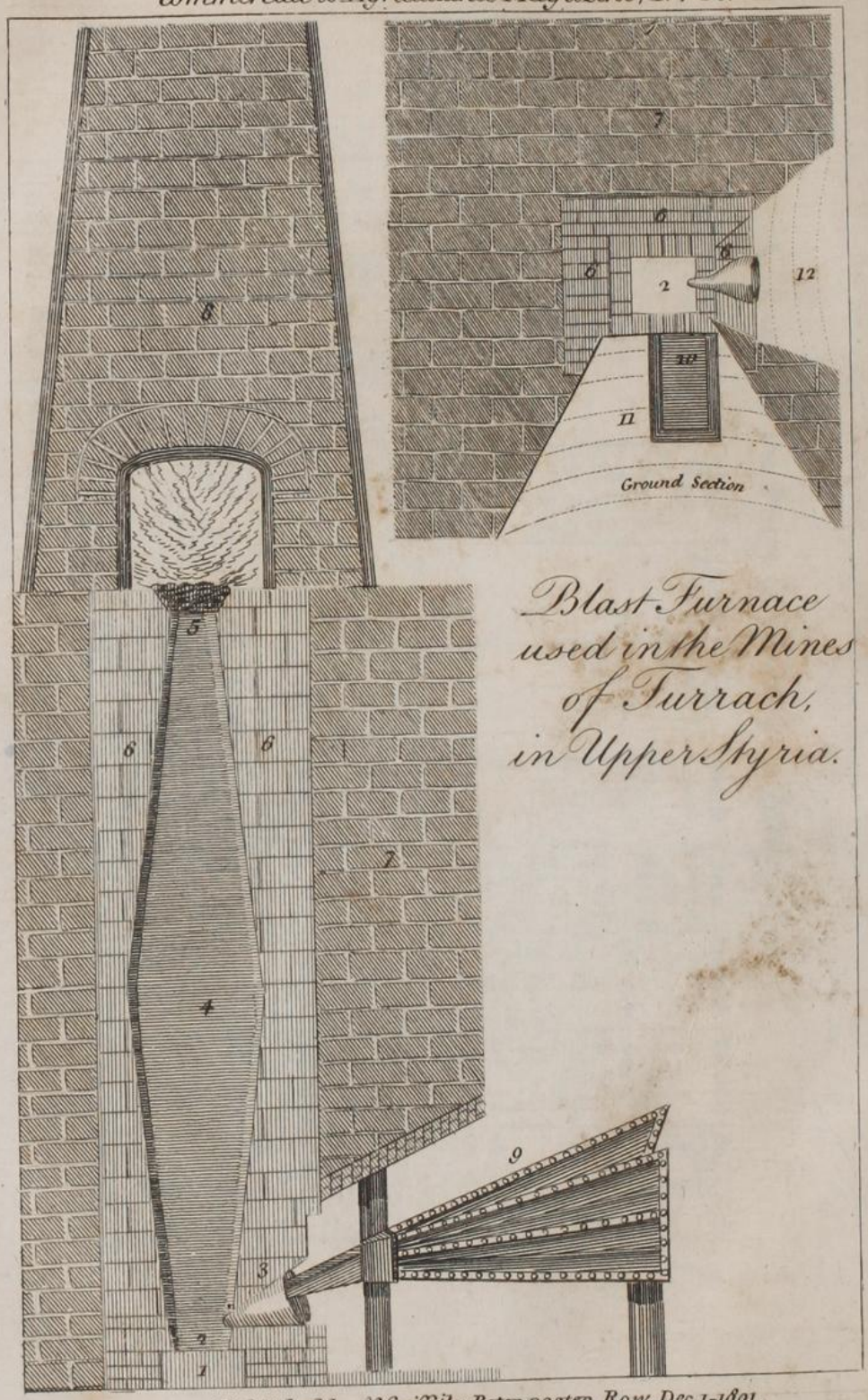

Blast Furnace used in the Mines of Furrach, in Upper Styria.

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Method of preparing the famous Brescian Steel, as it is practised in Styria, and Corinthia; by B. F. Herman, professor of technology, and member of several learned societies. With an engraving of the apparatus.

(Description of the Plate.)

THIS Plate represents, 1. The foundation; a square stone 3 feet broad, and 1½ feet thick.

