: thanks to them for their paſt, and ſucceſs to their future labours.

The Noblemen and Gentlemen who ſupported in Parliament the eſtabliſhment of the Weſt India Dock Company.

Alderman Skinner, and the Gentlemen of the Port Committee of the City of London; thanks to them for their faithful Attention to the Concerns of the Weſt-India Dock Company.

The Navy and Army.

Peace with Security and Honour, or War with Unanimity and Vigor.

Succeſs to the Union between England and Ireland, and may the United Kingdoms experience, in the Centuries to come, as much Proſperity as in the Century paſt.

Return of the Quantity of Wheat imported, from the 1st of Jan. 1781:

	Quarters.		*Quarters.*
1781	98,270	1791	49,504
2	4,630	2	7,065
3	240,134	3	170,971
4	36,966	4	19,654
5	605	5	198,911
6	——	6	477,879
7	——	7	195,462
8	4	8	152,449
9	5,908	9	238,208
1790	67,032	to 21st June 1800	227,757

A plan of importance is said to be under the consideration of a Select Committee of the House of Commons, for improving the Port of London: it consists of an iron bridge, curiously constructed, so as to allow ships to pass under the centre arch. It is understood that, from the estimates, the expence will be repaid by the improvements of the wharfs alone, independent of what will be raised by a duty on the ships.

In consequence of the large acquisition of territory made by the East-India Company, their servants at Madras, have written home that more shipping will be required for the next year. In pursuance of which the Company have taken up three large ships, to be fitted out immediately.

At Monmouth wool fair, wool sold at 29s. per stone, although, from the prospect of orders from Ireland, 42s. was expected; in consequence of which low prices much remained unsold.

At Ledbury fair, wool sold for 25s. per stone; best cheese at 84s. two-meal, 75s. per cwt. The shew of cattle was small, none fat, and the prices high.

A plan has been suggested, at Bristol, and is likely to be put in practice; it is to bring corn to market, in bulk, and not to sell by sample. Several warehouses have been offered for the purpose.

From Germany we learn, that the fair, at Leipsic, has been remarkably well attended this year. The value of merchandize sold is said to have been above 10,000,000 florins.

The Paris Bankers have adopted a mode for their checks, which, it is said, will effectually prevent forgery. They are made from glass plates; but the mode by which they are made has not yet been published.

The committee of the Ouse Navigation are preparing to render that river more navigable.

Report of Commercial Law Cases.

AN action was brought in the Court of King's Bench, Westminster, last term, by a young Lady, against a hackney coach owner, for his man overturning the carriage, by which she received much hurt, and had been troubled with hysteric fits ever since. The jury found a verdict of 10l.

Another action was brought, in the same court, by a servant, against her mistress, for refusing to give her a character; but Lord Kenyon, on the opening, having declared he knew of no law which compelled a master or mistress to give a character to a discarded servant, the plaintiff was non-suited.

An action was brought to recover the value of a horse, sold by the defendant, and warranted sound. Evidence was given, that the horse died in a few days; and, on opening, it was discovered that the horse had laboured under a pthisis, and that his lungs were gone, and his entrails in a state of putridity. Verdict for the plaintiff.

Two butchers, of Newport Market, have been tried at the Quarter Seſſions for Weſtminſter, for foreſtalling: they met the cattle at Kenſington, and there agreed for them, and afterwards re-ſold them. They were found guilty, and ſentenced to fine and imprisonment.

Ruſby, an eminent corn factor of London, was tried for regrating. He purchaſed corn at the Corn Market, in Mark Lane, of one factor, by ſample; he immediately carried the ſamples to the ſtand of another factor, where it was ſold again for an advance. The fact was clearly proved; and the jury, without heſitation, gave a verdict of guilty. Lord Kenyon told them they had conferred the greateſt ſervice to their country, by the pains they had taken to elucidate this buſineſs. Ruſby will not receive ſentence till next term.

Clarke *v.* Bloxam. This was an action to recover the value of a draft of 100l. which had been loſt, and notice given to ſtop payment of it. The notice was proved, and the payment of the draft to have been made through inattention. Verdict was given for the plaintiff.

Turner *v.* Oddy. Action on a bill of exchange, tendered to the defendant, and accepted by him; but diſcovering afterwards, from the ſtate of his correſpondent's account, that he ſhould not have accepted it, he croſſed the acceptance, and returned the bill. It was clearly ſhewn, by many determinations at law, that the defacing a bill was a virtual acceptance.—Verdict was accordingly given for the plaintiffs.

Petrie *v.* Goldſmids. By ſome miſtake the plaintiff had accepted two bills of the ſame ſet of bills of exchange, drawn from Hamburgh, thinking them to be bills of two different ſets, and had paid them. This action was brought to recover back the value of one of them. The facts being proved, on clear evidence, Lord Kenyon reprobated the conduct of the defendant, in ſuffering ſuch a cauſe to come before a court, and directed a verdict for the plaintiff.

Manufactures and Useful Arts.

TO make bread with rice, a perſon gives the following recipe:—Four pounds of flour and one pound of rice; the rice ſimmered over the fire, and then well mixed. This compoſition will make eight pounds of good bread.

A French Gentleman, M. Blancherie, has preſented to the Agricultural Society of the Seine and Ouſe, in France, a plan of a new Bee Hive, which has been much approved of. It has a tin box at top, for honey to keep the bees during winter, and will admit of fumigation.

The claſs of public and private economy of the National Inſtitute, at Paris, has given riſe to many intereſting reſearches, of which the following is the reſult:

M. Nicholas has deſcribed all the proceſſes in the art of refining ſalt, and proves that white ſalt is preferable to grey ſalt, notwithſtanding the prejudices which exiſt to the contrary.

Bougier la Bergerie has recalled the uſe it would be to the nation to cultivate and uſe French hemp.

The ſociety for bettering the condition of the poor, propoſe a plan to make 36 pounds of food, at one penny per pound. Take four pounds of rice, a quarter of a pound of ſuet, and three gallons of water, which, well boiled together, will, they ſay, make an excellent meſs.

The publication of Mr. Brown, on the Brewery, clearly points out the various ſubſtitutes which are uſed by the brewers, inſtead of malt and hops. The public ſhould, therefore, be attentive to detect all ſuch practices, and puniſh them.

The ſpeculations in the eſtabliſhing manufactures, in Ireland, ſupported by capital from this country, we are told, are very numerous. Brewhouſes, woollen manufactories, and various other eſtabliſhments, to which the favourable ſituation of that country invites, are now going on. We are alſo informed, that near 250,000l. has been remitted to that conntry, to inveſt in lands.

Agriculture.

Monthly Report of Agriculture, from the Midland Counties, for July, 1800.

DURING the remarkably fine weather that has prevailed throughout this, and a great part of the preceding month, moſt abundant crops of hay, in excellent condition, and at a comparatively ſmall expence, have been collected in all the Midland, and more Northern counties of the kingdom. Thoſe meadows in the vicinity of rivers, whoſe produce was laſt year ſwept away, or deſtroyed, by inundations, have this Summer proved uncommonly fertile; as have, indeed, alſo the higher grounds in general; ſo that, although very little old hay remains, we have reaſon to ſuppoſe that the price of this article will not be exorbitant.

But, as may be expected, when extremely fortunate in one reſpect, we muſt ſubmit to ſome deduction from our intereſt in another. This long continued fair weather has not been ſo propitious to ſome ſpecies of growing grain, particularly oats; which are, for the moſt part, ſhort in the ſtalk, and ſcanty in the ear *. Barley, peas, and beans, have a much better appearance; and the wheat, in general, augurs well; yet, to theſe, moderate and genial rains, at the latter end of the month, will be of ſervice; and, for turnips, will be much needed.

Accounts from Herefordſhire and Worceſterſhire are far from favourable reſpecting hops, the black fly having, it is ſaid, taken poſſeſſion of many gardens; but, if rain precedes the time of bearing, there may yet be a good crop of this verſatile and fluctuating article of ſpeculation. The price continuing very high, many private families have reſorted to the ſubſtitution of a foreign alternative, *Quaſſia*; half an ounce of which, uſed in thin ſhavings, produces as potent an aromatic bitter as a pound of hops: in due proportion, it is adviſable to uſe them together.

London Corn Exchange, Monday, July 21, 1800. Fine wheat has fallen, ſince laſt Monday, full eight ſhillings per quarter, and the inferior ſorts from ten to twelve ſhillings per quarter. Fine Eſſex, 134 to 136 ſhillings. Barley, 52 to 64 ſhillings. Oats, 40 to 52 ſhillings per quarter. Large quantities of wheat and American flour have been brought to this country in the courſe of the laſt ten days. The American flour is amazingly fine and ſound. Engliſh fine flour is five pounds ten ſhillings per ſack.

July 25. In the Country Markets, in general, grain has had an amazing fall. At Devizes, the wheat fell 27 ſhillings per quarter; and, at Warminſter, it fell 30 ſhillings ſince Friday ſe'nnight; and at Barnſtaple, and other parts of Devonſhire, the price laſt week fell 40 ſhillings per quarter. At Dawliſh, and other parts of Devonſhire, the wheat harveſt commenced laſt Friday ſe'nnight, under the happieſt circumſtances. In Norfolk, and moſt Southern counties, it has commenced generally; and the barley, in many counties, is now ripe; and oats and wheat will ſoon be ripe in all the early diſtricts.

* Since this report was written, its author has ſeen cauſe to change his opinion reſpecting oats; they, as well as every other kind of grain, being, in general, very promiſing and fine.

Cambridgeſhire, July 25. Notwithſtanding the continuance of the dry, and of late hot weather, the wheats, in general, are likely to be very good.

The barleys, oats, beans, and peas, are likely to produce very plentiful crops.

Rape ſeed and muſtard are very fine crops this year, and they are now beginning to be cut.

The crops of potatoes are more extenſive this year than ever remembered before; the produce is likely to be very great, and the quality is certainly very excellent; and they are likely to help to lower the price of wheat, and ſupply the poor with wholeſome food.

The very dry weather, without any ſhowers of rain, has very generally prevented the recently ſown rape ſeed and turnip ſeed from taking root, and alſo materially injured the young plants. But ſhould we be favoured with rain ſoon, the fallows ſhould be ſown over again; and all early ſtubbles ſhould, likewiſe, be ſown this year with turnip ſeed.

The hay harveſt weather has been the fineſt ever known in the memory of man; and, although ſome of the crops are rather light, and many hay ſtacks may have been heated too much, and ſome few may have fired, nevertheleſs hay will prove of the fineſt quality, and plentiful.

Although the wool trade is dull, the growers are unwilling to ſell at any lower prices; and ſome few fine fleeces of the Welch and South Down kinds have ſold as high as 2s. per pound; and ſome, in Cambridgeſhire, at 24s. per tod.

The hop plantations had recovered greatly; but the continuance of dry weather now injures them. The cyder counties are ſtill very unpromiſing. Live ſtock are ſtill very dear; but the dry weather will probably ſoon reduce them a little lower, for a time. Good horſes are high in price.

Some farmers, at Bexhill, Suſſex, have agreed to ſell wheat at 35 pounds per load, which will provide flour for the poor, at 2s. 6d. per gallon.

A generous farmer, of the name of Williams, laſt year ſold grain at 9s. 8d. per buſhel, when others required a much higher price. He alſo lets out ſmall parcels of land to his poor neighbours, and lends them money to cultivate.

At Devizes fair, wheat ſold at 106s. to 117s. per quarter. Barley, 60s. to 80s. Oats, 45s. to 50s.

At Newbury, wheat ſold from 110s. to 159s. Barley, 50s. to 70s. Bacon, 66s. to 48s. Peaſe, 60s. to 74s. Oats, 39s. to 46s.

At Herefordſhire meeting for live ſtock, the Duke of Norfolk, the Earl of Eſſex, the Earl of Oxford, &c. were preſent. A prize was beſtowed for the beſt boar. The Earl of Eſſex produced a bull, which was a great favourite; but, being under two years, did not obtain the prize.

At Herefordſhire Midſummer fair, the prices were briſk. Fine wool ſold from 24s. to 28s. per ſtone. Second, 15s. to 20s.—7s. per ſtone under laſt year.

At Shrewſbury fair there was much wool ſold, from 16s. to 26s. Cattle ſold well. Sheep and pigs lower than laſt year. Horſes high. Old Cheeſe, 65s. but much remained unſold.

At Bridgwater, cattle fell greatly.

Wrexham Agricultural Society have advertiſed to give a variety of premiums. For laying down the greateſt quantity of water meadows, not leſs than five acres, not before overflowed, a Silver Medal. To a tenant for ſo doing, Five Guineas, or a Silver Mug. For raiſing the beſt crop of turnips, not leſs than three acres, a Silver Medal. To a tenant doing the ſame, Five Guineas, or a Silver Mug. Beſides a variety of premiums to induſtrious huſbandmen, ſervants, boys, &c.

Two or three ſtacks have been burned at different places, by being put up too wet. A caution to farmers in this ſeaſon.

The harveſt has begun in Norfolk, and promiſes to be good; indeed, the proſpect of crops all over the country is very great.

A correſpondent recommends, to increaſe the cultivation of potatoes, to cut out the eyes of all large, and preſerve even the ſprouts that are grown from them, and to plant them.

A fleece of wool was cut from a ſheep of Sir Charles Bampfield, which ſold for 14s. 6d.

PRIZE QUESTIONS.

The following Prize Queſtions have appeared in the French Publications, which may afford ſome Hints to the Societies of this Country:

SOCIETY of Agriculture, Science, and Arts, of the department of the Seine and Marne, ſitting at Meaux.

Conſidering that the Societies of Agriculture have laboured, and will labour in vain, to ſpread Agricultural Knowledge; ſo long as they cannot make themſelves underſtood by thoſe whom they wiſh to inſtruct; ſo long as the principles and language of Mineralogy, of Botany, Zoology, and even Chemiſtry, ſhall be totally unknown to Agriculturaliſts, have determined to propoſe the following queſtion, as a ſubject for a prize:

To preſent a Plan of rational Education, for Schools, which ſhall be principally deſtined for Children intended for Agriculture—a Gold Medal, of the value of 144 livres.

The Society of free Agriculture, of the Marne, have propoſed to give two prizes for the following queſtions:

1. What is the moſt economical mode of Education; and, at the ſame time, the moſt proper for the preſervation of foundlings? What tends to the developement of their ſtrength, from their birth till twelve years of age, and what is the beſt method for Government to adopt.

2. What are the beſt means of making national ſhews or ſpectacles ſubſervient to the purpoſes of morals?

Natural Phenomena.

SOME time ſince a ſmart ſhock of an earthquake was felt at Crieff, in Scotland.

The earthquake which happened in Spaniſh America, we heard of ſome time ſince; but the damage it did has not yet been known in England. The extent of its ravages were prodigious; extending, from Eaſt to Weſt, a hundred and forty leagues; and from North to South, one hundred and ſixty leagues. In the centre of this ſpot the greateſt miſchief was done; and here ſeveral conſiderable towns were totally deſtroyed. At a greater diſtance from the centre of motion, many other towns were very conſiderably damaged; and, further off ſtill, the towns which were affected received leſs damage.—The number of perſons who loſt their lives were not leſs than ſeventeen thouſand. From a mountain, which ſeemed to be the focus of this commotion, the lava burſt forth; and, when it hardened, ſtopped the courſes of the rivers, and cauſed inundations all around. The damage done is immenſe; ſome of the moſt fruitful places, in the vicinity, are now heaps of lava, earth thrown together, without order, or land covered with a fœtid water.—The celebrated Humbold, we underſtand, has obtained leave of the King of Spain to viſit the ſpot; and, on his return, will undoubtedly give to the world the fruits of his reſearches.

Fine Arts, Science and Literature.

A PATENT has been granted to a Mr. Meſſenger, for an improvement in the method of tranſparent painting upon ſilk, linen, or cotton. The dark parts of the painting are engraved on copper, and marked on the ſilk, &c. The colours are afterwards laid on with a bruſh.

We have to announce, that Mr. Dyer's promiſed work (though printed off) will not be immediately publiſhed. It is thought better to poſtpone the publication till the bulk of his ſubſcribers ſhall return to town.

Mr. Thomas Holloway, that ingenious artiſt, who engraved moſt of the plates for the Engliſh edition of Lavater's Phyſiognomy, and ſuperintended the whole, has publiſhed propoſals for publiſhing engravings of the Cartoons of Raphael. He has obtained permiſſion from the King to copy them, and is now at Windſor for that purpoſe.

Mr. Taylor, commonly called Taylor the Platoniſt, and who is Under Secretary to the Society of Arts, is now preparing his tranſlation and notes of the Metaphyſics of Ariſtotle for the preſs. We hear it will be printed at the expence of a noble Peer, who does honour to himſelf, his order, and his country, by patronizing a man, who, although ſingular in his opinions, has merit, induſtry, and integrity, to recommend them.