2. The hearth, which is, in one direction, 22 inches broad, in the other, 20 inches.

3. The moulds; made of copper, in the form of an half-moon, nearly 90 pounds in weight, rising to the height of 11 inches above the foundation, or floor, and making with it an angle of 108 degrees. Sometimes moulds are used which weigh scarce 60 pounds.

4. The interior expanse of the oven, or furnace, 4 feet 2 inches in diameter.

5. The upper extremity of the furnace, 22 inches square.

6. The inner wall of the furnace, built here of certain lime-stones, which resist the force of fire.

7. The exterior head-wall.

8. The chimney, 28 feet high; and pointed at the top.

9. The bellows; consisting of two sides, or parts, of leather, each 10¼ feet in length, 4 feet 2 inches broad, at the posterior part, and on the anterior 18 inches broad; in height, 4⅓ feet. The draught of the bellows terminates in a pipe, or nozzle, which is 3 feet 8 inches long, and in diameter, on its upper part 9 inches; at the very extremity, 1¾ inch. Some think it better to use bellows 1 foot longer, and broader behind by 6 inches,—by 3 inches wider at the nozzle; so as to augment the force of the blast.

10. The passage, by which the melted metal runs off into the reservoir, or fluxing-bed, prepared to receive it.

11. An arch, under which is the reservoir for the fluxed metal, and under which the manager of the bellows acts.

12. Another arch, under which the bellows moves.

The whole height of the furnace, from the ground to the roof, is 24 feet.

The apparatus for ſmelting, &c. which is here delineated, and verbally deſcribed, is employed at the mines of *Turrach*, and *Upper Styria*. *Turrach* is bounded by a range of very high hills, which divide Styria from Saltzburgh and Corinthia. It is a wild and unclutivated diſtrict. When I was laſt there, in the month of May, the upper parts of the hills were ſtill covered with ſnow; but at the bottom, was a fine growth of herbage, among which were pointed out to me, a multitude of plants, reputed to poſſeſs extraordinary medicinal virtues.

John Adolphus, Count of Schwartzenburgh, having acquired a taſte for mineralogy, ſent a man, named *Ruep Aigmer*, about the year 1656 or 1657, to ſearch for copper-mines, in theſe parts. Aigmer was unſucceſsful in his ſearch for copper, but diſcovered iron-ore in abundance.

The Count of Schwartzenburgh, informed of the diſcovery, obtained the Emperor's permiſſion to open the mines, and work the ore for his own benefit. He procured, from Carniola and Corinthia, miners, who underſtood the proceſs of preparing iron from the ore. In the courſe of the year 1660, he erected a ſmelting furnace, on the ſame plan with thoſe which were then in uſe in Corinthia. Its conſtruction not being found to anſwer well, one of a different form was built, in the year 1665: and this, with ſome variations, ſtill remains. The preſent proprietor of theſe mines, is the reigning Prince of Schwartzenburgh.

The mines, now wrought lie to the north of the general range of the Turrach-hills. The three oldeſt of theſe mines are now ruinous, and very little wrought: thoſe which are called St. Michael's mines, are vigorouſly wrought; and are, in depth, 80 fathoms—in length, 12 fathoms. Joh. Nep.'s, alſo wrought, are 104 fathoms deep, and in length 130 fathoms. The Barbara-mine is 49 fathoms deep, and 25 fathoms long.

To theſe ſeveral mines belong the following erections, above-ground: A high furnace, named alſo a blaſt-furnace; and having over it a building, which is called the blaſt-houſe:—Seven roaſting furnaces, to roaſt the ore:—Six reſervoirs of water, the uſe of which I ſhall come ſoon to deſcribe:—Some coal-houſes; and a ſmithery. The water paſſing from theſe mines, forms a brook, which has the name of the Stone-brook, or the Water of Turrach: at ſome diſtance, in its courſe, it takes the name of Predlitz-burn. Near St. Michael's Shafts, is a houſe, in which dwells the maſter miner; and where the labourers aſſemble to go to their work.

The ſtrata of the mines are theſe:

1. Earth.

2. A ſtratum of ſand; which is a mixture of fragments of lime-ſtone, granite, and quartz, almoſt conglemerated into a breccia; and is from 6 inches to 2 feet in thickneſs.