As the premiums beſtowed by the Society of Arts are equally given for the encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Fine Arts, and Commerce, we inſert them here.

The Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, have this year diſtributed the following premiums:

In Agriculture.—To the Marquis of Tichfield, for having planted 49 acre and an half of land with acorns—the Gold Medal.

To Thomas Johns, Eſq. M. P. for having planted 400,000 larch trees—the Gold Medal.

To the Rev. W. Smith, for having planted 11 acres and an half of land with apple trees—the Gold Medal.

To John Lake, for having planted ſix acres of land with apple trees—Thirty Guineas.

To John Cartwright, Eſq. for planting ſix acres of land with apple trees—Twenty Guineas.

To Thomas Jones, of Fiſh-ſtreet-hill, for cultivating 4,053 plants of true rhubarb—Thirty Guineas.

To John Mirehouſe, Eſq. for improving waſte moors—the Gold Medal.

To the Rev. H. B. Dudley, for having gained 206 acres of land from the ſea—

In Chemiſtry.—To Thomas Jones, Fiſh-ſtreet-hill, for having procured 21lb. 7oz. opium from poppies, grown in Great Britain—Fifty Guineas.

In Polite Arts.—To Miſs Eliza Barrett, for a varniſhed drawing of a landſcape—the Gold Medal.

To Miſs Francis Talbot, for a painting after Titian—the largeſt Silver Palette.

To Miſs Charlotte Lloyd, for a drawing from a buſt of Eurypides—the leſſer Silver Palette.

To Miſs Mary Smirke, for a drawing of the entrance of the Monaſtery of St. Auguſtine, at Canterbury—the larger Silver Palette.

To Mr. John Colman, for a drawing of a Mill, at Dorking—the larger Silver Palette.

To Mr. W. Weſtal, for a landſcape; a view from the Terrace, at Richmond—the leſſer Silver Palette.

To Mr. Henry Moſes, for two drawings for ſhipping—the leſſer Silver Palette.

In Manufactures.—To Mr. Thomas Clulon, for inventing a loom for weaving figured ribbons—

In Mechanics.—To Mr. Thomas Reſtall, for a pariſh or family Mill—Forty Guineas.

To Mr. George Davis, for a method of preventing perſons, in carriages, being injured when the horſes have taken fright—Thirty Guineas.

To Mr. Richard Arkwright, for a lock, on a new conſtruction—Fifteen Guineas.

To the widow and children of the late Mr. Richard Bawes, for ſpecimens of mill ſtones, and accounts of a mine thereof, near Conway—One Hundred Pounds.

To Mr. S. Holmes, for a cheap and uſeful family Oven—Fifteen Guineas.

To Mr. William Bullock, for a lever for a lock bolt—Ten Guineas.

To his Grace the Duke of Bridgwater, for his great exertions in inland navigation—the Gold Medal.

In Colonies and Trade.—To Mr. Alexander Mackenzie, for having diſcovered a paſſage, by land, from Canada to the South Sea—the Gold Medal.

After the diſtribution of Society, adjourned to the 4th of October next.

Morals and Manners.

A Gentleman, of Fulham, was fined five pounds for employing a man, with an unlawful net, to fiſh in the Thames. An Attorney attended to exculpate the offence; but the Lord Mayor told him, that he was under the neceſſity of fining poor fiſhermen for ſuch offences, and therefore he could not mitigate in this caſe.

We are glad to obſerve, that, in ſeveral of the country towns, the people have turned their pleaſures to the purpoſes of charity. At Frome, and other places, benefit plays have been given for the poor; which, we are happy to hear, have been well attended.

At Briſtol, an inſtance of profligacy has appeared, which, we fear, is too often practiſed. Many joints of meat have been found in the river; which there is reaſon to believe, have been kept till they grew too bad for ſale, and then thrown there.

A club of porters, who were employed by ſome of the principal wholeſale dealers in London, have been detected. They had all concurred in robbing their maſters; and kept a houſe, whither they carried the goods they ſtole for ſale; and kept a perſon, who they employed as agent, to ſell them.

The Benevolent Society, at Carliſle, have opened a magazine to ſupply the poor with flour, at a reduced price.

The Eaſt India Company have agreed to allow ſtipends to clergymen to propagate Chriſtianity in the Iſland of Ceylon; and we hear the Gentlemen now employed have 220 ſchools under their care.

A Benevolent Society is eſtabliſhed at Briſtol, which now educate three hundred children

The Biſhop of Worceſter, in a charge, delivered at his laſt viſitation, recommends the education of poor children, as one of the firſt objects for reforming the morals of the people.

At Croſsland Hedge, near Huddersfield, an induſtrious huſbandman had the following increaſe in his family, in one day:—His cow brought him two calves; his heifer, one calf; a ſow brought him eleven pigs; and his wife lay-in with twins.

In the Court of King's Bench. Trinity Term—When the two Grand Juries for the county of Middleſex were ſworn in, before Mr. Juſtice Groſe. His Lordſhip took the opportunity to make ſome remarks reſpecting the crimes of foreſtalling and regrating. He ſaid, the ſtatutes againſt foreſtalling were repealed; but that and regrating ſtill exiſted, as crimes at common law.—He made this obſervation for the direction of the Grand Jury, as ſeveral people ſuppoſed the ſtatutes ſtill in being, and as the preſent price of proviſions called aloud for every fair exertion to keep them down.

ALPHABETICAL LISTS OF BANKRUPTCIES AND DIVIDENDS,

Announced between the 20th of June, and the 20th of July, 1800.

Extracted from the LONDON GAZETTE.

BANKRUPTCIES.

(The Solicitors' Names are between Parentheſis.)

ASH, E. Martock, Somerſetſhire, ſhopkeeper. (Welch Somerton, Dyne, Serjeant's Inn).

Ball, J. Belcher the younger, Kenſington, coach makers. (Knight, Kenſington).

Boden, T. Manchester, bookſeller. (Duckworth and Chippendale, Manchester).

Bulmer, J. Sculcoates, Yorkſhire. (Gale, Hull).

Bateman, W. Devonſhire ſtreet, baker. (Stacey, Poland ſtreet).

Braithwaite, F. Leiceſter, dealer. (Bond, Leiceſter, Henſon, Martlett court, Bow ſtreet).

Boyd, R. A. London, merchant. (Wadeſon and Co. Auſtin Friars).

Bourne, S. Milk ſtreet, hoſier. (Macdougall and Hurter, Lincoln's Inn).

Cullingworth, S. Daventry, Northampton, bookſeller. (Douce and Rivington, Fenchurch ſtreet, London).

Cook, J. Leeds, Yorkſhire, builder. (Dickinſon, Kingſton upon Hull, Roſſer, Kirby ſtreet, London).

Chinner, T. O. Wallſal, Staffordſhire, mercer. (Stubbs, Wallſal, Price and Co. Lincoln's Inn).

Cox, T. Bath, linen draper. (Sheppard, Bath).

Colton, J. Arncliffe, Yorkſhire, joiner. (Hartley, Settle).

Conſtable, P. Billiter lane, teaman. (Wadeſon, Auſtin Friars).

Dyde, R. and A. Scribe, St. Paul's Church Yard, haberdaſhers. (Emerſon and Hooker, Staple's Inn, Holborn).

Davies, V. Llanguello, Radnorſhire. (Meredith, Knighton).

Donald, A. Nuneaton, Warwickſhire, coal merchant. (Woodcock, Coventry).

Etheſtone, R. A. Manchester, merchant. (Knight and Co. Manchester, Elis, Curſitor ſtreet).

Elderſhaw, J. Derby, dealer. (Bateman, Derby).

Ealand, W. Effington Field, Yorkſhire, miller. (Hunt, York, Baxter and Co. Furnival's Inn).

Faulkner, J. Brownedge, near Walton, Lancaſhire, ivory comb maker. (Croſs, Preſton).

Fithwick, W. Whittle-a-Wood, Lancaſhire, cotton dealer. (Fox, Chorley).

Fletcher, J. Clapham, Surrey, dealer. (Laſhow, Doctor's Commons).

Forth, J. Ball alley, Lombard ſtreet, money ſcrivenor. (Fletcher and Wright, Ryde ſtreet, Bloomſbury).

Field, G. Minories, London. (Loxley, Cheapſide).

Forſter, E. Blackburne, Lancaſhire, grocer. (Dawhurſt, Preſton, Barret, Inner Temple).

French, D. Willingborough, mercer. (Godfrey, Newark upon Trent, Kinderly and Co. Symond's Inn, London).

Green, J. New Malton, corn factor. (Ewbank, Malton, Robinſon, Eſſex ſtreet, Strand).