3. Clay, red, ſtreaked with iron, and not uniformly to be met with.

4. The upper gangue, which is a lime-ſtone.

5. The iron-ſtone, which has no regular ſtratification, but is always lower towards the north; in thickneſs, from one inch to twenty fathoms and more.

6. The inferor gangue, of ſchiſtæus clay, having particles of mica intermixed with it.

It is ſuppoſed, that, under this gangue would be found other ſtrata of iron-ſtone.

Theſe oars are of two ſorts, and may be arranged in two claſſes. The following are the ſpecies belonging to the firſt claſs:

1. Iron-ochre, of a yellow and a brown colour.

2. Stalactitical iron-ore. This ore from its apparent ligneous ſtructure, has received ſometimes the name of mineralized wood. It has the fracture of ſtalactites. It occurs, under the denomination of reed-ore, at Sammſdorf, in Saxony. It is plentiful in Hungary.

3. Scaly iron-ore. This ſpecies conſiſts of ſcales hardly ſo thick as common paper, laid one over another. They have a great reſemblance to the ore of copper known by the name of malachites. In colour, they are of a pale red, freckled with graſs-green ſpots which have an elegant effect to the eye.

4. Common iron-ſtone, of a brown or yellow colour.

5. Brown iron-ſtone, with portions of Hœmatites interſperſed in it. Its general colour is brown with micaceous ſpangles here and there.

6. The ſame as the laſt, with this difference, that the portions of hœmatites are much ſmaller in this than in the other.

7. Cryſtallized iron-ore. But of this the ſpecimens are not plentiful.

8. A blueiſh-grey iron-ſtone. Of this, alſo, there is no great abundance.

9. Poor brown iron-ore. This a lime-ſtone impregnated with ore of iron. It is contaminated, when it comes out of the mine, with a large intermixture of clay.

10. The ſame, with this difference, that, inſtead of lime-ſtone, an indurated clay is mixed with the iron-ore. It lies alſo at a greater depth in the mine; and is often mixed with quartz and other ſtones. None of this iron-ore obeys the attraction of the magnet, without being firſt roaſted.

11. A galena here and there intermixed with the iron-ore. It was thought, that a regular vein of lead-ore might have been found; but this expectation has not been gratified.

12. Sulphurated ore, and

13. Arſenical ore, are found in a grey lime-ſtone, which occurs among the ſtrata of the iron.

The following are the ſpecies of the ſecond claſs:

1. A breccia, already mentioned.

2. Different varieties of lime-ſtone, ſome of which approach nearly to the character of marble.

3. Argillaceous Schiſtus, forming as above mentioned, the under gangue.

4. A ſort of ſtone which is here called, from its colours, peacock's tail. Its ſpecimens are ſometimes extremely beautiful.

In the environs, the following ſtones and minerals are to be met with.

1. Lime-ſtone, of which I have nothing particular here to obſerve.

2. The moſt common ſtone, here, is a micaceous ſchiſtus, having ſmall portions of quartz interſperſed through it.

3. Another argillaceous ſchiſtus, with glittering particles which are ſometimes of a ſilver white, ſometimes yellow, ſometimes green, with garnets interſperſed of which the colour is ſometimes red, and ſometimes a dark brown. Some of theſe garnets are an inch thick.

4. A granite conſiſting of quartz, feldſpar, mica, and black ſchorles.

5. Sandſtone of a quartzoſe ſand with a calcareous cement.

6. Sulphurated and arſenicated ſtones are often found here: as are alſo marcaſites.

7. Quickſilver is likewiſe found in theſe parts.

8. A white ſparry ore of iron, occurs in the ſame mountains.

9. A poor ore of iron, brown in colour, and having a calcareous baſis, occurs likewiſe in theſe parts.

10. A quartzoſe copper-ore is found at the diſtance of a two-hours walk from Turrach.

11. There is alſo a ſilver-ore in the ſame mountains. It was once wrought.

Moſt of the ſhafts opened at Turrach for the mining of the iron-ore, are ſupported with timbers within. Twenty-ſix miners and an overſeer are conſtantly employed in the work. The labourers have portions aſſigned them, the performance of which requires the work of eight hours a day. They begin their taſks at the hour of ſix in the mornings of ſummer—at ſeven in the winter mornings. They uſe pikes and crow-irons; and have often the greateſt difficulty to detach the ore in pieces from the ſtrata.

The iron-ore of Turrach, is one of the leaſt refractory in the ſmelting. This is owing to the nature of the ſubſtances commonly intermixed with it—ores of antimony, arſenic, and lead plentifully contaminated with ſulphur.

Before it be ſubjected to roaſting; it is firſt to be *parted* by a ſelection of the ore from the extraneous ſubſtances mixed with it. It is then to be *pounded*, and after that, *picked*. The for-

mer of theſe manipulations is commonly performed out of doors, the latter remain to be done within.

The roaſting of the ore is here performed in common furnaces, of a ſquare form. At the bottom, is put a layer of wood, in ſmall pieces; over that, a quantity of the ore is put in; the ore and the wood together forms a ſtratum, which may be from 1 to 2 feet in thickneſs. The fire is then lighted: to hinder it from blazing out into any great flame, a pailfull of water, or in winter, a ſhovelfull of ſnow, is from time to time added. When the firſt ſtratum is ſufficiently roaſted, another, of wood and ore, is added above it: and the proceſs is thus renewed, till the furnace be filled up to the top, with *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum* of roaſted metal.

The uſual depth of the furnace is between 15 and 20 feet. Of ſome ores, only two ſtrata can be roaſted, before interrupting the proceſs.

The roaſting finiſhed, they proceed to the manipulation of *watering*. In order to this, the roaſted ore is taken from the furnace, and pounded; it is then picked. After the picking, it is put into a wooden trough, filled with water, but, having holes in the ſides, by which the water may paſs out, as the ore is duly waſhed. Theſe troughs are often about 20 feet wide, 20 feet long, and 12 feet in height. The end of this waſhing, or watering, is chiefly to render the ore more eaſily fuſible: the greateſt care is taken to uſe, in this operation, none but the pureſt water.

The next manipulation is to be performed in the great, or high furnace, above repreſented and deſcribed. In beginning this part of the proceſs, the firſt thing is, to prepare for the *fluxing-bed*, a cavity of an oblong ſquare figure. Into this cavity is put a mixture of aſhes and ſand, both ſmall as poſſible in the grain, and carefully ſifted: they are ſpread equally over the bottom of the cavity, and are ſtamped down with the ſtrongeſt preſſure that can be applied. In filling the furnace, out of which the ſmelted metal paſſes into the bed, the foundation, or floor, is firſt covered with flags, and over theſe with a layer of ſand; charcoal is then added, in ſufficient quantity; the bellows begin to play; a few ſhovelsfull of the ore are thrown in; and as theſe yield to the power of the fire, more is continually added. When the aſhes aſſume a black colour, the workmen know that enough of ore has been put in. It is not till the third day of the melting, that the furnace comes into a ſtate the moſt favourable for the operation. From the third to the ninth, the work goes on very proſperouſly. At firſt, the furnace is not emptied and filled oftener than three or four times in the twenty-four hours. Afterwards, the fluxing is ſo much quickened, that the furnace is to be eight or ten times filled in twenty-

four hours. Each filling affords, from two to four cwt. of *crude iron.* If the metal runs with a duſky colour, ſhewing it to be but imperfectly fluxed, then the workmen add to the matter in the furnace, a ſhovel-full of fluxing-ore, another of white quartz, and a third of ſoft white lime-ſtone, in mixture, as a flux.

The quantity of crude iron, annually prepared here, is about 400,000 or 500,000 pounds weight; the ore conſumed in preparing it, is from 1,200,000 to 1,500,000 pounds weight. This ore, therefore, yields crude iron at the rate of 33 per cent.

Such are the manipulations for preparing *crude iron* from the ore of the Turrach mines. This *crude iron*, is made into ſteel by other proceſſes, at Pala, in Corinthia, a place fifteen miles diſtant from Turrach. The deſcription of theſe proceſſes is reſerved for the ſecond part of this eſſay.

CURIOUS FACT IN THE GROWTH OF OATS.