Higgins, S. Strand, Pocket book maker. (Kibblewhite, Gray's Inn Place).

Holland, J. Nottingham, butcher. (Enfield, Nottingham, Holmes, Mark lane).

Hudſon, J. Huddersfield, Yorkſhire, clothier. (Haſtead, Rigfield, near Manchester).

Hanſon, B. and E. Aſhley, Charter Houſe Square, London, merchants. (Willis's, Warnford court).

Harris, W. Pall Mall, Middleſex, engraver. (Bolton and Co. Elm court, Temple).

Hunt, C. H. Stratford upon Avon, Warwickſhire, money ſcrivenor. (Maſon, Coventry).

Huſband, T. Broomigrove, Worceſterſhire, money ſcrivenor. (Green, Boxley, Worceſterſhire).

Jackſon, G. the elder, Piccadilly, plumber. (Owen, Bartlett's buildings).

Jenkins, T. Abchurch lane, dealer. (Debary and Co. Temple).

Knowles, J. Greenhead, Yorkſhire, merchant. (Croſsland, Huddersfield).

Kay, W. Birmingham, factor. (Gem and Son, Birmingham).

Lurcott, T. Charles ſtreet, Tottenham Court Road, baker. (Senior, Charles ſtreet, Covent Garden).

Latham, W. Hough, Cheſhire, cheeſe factor. (Harding, Betley, Staffordſhire, Garnet, Baſinghall ſtreet).

Lewis, J. and S. Cohen, of Liverpool, and Maurice and Yongh, of Manchester, merchants. (Duckworth and Co. Manchester).

Micklan, W. Emſworth, Hants, grocer. (Hector Portſea).

Mew, T. Kidderminſter, baker. (Allen, Kidderminſter, Bigg, Baſſam ſtreet, London)

Makinſon, W. Belton, Lancaſhire, muſlin manufacturer. (C. W. Blake, Manchester).

Mounſher, E. Cockerhill, Hampſhire, dealer. (Parſons, Goſport, Allen's and Bodie, Clement's Inn).

Owen, R. Fareham, Hants, merchant. [Rhoades, Chichester].

Richardſon, N. Hexington, Lincolnſhire, farmer. [Gleed, Dorrington, Kinderley, and Co. Symond's Inn, London].

Raines, J. Finſbury ſquare, London, merchant. [Williams, Sion College].

Reedir, J. C. London-houſe Yard, bookſeller. [Abbet, Roll's Yard].

Peterſon, G. Wapping, ſlop ſeller. [Hedley, Wapping].

Pearſon, R. Aultrey, Warwickſhire, butcher. [Owen, Atherſtone, Tibbatt, Staples Inn].

Potts, J. Biſhop's Wearmouth, Durham, ſhip owner. [Downey, Sunderland].

Smalley, R. Gravetend, Kent, carpenter. [Green, Preſcot ſtreet, London].

Stephenſon, J. Manchester, inn keeper. [Nabbs, Manchester, Lee, Tanfield court, Temple].

Sykes, S. Huddersfield, Yorkſhire, banker. [Stevenſon, Holtpark, near Huddersfield, J. and R. Willis, Warford court, London].

Sirſon, R. Briſtol, looking glaſs maker. [Bengeugh and Co. Briſtol].

Smith, W. and J. Atkinſon, London, merchants.

Taylor, J. and J. Nightingale, Preſton, Lancaſhire, grocers. [Dewhurſt, Preſton, Barrett, Inner Temple, London].

Turton, B. Coleman ſtreet, druggiſt. [Mawley, New Road, St. George's in the East].

Wood, R. Blackburne, Lancaſhire, muſlin manufacturer. [Duckworth and Co. Manchester].

Walworth, J. Manchester, innkeeper. [Cheſhyre and Co. Manchester].

White, J. Perſhore, Worceſter, maſter. [Etherly, Worceſter].

Weeks, P. Newport, Glouceſter, innholder. [Eaſton, Briſtol].

Walker, V. Great Kirby ſtreet, watch caſe maker. [Welch and Co. Aldergate ſtreet].

Warmington, W. Colyton, Devonſhire, lime burner. [Warmington, Colyton, Palmer, Barnard's Inn, Holborn].

Zamera, J. Beviſmarks, grocer. [Bexwell, Church row, Aldgate]

DIVIDENDS ANNOUNCED.

Bowley, J. and W. Atkinſon, Leeds, flax ſpinners, Auguſt 4.

Baker, J. Stoney Stratford, glover, Auguſt 29.

Brewer, W. Briſtol, tea dealer, Auguſt 9.

Buttivant, J. and W. White, Norwich, manufacturers, Auguſt 9.

Burnet, J. and J. Maden, Stockport, Cheſhire, cotton ſpinners, Auguſt 4.

Burford, J. Holborn, linen draper, July 26.

Bromly, T. M. Kingſton upon Hull, ſtationer, July 23.

Burr, G. Maidſtone, Kent, money ſcrivener, Nov. 4.

Bradley, J. J. Richmond, and G. Wilkinſon, Manchester, warehouſemen, July 22.

Black, J. H. Biſhopſgate ſtreet, lacoman, Nov. 5.

Bourn, S. Spalding, grocer, Sept. 29.

Bayley, W. Augmering, Suſſex, and R. Bayley, Loominſter, Suſſex, millers, Auguſt 11.

Bird, J. ſen. Birmingham, refiner, Auguſt 16.

Barrett, S. Hungerford, grocer, Auguſt 12.

Collet, W. Garden ſtreet, Whitechapel, ſugar baker, July 29.

Clarke, W. Ratcliffe Highway, Middleſex, cheeſemonger, July 19.

Carlton, J. Holbeck, late Weſtmoreland, cotton ſpinner, Auguſt 9.

Davis, J. Liverpool, merchant, July 21.

Dawſon, T. Carter, Lincolnſhire, ſhop keeper, Auguſt 2.

Emery, H. Biſhopſgate ſtreet, woollen draper, July 12.

Eaton, A. Shepherd's market, vintner, July 26.

Elliott, V. and L. Hughes, Tynylon, Caernarvon, horſe dealers, Auguſt 25.

Fox, S. Nottingham, draper, Auguſt 18.

Firſt, J. Lambeth, dealer, July 29.

Gilbert, S. Butfend, Wiltſhire, victualler, July 21.

Garlick, J. Heathfield, Derby, cotton manufacturer, Auguſt 14.

Haddon, S. Oxford ſtreet, haberdaſher, Auguſt 5.

Hulley, J. Brock, Lancaſhire, cotton manufacturer, Auguſt 5.

Hewitt, J. G. Biddeford, merchant, July 1.

Hudſon, W. Whitby, linen draper, July 18.

Minde, J. Hounſditch, London, merchant, July 29.
Hart, M. Bourne, Lancaſhire, money ſcrivenor, July 29.
Huntſman, W. and R. Aſſline, Attercliffe, Yorkſhire, button makers, Auguſt 4.
Jackſon, D. Charles ſtreet, Southwark, needle maker, July 12.
Jones, J. Whitechapel, back maker, July 15.
Judſon, T. and J. Ridghill, Lancaſhire, dry ſalters, July 24.
Jamiſon, G. Portſea, watchmaker, Auguſt, 8.
Lipicombe, D. Glouceſter, mercer, July 10.
Leach, J. Bolton le moore, Lancaſhire, cotton ſpinner, July 30.
Linley, F. Holborn, muſic ſeller, September 20.
Long, J. Portſea, Hants, mariner, Auguſt 9.
Malby, J. and T. Brewitt, of Nottingham, and H. Arbuthnot, of London, hoſiers, July 31.
M'Murray, J. Liverpool, draper, Auguſt 1.
Nobb, J. Walthamſtow, Eſſex, brewer, November 5.
Nichol, M. St. Martin's le Grand, pawnbroker, July 29.
Oſbourn, R. Banbury, Oxfordſhire, factor, July 19.
Poole, J. Nailſtone, Leiceſter, butcher, July 1.
Pelſbury, A. Chancery lane, robe maker, July 15.
Palmer, J. Newcaſtle Under Lyne, Staffordſhire, butcher, July 16.
Pomeroy and Moneypenny, of Falmouth, Cornwall, grocers, Auguſt 22.
Poole, J. Nadſtone, Leiceſterſhire, butcher, July 31.
Pidcock, J. and J. Lobhen, Swithin's lane, London, merchant, July 19.
Pomfret, J. of Blackburne, cotton manufacturer, September 1.
Stoddart, J. T. and I. Errington, Newcaſtle on Tyne, corn merchants, July 30.
Smalley, R. the younger, of Manchester, dealer, July 25.
Saliſbury, B. Weſtbury, Wiltſhire, machine maker, July 29.
Taylor, J. Middlewich, corn factor, July 23.
Troughton, E. and W. Caſhalton, Surrey, taylors, November 1.
Wood, E. Barnſley, Yorkſhire, grocer, July 25.
Watts, S. New Bond ſtreet, hatter, November 4.
White, J. the elder, Staines, innholder, July 14.
Whalley, T. and J. W. Friday ſtreet, warehouſemen, Auguſt 5.
Walford, J. Pall Mall, haberdaſher, Auguſt 9.
Wilcocks, R. Red lion ſtreet, Clerkenwell, clock maker, Auguſt 4.
Wilſon, B. White croſs ſtreet, victualler, Auguſt 5.