To the Publiſher of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

DEAR SIR,

AS you will receive this letter written by an unknown hand, you may not like to inſert the little information I can give you, concerning an event which is rather extraordinary.—I am at the College at Wincheſter, from whence you will receive this note: I have ſpent, and do now ſpend, a great part of my time in the ſtudy of Agriculture. Knowing that you are the Printer of that uſeful work, the Agricultural Magazine, and thinking that any little news might be inſerted in it, I ſend you the following. Some years back this remarkable event happened in Wiltſhire.—A farmer of that county had ſown a field with oats, which through ſome careleſſneſs had been wetted, while in the ſack, with vinegar or ſome other acid, the conſequence of which was, that the oats came up but very ſparingly.—However, the farmer gathered in as much as came up, but did not (as is the cuſtom) plough up the field after harveſt, to let it lie fallow the next year. The field ſeemed determined to pay the farmer for his trouble the next year, and rightly too, for as Virgil ſays in his Georgies, "Nec nulla interea eſt inaratæ gratia terræ," wherefore it bore him the fineſt crop of oats ſcarcely ever remembered; which is a plain proof of what ſome people aſſert, that the ſmall fibres or root of the oat-ſtem, even after it has been cut down, run along but a ſmall depth under the ſurface of the ground, and then ſhoot up again in a perfect ſtem, and bear ſeed. This, Sir, you are welcome to inſert in your next Agricultural Magazine, if you have room, and if you think it worth your while.

Give me leave to remain yours,

H. HUTCHINSON.

College, Wincheſter, Nov. 8, 1801.

THE ALUM WORK AT WHITBY IN YORKSHIRE.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magaizne.

THE proceſs of making alum, as we partly ſaw, and partly received from the workmen, was as follows :

Firſt. They take the mine, picked from the *deſſe*, or rock, and laying it on great heaps, burn it with whins and wood, till it be white. When it is ſufficiently burned, they barrow it into a pit made on purpoſe, ſome ten feet long, ſix feet broad, and ſeven-fourths of a yard deep; where it is ſteeped in water, for the ſpace of eight or ten hours: then they draw out the liquor, (which is but a *lixivium*, impregnated with the alum-mine,) into troughs, by which it is conveyed to the alum-houſe, into a deep ciſtern, of about twenty yards in circumference, and three yards and a half deep. After this firſt water is drawn off the mine in the pits, they do not preſently caſt away the mine, but pour freſh water on it the ſecond time, and after the ſecond water is drawn off, which is much weaker than the firſt, they caſt out the mine, and put in new, and pour on freſh water as before.

Out of the ciſtern they convey the *lixivium* by troughs, into the pans, where it is boiled for the ſpace of twenty-four hours ordinarily: then they take off the liquor, out of the pans, and examine it, by weight, to know how much lee, made of *kelp*, it will require; which is for the moſt part, ſix inches of the pans depth.

Which being put in ſo ſoon as the liquor boils, or flows up, by the putting in of an iron coal-rake, or other iron inſtrument, they draw it off into a ſettler, and there let it ſtand about an hour, that ſo the ſulphur, and other dregs, may ſettle to the bottom; which being done, it is drawn off into coolers, where it continues about four days and nights: the cooler being drawn about half full, they pour into it a quantity of urine, viz. about eight gallons, into a cooler that contains about a tun.

Having thus ſtood four days and nights, it is quite cool, and the alum cryſtallized to the ſides of the cooler: then they ſcoop out the liquor (which they call the mother,) into a ciſtern, and put it into the pans again, with new *lixivium*, to be evaporated by boiling, &c. The alum that is ſhotten and cryſtallized on the ſides of the cooler, they ſcrape off, and waſh it with fair ſpring water; then throw it into a bing, where the water drains from it. Thence it is taken and caſt into a pan, which they call the rocking pan, and there melted; it is ſcooped out, and conveyed by troughs into tuns, in which it ſtands about ten days, until it be perfectly cooled and condenſed. Then they unhoop and ſtave the tuns, and taking out the alum, chip it, and carry it into the ſtore-houſe.

We failed to enquire exactly what proportion of *kelp* they put in; for though they told us ſix inches of the pans depth, yet they told us not how deep the pans are made.