LONDON PRICES of GRAIN for July, 1800.

Corn Exchange. Monday, June 30.

OUR ſupply of fine wheat this morning was very inconſiderable, and, the few prime ſamples were taken off briſkly, at an advance of two ſhillings, and one ſhilling, per quarter, from Monday laſt. Very little alteration was obſervable in other articles, excepting that good hard grey peaſe were pretty much in demand, and went off briſkly at laſt week's prices.

Prices of Grain on board Ship, as under;

Wheat, foreign	100s	to	136s	Hog Peaſe	66s	to	70s	to 80s
Fine Engliſh	140s	to	148s	Fine			86s	to 96s
Very fine	150s			Boilers			100s	to 106s
Rye	66s	to	72s	Suffolks			104s	to 108s
Fine	74s			Ditto Pearl Peaſe			110s	to 114s
Stained Barley	45s	to	46s	Small Beans	70s	to	80s	to 84s
Ditto Kiln-dried	54 a 60s		a 64s	Ticks			64s	to 70s
Fine	70s	to	71s	Fine hard			72s	
Superfine	72s			Kiln Dried			60s	to 70s
Malt	66s	to	76s	Oats			46s	to 48s
Fine	78s	to	80s	Fine			50s	to 54s
Superfine	82s			Polands			50s	to 56s

Monday, July 7.

HAVING this morning had a pretty good ſupply of foreign wheat, and thoſe generally in good condition, has occaſioned a decline in price—ſay from 2s to 4s per quarter. Fine Engliſh wheat have alſo declined.

Barley of all ſorts was dull of ſale and lower, from 2s to 5s per quarter.

Tick beans, oats, and malt, were reſpectively cheaper, as will appear herewith.

Grey peaſe were much wanted, and fully maintained the prices of laſt week.

Prices of Grain on board Ship, as under:

Wheat —	100s	to	120s to 130s	Hog Peaſe —	66s	to	76s to	86s
Fine foreign —	130s	to	132s	Fine —			90s to	94s
Very fine Engliſh —	140s	to	146s	Boilers —			100s to	106s
Rye — —	66s	to	70s	Suffolks —			108s	
Fine —	70s	to	74s	Ditto Pearl Peaſe			110s to	114s
Stained Barley —	48s	to	55s	Small Beans —			76s to	82s
Ditto — —	60s	to	70s	Ticks —	54s	to	60s to	70s
Fine —	72s	to	73s	Fine hard —			72s to	74s
Superfine —	74s			Kiln Dried —			58s to	68s
Malt — —	66s	to	76s	Oats —			40s to	50s
Fine —	78s	to	82s	Fine —			52s	
				Polands —			50s to	54s

Monday, July 14.

WE have this morning a pretty ſprinkling of Engliſh wheat, which has declined in price full 5s. from Monday laſt. The ſupply of foreign wheat was conſiderable: the inferior deſcriptions of this article very dull of ſale, and lower from 8s. to 12s. per quarter; the ſuperior parcels from 5s. to 7s.

Barley, malt, and beans, are reſpectively cheaper, as will appear beneath.—Rye is alſo dull of ſale and evidently on the decline.

Of oats, we had a good ſupply; the better ſorts were cheaper about 2s., and the inferior parcels full 5s. per quarter.

Other articles as per laſt.

Price of Grain, on board Ship, as under:

Wheat	—	100s to 116s	Hog Peaſe	—	66s to 80s
Fine	—	128s to 134s	Fine	—	84s to 90s
Very fine	—	156s to 140s	Boilers	—	100s to 106s
Rye	— —	64s to 68s	Suffolks	—	102s to 108s
Fine	—	70s	Ditto Pearl Peaſe		110s to 112s
Stained Barley	—	46s to 50s	Small Beans	—	68s to 80s
Ditto	—	52s to 64s	Ticks	—	60s to 70s
Fine	—	66s to 68s	Fine hard	—	72s
Superfine	—	70s	Kiln Dried	—	60s to 68s
Malt	—	55s to 66s	Oats	—	36s to 46s to 44s
Fine	— —	68s to 78s	Fine	—	46s to 47s
Superfine	—	80s	Polands	—	44s to 48s to 50s

Monday, July 21.

WE have the ſatisfaction again to ſtate a ſtill further reduction in the price of grain. The wheat has fallen ſince laſt Monday full 8s. per quarter, and the inferior ſorts from 10s. to 12s.

Boiling peaſe have likewiſe ſuſtained a conſiderable decline; the higheſt price obtained this day did not exceed 100s., which is full 8s. cheaper than laſt Monday.

Fine flour has fallen 5s. per ſack, and the inferior ſorts in proportion.

Other articles as per laſt.

Price of Grain, on board Ship, as under:

Wheat	—	96s to 116s	Hog Peaſe	—	60s to 70s
Fine	—	126s to 130s	Fine	—	76s to 80s
Very fine	—	134s to 136s	Boilers	—	90s to 94s
Rye	—	60s to 64s	Suffolks	—	94s to 98s
Fine	—	66s	Ditto Pearl Peaſe		100s to —
Stained Barley	—	40s to 50s	Small Beans		66s to 76s to 78s
Ditto	—	54s to 64s	Ticks	—	52s to 66s to 70s
Fine	—	66s to 68s	Fine hard	—	70s
Superfine	—	70s	Kiln Dried	—	58s to 66s
Malt	—	56s to 66s	Oats	—	36s to 40s to —
Fine	— —	70s to 76s	Fine	—	41s to —
Superfine	—	78s	Polands		— to 42s to 46s

Monday, July 28.

WE have again the pleaſure of ſtating a very great reduction in the prices of grain.

Wheat has fallen, ſince Monday laſt, from 16s. to 20s. per quarter, and flour from 10s. to 15s per ſack.

For malting barley there is little or no demand, nor can it be ſold at any price.

Tick beans, rye, and malt, are alſo reſpectively lower.

Fine oats, being rather in demand, have maintained Friday's prices.

Boiling and grey peaſe are much on the decline, as will appear beneath.

Price of Grain, on board Ship, as under:

Wheat	—	66s to 76s	Hog Peaſe	—	30s to 66s
Fine	— —	80s to 94s	Fine	—	70s to 74s
Engliſh	—	90s to 100s	Boilers	—	70s to 80s to 84s
Fine	—	108s	Suffolks	—	80s to 85s
Rye	—	50s to 58s	Ditto Pearl Peaſe	—	90s to —
Fine	—	60s	Small Beans		58s to 66s to 70s
Stained Barley	—	38s to 48s	Ticks	—	40s to 50s
Ditto fine	—	50s	Fine hard	—	52s to 58s to 60s
Fine Malting	—	52s to 62s	Kiln dried	—	50s to 56s
Superfine	—	64s	Oats	—	16s to 26s
Malt	—	no price—no ſale	Fine	— —	28s to 30s
Fine	—	ditto ditto	Polands	—	30s to 36s

London Market Prices of Grain, Meat, Seeds, &c.

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from 16th June to 21st inclusive.

Total 19,650 Quarters——Average 120s 4¾d.——3s 8d higher than last return.

Return of the Prices of Flour, from June 14th to the 20th inclusive.

Total 15,818 sacks———Average 109s 9d.———1s 10½d higher than last return.

Hence results the Price of BREAD.

Quartern loaf 1s 6¼d————In favour of the Baker 1d.

Imports of Grain last Week.

Wheat 6,420 qrs.—Hops 56,217lb.—Flour 760 cwt.—Barley 800 qrs.

Price of Hops.

	Bags			Pocket		
Kent —	11l 11s	to	13l 8s	Kent —	12l 12s	to 15l
Suſſex	11l	to	12l 18s	Suſſex —	12l 12s	to 14l
Eſſex —	9l	to	12l	Farnham —	14l	to 16l

Seeds.

Red Clover, (per cwt.)	34s	to	90s	Cinque Foil, ditto			
White Clover, ditto	40s	to	100s	White Muſtard-ſeed, p. bu.	10s	to	18s
Trefoil, ditto	4s	to	36s	Brown, ditto do.	12s	to	18s
Turnip, (per buſhel)	29s	to	40s	Canary-ſeed do.	16s	to	14s
Rye Grais (per quarter)	16s	to	24s	Rape-ſeed, per laſt	46l	to	52s

Meat. Smithfield. Monday, June 30. (To ſink the offal. per ſtone of 8lb.)

Beef -	4s	0d	to	5s	8d	Veal . .	4s	8d	to	6s 8d
Mutton -	4s	8d	to	5s	4d	Pork . .	4s	8d	to	5s 8d

Lambs 5s to 7s 6d.

Head of Cattle this day)——Beaſt about 1,800—Sheep 9,000—and Lambs 2,000.

Raw Hides.

Hides (per ſtone)	3s	2d	to	3s	4d	Light Calf .			0s	6d lb.
Middling . .				3s	0d	Sheep Skins . .				12d
Ordinary . .				2s	10d	Lamb Skins	2	0d	to	3s 4d
Heavy Calf .			10s	6d	each					

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market —			3s	9d	Ruſſia ditto (Soap) .					66s
Clare Market — —			3s	8d	Melting ſtuff . . .					59s
Whitechapel Market —			3s	6d	Ditto rough . .					50s
Per ſtone of 8lb.—Average	3s	7½d			Graves . . .					9s
Town Tallow . .			64s		Good Dregs . .					9s
Ruſſia ditto (Candles) .			63s		Yallow Soap, 76s-Mottled 84s--Curd 86s					

Prices of Hay and Straw on Saturday.

St. James's— Hay	4l	10s	to	7l	7s	Average	5l	18s	6d		
Straw	2l	14s	to	3l	3s	———	2l	18s	6d		
Wht.chap.—Hay	5l	5s	to	7l	7s	———	6l	6s			
Clover	6l	16s	to	7l	18s	———	7l	7s	6d		
Straw	2l	14s	to	3l	4s	———	2l	19s			

Newbury, June 26.

Wheat — —	108s	to	160	Oats —			38s	to	45s	
Barley — —	49s	to	70s	Beans —		—	66s	to	80s	

Reading, June 27.

Wheat —	100s	to	162s	Beans	—		60s	to	81s	
Barley — —	42s	to	63s	Peaſe	—	—	60s	to	80s	
Oats — —	40s	to	59s							

Northampton, June 1.

Wheat —	122s	to	124s	Oats —		—	24s	to	52s	
Rye —	72s	to	82s	Beans	—		70s	to	84s	
Barley — —	30	to	80s							

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from June 23d to the 28th inclusive.

Total 25,309 quarters.—Average 119s. 1¾d.——1s. 3d. lower than last return.
Flour—The same as last week.

Return of the Prices of Flour, from June 21st to the 27th inclusive.

Total 13,205 sacks.——Average 109s. 10½d.——1½d higher than last return.

Hence results the Price of BREAD.
Quartern loaf 1s. 6¼d.——Against the Baker 2½d.

Imports of Grain last Week.

Wheat 3,991 qrs.——Rye 90 qrs.——Hops 1,500 lb.——Flour 450 cwt.
Barley 75 qrs.——Oats 430 qrs.

Price of Hops.

	Bags.		Pockets.	
Kent	—	11l to 14l	Kent —	12l to 15l
Sussex	— —	11l to 13l	Sussex —	12l to 14l 14s
Essex	—	11l to 13l	Essex —	12l to 14l 14s

Hop Duty laid at 90,000l.

Seeds.

Red Clover (per cwt.)	20s to 84s	Cinque Foil, do.	— to —
White Clover, do.	40s to 100s	White Mustard Seed (p. bush.)	10s to 15s
Trefoil, do.	5s to 35s	Brown do. do.	11s to 18s
Turnip (per bushel)	10s to 26s	Canary Seed do.	12s to 14s
Rye Grass (per quarter)	10s to 25s	Rape Seed (per last)	45l to 50l

Smithfield. Monday, July 7th. (*To sink the offal,—per stone of 8lb.*)

Beef —	3s 10d to 5s 4d	Veal —	4s to 6s
Mutton —	4s 4d to 5s 4d	Pork —	4s 8d to 5s 8d

Lamb 4s 8d to 6s 4d.

Head of cattle this day)—Beast about 2,000.—Sheep 8,500—and Lambs 2,500.

Price of Leather.

Butts, 50 to 161b.	24d to 25d	Calf Skins, 40 to 50lb. *p.* doz.	23d to 26d
Ditto, 60 to 90lb.	25d to 26d	Ditto, 60 to 80lb. do.	26d to 30d
Merchants Backs	24d to 24¼d	Ditto, 80 to 120lb. do.	26d to 30d
Dressing Hides —	19d to 20d	Sm. Seals (Greenland)	70s to 80s *p.* doz.
Fine Coach Hides	20d to 22d	Large do.	140s to 150s do.
Crop Hides for cutting	19d to 20½d	Tanned Horse Hides	20s to 30s *p.* hide.
Flat Ordinary —	18d to 19d	Goat Skins	30s to 70s *p.* doz.

Price of Bark per Load, 19l to 19l 10s.

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market —	3s 8½d	Russia ditto (Soap) —	61s
Clare Market —	3s 8½d	Melting Stuff —	60s
Whitechapel Market —	3s 6d	Ditto rough —	50s
Per stone of 8lb.—Average	3s 7½d.	Graves —	9s
Town Tallow —	64s	Good Dregs —	9s
Russia ditto (Candles) —	62s	Yellow Soap 76s. Mottled 84s. Curd 88s.	

Prices of Hay and Straw on Saturday.

St. James's—Hay	4l 15s to 7l 10s	Average	6l 2s 6d
Straw	2l 11s to 3l 3s	——	2l 17s 6d
White-ch.—Hay	5l to 7l 7s	——	6l 3s 6d
Clover	6l 16s to 8l	——	7l 8s 6d
Straw	2l 12s to 3l 2s 1d	——	2l 19s 6d

Newbury. June 26th.

Wheat —	118s to 163s	Oats — —	41s to 56s
Barley —	50s to 64s	Beans —	75s to 79s

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from 30th June, to 5th July inclusive.

Total 24,002 Quarters——Average 119s 6½d.——4¾d lower than last return.

Return of the Prices of Flour, from June 28th to July 4th inclusive.

Total 13,313 Sacks.———Average 109s 9¾d.———½ higher than last return.

Hence results the Price of BREAD.

Quartern loaf 1s 6½d————Against the Baker 1¾d.

Imports of Grain last Week.

Wheat 6140 qrs.——Rye 1000 qrs.——Hops 20,600lb.——Flour 12,730 cwt.

Barley 250 qrs.——Oats 12,144 qrs.

Price of Hops.

	Bags		Pockets
Kent — —	12l to 13l 10s	Kent —	12l 12s to 15l 15s
Suſſex — —	12l to 13l	Suſſex —	12l to 14l
Eſſex — —	12l to 13l	Eſſex —	12l to 14l

Seeds.

Red Clover, (per cwt.)	20s to 84s	Cinqe Foil, ditto	— —
White Clover, ditto	40s to 100s	White Muſtard Seed, p. bu.	10s to 15s
Trefoil, ditto	5s to 35s	Brown, ditto do.	11s to 18s
Turnip, (per buſhel)	10s to 26s	Canary Seed, do.	12s to 14s
Rye Graſs, (per quarter)	10s to 25s	Rape Seed, (per laſt)	46l to 50s

Meat. Smithfield. Monday July 14th (To ſink the offal. per ſtone of 8lb.)

Beef —	3s 10d to 5s 4d	Veal —	4s 0d to 6s 0d
Mutton —	4s 4d to 5s 4d	Pork —	4s 8d to 5s 8d

Lambs 4s 8d to 6s 4d.

Head of Cattle this day)——Beaſt about 1,800—Sheep 9,500—and Lambs 3,000.

Raw Hides.

Hides (per ſtone)	3s 2d to 3s 4d	Heavy calf —	10s 6d each
Middling — —	3s 0d	Light Calf — —	6d lb
Ordinary — —	2s 10d		

Sheep Skins 12d——Lamb Skins 2s 0d to 3s 4d

Price of Leather.