ON THE WOODBRIDGE BREED OF HORSES, COMPARED WITH THE BAKEWELL BLACKS.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

I HAVE heard, of late, very favourable things ſaid of the Woodbridge breed of cart-horſes. In the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge, I can diſcover ſcarcely any other ſort in uſe. They appear to work well at plough, to be active, and to have rather more ſpeed in their walk than the black horſes which are bred in ſome of the midland counties; but they do not ſeem to me to preſs againſt the collar with that reſolution which is obſervable in the blacks, particularly that kind which is called Bakewell's Blacks. The Woodbridge horſes, (ſo named, I ſuppoſe, from the town in Suffolk,) are well formed in their ſhoulders for activity, but are in general long in the leg; they are not ſo compleat in frame, nor ſo round in the barrel as the blacks; their colour is almoſt invariably light cheſnut, too often accompanied with white legs, to which I can never help attaching the idea of tenderneſs of conſtitution, for I never yet poſſeſſed a light cheſnut-coloured horſe that was not very liable to take cold, and ſubject to diſorders in the bowels. This breed appears to me to be a mixture of the blood-horſe with the cart kind. It is a ſpecies in high eſteem with the Duke of Bedford, and to which he is giving great encouragement, for I have ſeen upon his premiſes many brood mares of this ſort, but none of the blacks.

I ſhould be glad to be informed by ſome one of your correſpondents, who is better acquainted with the qualities of the Woodbridge breed of horſes than I am, in what properties the ſuperior merit of that breed conſiſts. At preſent I am ſtrongly inclined to prefer the black breed of cart-horſes to any that I have ſeen or heard of; and I am perſuaded, that this country is under great obligations to the late Mr. Bakewell, for the improvements which he made in this breed of horſes. I wiſh I could pay Mr. Bakewell's attention to the breeding of cattle and ſheep the ſame compliment; in both theſe inſtances he appears to me to have proceeded upon wrong principles, or to have miſtaken his primary objects. In the breeding of cattle, the production of *milk* is doubtleſs the firſt object; and, in that of ſheep, the *quantity of wool*, as well as the *ſize of the animal*, ought never to be ſlighted.

I am, your humble ſervant,

Nov. 18, 1801. A BREEDER.

AGRICULTURE AND TRADE OF ARABIA FELIX.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

I Should ſuppoſe that the following information concerning the huſbandry and commerce of ARABIA FELIX, may be no unacceptable preſent to the readers of your Magazine. I have written it for my amuſement, on a rainy forenoon, in the country. The facts were communicated to me in many converſations with a reſpectable friend of mine, who is now no more, who paſſed the beſt part of his life in the Eaſt; and who had been often at Jidda and Mocha, in the ſervice of the Honourable the Eaſt India Company.

The people of Arabia Felix are far from being ſo unſkilful in agriculture as may have been ſuppoſed in Europe. On the ſides of the hills, where one ſhould ſuppoſe agriculture impoſſible, they build walls of ſtone, raiſe terraces which theſe walls, ſupport, and produce crops where an European would think of nothing but putting goats to ſcramble. COFFEE is the product chiefly raiſed on theſe terraces. Round the walls is a trench or gutter to receive and preſerve the water neceſſary to the irrigation of the growing plants. If there be any ſpring near, its water is conducted hither. Thoſe who have not the advantage of a ſpring, are obliged to lay conductors of ſtone and bruſhwood to bring the rain-water from the roads to their reſpective terraces. From one field or terrace, the water is, by ſluices, conveyed to the next. Here and there, among the hills, are baſons conſiderably large, in which quantities of water are collected, and preſerved for the general uſe. In the lower country, water is drawn by means of wheels turned by oxen, aſſes, or men's labour, from wells of great depth.

I had once an opportunity, ſaid my friend, to ſee the proceſs of ſowing lentiles in the hilly country of Yemen. A peaſant walked with a ſmall bag of them on his ſhoulders, and ſowed them very thin, as we ſow peas in a garden. He, then, with his feet, turned over the earth from the ridges, upon the ſeed in the furrows. In other inſtances, the ſower follows cloſe after the labourer, who makes the furrows, and drops the ſeed. The other then returns, and covers it with the plough. The Arabs do not waſte near ſo much ſeed as we, in Europe, do. Their corn has every where the appearance of being drilled: the ſtalks, as I could obſerve, are almoſt all of one height, and you ſhall ſcarce ſee a ſingle ear or leaf among them ſpoiled. But, it is not uniformly ſo in all parts of Arabia; for, in many places, the growing crop bears ſufficient marks of the ſloth and ignorance of the peaſants, by whom it is raiſed. I have ſeen, in thoſe places in which agriculture is the beſt, a peaſant turning

up the ſoil with his plough upon the roots of corn that was already ten inches high; and his oxen were trained to paſs between the rows, without treading down any of the plants. The weeds are, amidſt this labour, plucked away with the hand, and given as forage to the cattle. But, only the moſt ſkilful and diligent huſbandmen take all this pains.

The Arabians, when their corn is ripe, pull it up by the roots. Green corn, graſs, and many things uſed as forage for cattle, is cut with a hook.

The Arabians do not threſh their corn, as we do; but lay the ſheaves in double rows, in which the ears of the oppoſite ſheaves meet; and lead over them a yoke of oxen, dragging a large ſtone of a particular ſhape, by the force of which the grain is ſeparated from the chaff. In Syria, they uſe, for this purpoſe, a few planks ſlightly put together, and loaded with gun-flints. In Egypt, a different machine is in uſe. But in all the three countries, the threſhing inſtrument is drawn alike by oxen.

The ſeaſon for the ripening of fruits, &c. varies in Arabia Felix, according as a territory lies towards the North, or nearer to the South, and according, at the ſame time, as its elevation is higher or lower in compariſon with the level of the ſea. It is ſaid that near *Sena*, barley is often ripe in the middle of July; while at *Chamis*, within the ſame territory of Arabia Felix, the lentiles are only ſown about the end of the ſame month.

The tame animals of Arabia, are horſes, mules, aſſes, camels, dromedaries, cows, ſheep, goats, and a variety of others. The Arabians put great value on their horſes. Theſe are, however, of two ſorts: The *Kadiſchi*, or horſes whoſe genealogy is not regularly known, are not more in eſtimation than our common horſes in Europe; and the *Kochlani*, whoſe genealogy is accurately recorded upon ſufficient teſtimony, for a courſe of 2000 years. Theſe are ſaid to have their deſcent from the breed of horſes which belonged to the ſtables of Solomon. They are deſcribed as capable of enduring extraordinary fatigue, of living on air, according to the phraſe of the country, that is, without food, for a ſeries of days together. They are ſaid to advance with fury upon an enemy; and it is related of them, that, when wounded in battle, they make a point of going off, and conveying their rider to a place of ſafety. They are neither handſome nor of a great ſize, but admirably ſwift in running.

They have two ſorts of aſſes in Arabia. The ſmall ſluggard race is the ſame that we have in Europe, and is as little eſteemed in Arabia as among us. There is another race, large, nettleſome, and vigorous. Theſe are ſold dear, and are fitter than even the horſes, for riding, on a journey.

The cows and oxen of Arabia have a ſmall hump on the

ſhoulders, immediately above the fore-legs, which becomes larger in proportion as the animal fattens.

The goods chiefly imported into MOCKHA, at the time when my late friend uſed to *traffic* there, were the following: Crude *iron*, which was ſold at a ſum equal to 10l. 10s. Engliſh money, for the *Bahar* of 450 lib. avoirdupois; *ſteel*, at about 15l. ſterling per *Bahar*; *lead*, at 5s. for 30 lib.; *tin*, at 18s. 6d. for the ſame weight; *cochineal*, at 4s. 3d. a lib. There were alſo a ready ſale, and good prices for mirrors, cutlaſſes, ſabres, cut-glaſs, and falſe pearls.

The EXPORTS from *Mokha*, were

Excellent coffee at 10l. per *Bahar* of 450 lib. with about 15s. more for the Cuſtom-houſe duty, &c.

Aloes for medicinal uſes, at 4l. 10s. per Bahar.

Myrrh (the beſt comes from Abyſſinia), at 1l. 4s. per 2035 lib.

Senna, at 1l. 2s. 6d. per Bahar.

Gold, in rings (from Abyſſinia), at about 5l. ſterling per oz.

Frankincenſe or olibanus, at 3l. per Bahar of 450 lib.

Ivory (from Abyſſinia), at 20l. per Bahar.

Mother of pearl, 100 pieces for 2s. 6d.

Copper (which is brought from Hedjas and Syria to Mokha, and is bought by European traders for the Indian market), at about 1l. 10s. for 30 lib.