Butts, 50 to 161b.	22d to 23d	Calf Skins, 40 to 50lb. *p.* doz.	26d to 30d
Ditto, 60 to 90lb	23d to 24d	Ditto, 60 to 80lb. do.	26d to 30d
Merchants Backs	22d to 22½d	Ditto, 80 to 120lb. do.	23d to 26d
Dreſſing Hides —	19d to 20d	Sm. Seals (Greenland)	70s to 80s *p.* doz.
Fine Coach Hides	20d to 21d	Large ditto	140s to 160s doz.
Crop Hides for cutting	20d to 21d	Tanned Horſe Hides	16s to 26s *p.* hide.
Flat Ordinary —	18d to 20d	Goat Skins	30s to 60s *p.* doz.

Price of Bark, per Load, 18l. to 18l. 10s.

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market —	3s 8d	Ruſſia ditto (Soap) —	58s to 59s
Clare Market —	3s 8d	Melting Stuff —	53s
Whitechapel Market —	3s 6d½	Ditto rough —	35s to 38s
Per ſtone of 8lb.—Average	3s 7d½	Graves —	14s
Town Tallow —	62s	Good Dregs —	11s
Ruſſia ditto (Candles) —	60s to 62s	Yellow Soap, 72s-Mottled	80s-Curd 84s

Newbury, July 10.

Wheat —	132s to 159s	Oats —	41s to 56s
Barley —	46s to 58s	Beans —	60s to 70s

Reading, July 11.

Wheat —	90s to 154s	Beans —	60s to 80s
Barley —	45s to 59s	Peaſe	60s to 80s
Oats —	98s to 56s		

Henley, July 9.

Wheat — —	115s to 153s	Beans — —	70s to 92s
Barley — —	40s to 60s	Peaſe	
Oats — —	42s to 59s		

Saliſbury, July 8.

Wheat — —	144s to 176s	Beans — —	80s to 92s
Barley — —	64s to 80s	Oats — —	44s to 54s

PRICES OF COALS AT LONDON, FROM JUNE 20. TO JULY 20, 1800.

Names of Coals	Frida 20th. S. D.	Mon. 23d. S. D.	Wed 25th S. D	Frida 27th. S. D	Mon. 30th S. D.	Wed 2d. S. D	Frida 4th S. D.	Mon. 7th S. D.	Wed 9th S. D.	Frid 11th S. D.	Mon 14th S. D.	Wed 16th S. D	Frid. 18th S D.
Benton			45	45	44 6	44 0		44 6	43 9	44			43 6
Byker	47					43		44 3	43 3		43 6	43 6	
Blyth		45 3			43 6	43 6		43 6		43 6	43	42 9	
Brandling						44			43 9		43	43	
Bladon Main													
Biggs's Main				47 6	46	46	46	45 6	45 3	45	44 9	44 6	44 6
Baker's Main													
Benwell													
Greenwich Moor													
Gate's-head Park													
Hartley			45	45	43 6	43 6		43 6	43 6	43 6	43 6		
Holywell Main					43	43			42	42	41 9		42 6
Howard's Main								43 9					
Montague Main			44 6	45 3	43 6		44 3	44	43 6	43 6	43 6		43 6
Pontop { Windsor's											43 6		43 6
Pontop { Simpson's		44 3		42 6									
Pontop { Silvertop													
South Moor			43	40 6	42 3				41	41	41	41	
Sheriff Hill									41 9				
P ll's Tanf. Moor				43		44	44			45 9	44		44
Adair's Main												42	44 9
Bowes's Main													44 6
Team				40 3			42	45 3				41 6	
Walker		47 3		43 9	46	46	45 6	45 9		45 3	45	44 9	
Willington					46	46	46		45	45	45	45	
Wall's End		48 3	47		47	47	46 9		46 6	46 3	45 9	46	44 9
Walbottle Moor				41	43	43							
Wylam Moor								45 6	42	42			
Heaton Main	48	48	46 6	43 6	46 3	46		45 3	45	45	44 6	44 6	
Hebburn Main		47 3	46 9	44 6	46	46			45 3	45 3	44 6		
SUNDERLAND							43 6						
Boundry						41						39	
Bourn Moor				41	43	43			43	42 9	42 6		
Biddick new Main			41 3				43			40 3			
Newbott. Bo. Moor		44		40 3					42		41 9	41 6	
Rectory					41 6				41				
Russell's Main				40 3		42 9	42 9	42 0			41 9	42	42 3
Wharton Main						42 6		42 9	42 9	42 3	42	42	42 6
Washington						40 6		40 6			40 9		

AVERAGE PRICE OF SUGAR,

Is 69s. 3¼d. per cwt. computed from the Returns made for the Week ending the 23d Day of July 1800.

A TABLE of the Prices of STOCKS in *July*, 1800.

Days	Bank Stock	3per Ct. Bs Red.	3 per Ct. Consols	4per Ct. Consol.	5 per Ct. Navy.	New 5per Ct.	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	Imp. 3 p C	Imp Ann.	Irish. 5p Ct.	Omnium	India Stock.	Consols for Open	English Ticket	Irish Tick
Jn. 30		63¾ ⅞	Shut	81¾ ⅞	Shut	96⅜ ½	18 13-16	⅝ 11-16	62⅛		92¼	2¾ 2¼		65⅛ 65		
Jul. 1	161¾	63¼ ¾		81⅞ ⅝		96½ 96	18¾ 13-16	⅝ 11-16	61¾ ⅞	12⅛ 3-16	91⅞ 92	2¾ 2½	21¼	64⅞		
2		63¼ ⅝		81⅝ ¾		96⅛	18 13-16¾	5 11-1	61⅞ 62		92¼	2¼ 2½		64⅞		
3		63⅜ ¾		81½ ⅝		66⅛ 95⅞	18¾ 13-16		61⅞ 62	2⅛ 3-16	92⅝	2½ ¼		64⅞ ¾		
4		63⅞ ⅝		81½ ⅝		96 95⅞			62⅛ 61		92¼ 91	2½ ¼		65 64¾		
5		63⅝ ¾		81⅝ ⅞		96⅛	18¾ 13-16			12 3 16		2½ ¼		64⅞ 65		
7		63⅝ ¾	63⅞ 62⅞ ex. di.	81¼ ⅞	96 95⅝ ex. di.	96⅛	18 13-16¾	⅝ 11-16			92¼	2½ ¼		64⅞ 65		
8	162	63¾ 64	63⅛ ⅜ do.	81⅞ 82¼	96¼ do.	96¼ ⅝	18 13-16		62⅛ ⅜	12 3-16	92½	2½ ¾		65⅛		
9		63⅞ 64	63⅜ ¼ do.	82⅛ ¼	96 ⅜ do.	96½ ⅝	18⅞	5 11-16	62¼	12 3-16		2¼		65⅛		
10	161¼	63⅞ 64	63⅛ do.	82¼ ⅝ ½	96¼ ½ do.	96⅝ 97	18⅞ 15-16	⅝ ⅝ 11-16	62⅜	12¼	93¼	2¼		64⅞ 65		
11	161½ ¼	63¾ ½	63⅛ 63 do.	82¼ ⅜	96¼ 95⅞ do.	97 66⅝		⅝ ⅝ 11-16	62¼	12 3 16		2½ ¼ ½		64¼ ½	16 10	8 8
12		63⅝ ¾	63⅛ do.	8 ⅜ ½	96⅛ do.	96⅛ 97	18 13-16⅞	⅝		12¼ 3-16		¼ ½		64¾	16 10	8 8
14		63⅝ ⅜	63 2¾ do.	82¼ ⅜ ¼	96 95½ do.	96¾ ⅝	18⅞ ¾	⅝ ⅝ 11-16	6 ⅞ ¼	12⅛ 3-16		2¼ 1¾		64⅝	16 10	8 8
15		63½ ⅜	62 ¾ ⅝ do.	82⅛ ¼ 82	95½ ⅝ do.	96¾ ½	18¾	⅝		12⅛ 1 16	92⅜	2		64⅜ ¾	16 10	8 8
16	162¼	63⅜ ¾ ⅝	62¾ ⅞ ¾ 63⅛	82¼	95½ 96¼ do.	96⅝	18¾ 13-16	⅝ ⅝	62⅛ ⅜	12 1-16⅛		2¼		64⅝ ¾	16 10	8 8
17		63⅝ ¾	63⅛ ex. di.	82¼ ⅜ ¼	95⅞ 96 do	97⅛	18 13-16⅞	⅝ 11-16		12 1-16⅛	92¾ 93	2½ 2¼		64⅞ 65	16 10	8 8
18	163	63¾ 64	63¼ ⅝ do.	82½ 83	96⅝ do.	97⅞ ⅜	18⅞ 15-16		62⅜ ⅝	12 1-1 ⅛	92¾	2¼ 3		64⅞	16 10	8 8
19	163½	64½ ⅝	63½ 64 do.	83¼ 84	97½ do.	98⅝	19⅛ 1-16	⅝ 11-16			93½ 94½	3 3¾		65½	16 10	8 8
21		64½ ½	63¾ 64 63⅞	83⅞ 84	97¼ do.	98⅜ 08	19 1-16	5 11-16	62⅞ ¾	12¼ 3-16	93¾	3⅞ ½ ¼	206¾ ex. di.	65½	16 10	8 8
22	163½	64½ ½	64 63½ ex. di.	83⅞ ½ ½	97¼ ⅛	98⅛ 08	19 1-16	⅝ 11-16			94½ 93⅛	3½ ⅜ ¼	205¾ do.	f. A. 64⅜	16 10	8 8
23	164	64½ ⅝	63¾ 64	83⅝ ⅞	97¾ ⅛	98⅛ ⅝	19⅛	5 11-16¾	63¼ ½	12 3-16¼		3½ ¾ ½		do. 66⅝	16 10	8 8
24		6 ¼ ⅝ ⅜	64⅞ ⅜	85¼ ½	98½ ¼	99¼ ½ ⅛	19¼ ⅜		64¼	12 5-16⅝	95¾ ½	4½ 5¼			16 10	8 8
25	Holiday															
26		65½ ⅞	64⅝ 65⅜	85 84⅞	98½	99¼ ⅝ ⅜	19⅜ ½	5¾ 13-16	64½ ¾	12⅜ 7-16	95¾ 96¼	5½		65⅛ ½	16 10	8 8
28		66⅛ 65½	65½ 64⅞	85⅛ 84¾	98¾ ⅞	99⅝	19 11-16	5 13-16	63⅛ 64	12½		6¼ 5¼	207	65¾ ¾	16 10	8 15

T. BISH, STOCK-BROKER, *Old State Lottery Office, No. 4, Cornhill, London.*

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from the 7th July to the 12th July inclusive.
Total 10,688 Quarters——Average 120s 3¾d.——9¼d. higher than laſt return.

Return of the Prices of Flour, from July 5th, to July 11th, inclusive.
Total 9,952 Sacks——Average 109s 10½d——¾ lower than laſt return.

Hence reſults the Price of BREAD.
Quartern Loaf 1s 6¼d.——Againſt the Baker 2½d.

Price of Hops.

	Bags			Pockets	
Kent	—	12l to 13l 18s	Kent	—	12l to 15l 16s
Suſſex	—	12l to 13l 13s	Suſſex	—	12l to 14l 18s
Eſſex	—	12l to 13l	Eſſex		

Seeds.

Red Clover, (per cwt.)	10s to 90s	Cinqe Foil, ditto	
White Clover, ditto	20s to 95s	White Muſtard Seed, p. bu.	10s to 15s
Trefoil ditto	14s to 32s	Brown, ditto do.	11s to 18s
Turnip, (per buſhel)	20s to 30s	Canary Seed do.	12s to 14s
Rye Grass, (per quarter)	10s to 30s	Rape-ſeed, (per laſt)	46l to 50s

Price of Leather.

Butts, 50 to 60lb.	22d to 23d	Calf Skins, 40 to 50lb. p. doz.	26d to 29d
Ditto, 60 to 90lb.	23d to 24d	Ditto, 60 to 80lb. do.	26d to 29d
Merchants Backs	22d to 22½d	Ditto, 80 to 120lb. do.	21d to 26d
Dreſſing Hides	18d to 19d	Sm. Seals (Greenland)	70s to 80s p. doz.
Fine Coach Hides	19d to 21d	Large do.	140s to 160s do.
Crop Hides for cutting	20d to 21½d	Tanned Horſe Hides	16s to 26s p. hide.
Flat Ordinary	18d to 19d	Goat Skins	30s to 70s p. doz.

Price of Bark, per Load, 18l. to 18l. 10s.

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market	3s 8d	Ruſſia ditto (Soap)	59s
Clare Market	3s 8d	Melting ſtuff	54s
Whitechapel Market	3s 6d	Ditto rough	36s
Per ſtone of 8lb—Average	3s 7½d	Graves	14s
Town Tallow	62s	Good Dregs	11s
Ruſſia ditto (Candles)	60s to 62s	Yellow Soap 72s—Mottled 80s—Curd 84s	

Newbury, July 17.

Wheat	70s to 140s	Oats	38s to 48s
Barley	30s to 55s	Beans	61s to 71s

Reading, July 18.

Wheat	86s to 140s	Oats	38s to 60s
Barley	45s to 57s	Beans 58s to 78s——Peaſe	60s to 80s

Henley, July 16.

Wheat	115s to 142s 6d	Oats	41s to 54s
Barley	40s to 60s	Beans 70s to 92s——Peaſe	— to —

Saliſbury, July 15.

Wheat	144s to 156s	Beans	70s to 84s
Barley	58s to 70s	Oats	40s to 50s

Devizes, July 17.

Wheat	72s to 146s	Oats	46s to 56s
Barley	50s to 72s	Beans	80s to 104s

Warminſter, July 19.

Wheat	100s to 132s	Oats	40s to 52s
Barley	40s to 60s	Beans	70s to 84s

Northampton, July 19.

Wheat	104s to 144s	Barley	30s to 80s
Rye	72s to 82s	Oats 24s to 52s——Beans	70s to 96s

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN, &c. FOR JULY 1800.

Counties Inland by the Standard Winchester Bushel of 8 Gallons.

COUNTIES.	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.		Beans.		Peafe.		Oatmeal.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlefex	140	5			54	2	48	3	66	11	83	9		
Surry	140	0			58	6	49	8	73	9				
Hertford	128	1					45	4	67	9	60	0		
Bedford	133	5	94	4	56	6	48	3	75	6				
Huntingdon	127	5			55	0	42	10	61	8	71	11		
Northampton	120	4	76	6	55	10	38	6	86	6	83	0		
Rutland	110	0			67	6	49	0	80	0			69	3
Leiceſter	116	3			55	2	50	10	69	2			77	1
Nottingham	125	6			62	6	62	2	90	0				
Derby	121	6					58	6	102	0				
Stafford	140	11			70	2	61	10	94	5	45	4	81	3
Salop	151	0	101	0	87	4	51	10	53	10	81	10	93	5
Hereford	148	2	102	4	81	0	53	4	78	4	73	7	104	11
Worceſter	149	4			65	2	56	7	83	11	85	8		
Warwick	139	3			67	6	59	8	86	4	112	0	75	7
Wilts	147	0			65	8	50	4	86	0				
Berks	139	10			51	3	47	6	68	0				
Oxford	133	8			49	10	50	11	80	9				
Bucks	129	4			53	9	4	9	69	9	97	6		
Montgomery	153	7	112	0	92	9	48	0					101	9
Brecon	153	6			73	7	51	2					78	5
Radnor	134	8			87	6	47	11					118	7

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	137	0	66	0	61	0	45	8	65	0	70	0		
Kent	130	6			49	6	44	3	59	0	89	0		
Suſſex	140	0					43	9						
Suffolk	144	4			55	11	45	10	65	9	72	0	92	3
Cambridge	129	5			56	4	39	0	73	0				
Norfolk	121	1	84	0	53	0	45	9	72	0				
Lincoln	111	3	80	0	55	1	42	10	73	0				
York	110	6	78	8	61	7	51	1	88	8	93	4	89	6
Durham	115	4	89	4			60	2						
Northumberland	106	4	79	7	64	1	60	5	96	0				
Cumberland	126	3	101	0	88	8	77	5						
Weſtmorland	162	7	106	8	86	4	69	10					70	0
Lancaſter	137	0			79	10	69	8	97	4			60	7
Cheſter	137	6			84	2	72	8					59	9
Flint	123	1												
Denbigh	146	0					59	9					101	0
Angleſea	None bought f. Sale													
Carnarvon	123	0	84	0	80	0	36	0					95	5
Merioneth	154	6	101	8	104	0	64	0					102	7
Cardigan	136	11			80	0								
Pembroke	123	6			78	0								
Carmarthen	140	4			79	2	38	8						
Glamorgan	164	1			68	10	51	8						
Glouceſter	136	0			56	10	58	8	75	11				
Somerſet	158	8			60	8	45	4	76	0				
Monmouth	167	6			96	0								
Devon	152	7			83	3								
Cornwall	138	0			71	4	34	0						
Dorſet	148	6			69	0	49	0	88	0				
Hants	148	11			61	6	42	8	69	10				