Bœætran, a ſort of wormwood, ſage, at about 6d. a lib.

I tranſcribe this abſtract of imports and exports of Mokha, from a paper which my friend, in the courſe of one of our converſations, put into my hands. Its authenticy may, therefore, be depended upon.

It is generally ſuppoſed, that the ancient country of Arabia Felix, comprehending the two territories called by the preſent Arabians, Hadramant and Yemen, was, *in itſelf*, much more opulent and commercial than theſe regions are at preſent. But, the truth is otherwiſe. Their only exports in ancient times, appear to have been incenſe and aloes. Aloes are exported ſtill, in ſmall quantity, from Mokha: and that of Socotra is in the higheſt eſtimation throughout the world. Arabian incenſe, though inferior in quality to that which ſhips from India bring into the Arabian and Perſian gulphs, has ſtill a ſale. And the Arabian trade in coffee much more than compenſates for any loſs that may have been ſuſtained by a decline in the branches which were anciently the moſt flouriſhing.

But, Arabia Felix was anciently a great commercial thoroughfare, and had a carrying-trade, which, ſince the diſcovery of the paſſage by the Cape of Good Hope, it no longer poſſeſſes. Arabia had then much of the carrying-trade of Abyſſinia, Perſia, and India. Yemen and Hadramant are no longer, in the

same degree, the great intermediate emporia between India and Egypt.

Arabia is mentioned in ancient history, as a country abounding in *gold*. Not a grain of native gold is now to be found in it. But a great deal of gold comes hither from Abyssinia: and so much gold coin of Venice comes hither in payment for coffee, &c. that the Arabians fancy the Venetians to be the only people in Europe who have gold. There are iron mines wrought in the district of Saade in Yemen: and it seems probable, that iron might be easily found in other parts of the country, but the Arabians are so little skilful in the working iron ores, that their own iron costs them dearer than that of Europe, which they have by the way of Egypt and India. There are lead mines in Oman; and a good deal of this commodity is exported from Jidda.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.

A. CLEMENT.

A CONCISE HISTORY OF INLAND NAVIGATION.

(Continued from our last, p. 244, and concluded.)

IN the West of England, and Wales, we find a vast variety of canals, which must greatly tend to improve that part of the country, and increase its commerce. As early as the year 1730 a scheme was produced to make the river of Stroudwater navigable to the Severn, but this was never completed; and in 1755 another scheme was brought forward, which was likewise dropped; but, in the year 1774 an act was obtained to make a navigation by means of a new canal, which was soon finished, and extends about eight miles. This led the way for completing the junction of the rivers Thames and Severn: and in 1783 an act passed for making a canal from Stroud to the town of Lechlade, both in Gloucestershire, at the latter place to join the Thames.

This canal begins at the Stroudwater navigation, and proceeds to Lechlade, a line of thirty-eight miles and a half. At Saperton there is a tunnel of two miles and a half in length, built of masonry, and arched over, with an inverted arch at the bottom. This canal opens an intercourse between London and the ports of Wales, Bristol, Gloucester, Worcester, and all the towns on the Severn.

In 1769 application was made to parliament for an act to make a navigable canal from the city of Chester to Middlewich, but by a very extraordinary clause inserted in the act, the proprietors were prevented from uniting with the Trent and Mersey canal at Middlewich. A canal was soon completed under

this act to Nantwich, having a fall from the summit to Chester of 170 feet, and from the summit to Nantwich of 40 feet. This canal has for many years, for want of communication with other canals, proved a very unprofitable undertaking.

In 1794, the 34th Geo. III, an act was obtained to enable certain persons to cut a canal from Shrewsbury to the river Mersey near Netherspool; to pass by the town of Ellesmere, from whence it is stiled the Ellesmere canal. The length is fifty-seven miles, and it has on it 537 feet of lockage, and one of the finest aqueducts, over the river Dee, ever erected in this country. There are also two tunnels on this canal. So great and important was this undertaking conceived to be, even from the beginning, that the proprietors were allowed to raise a sum not less than 400,000l. to complete it.

The canal called the Shropshire canal, the act for which was obtained in the year 1788, proceeds from Donington wood to the Severn; it is only seven miles and a half long, but has a rise and fall of 420 feet, which is managed by three inclined planes.

A small canal has been cut also from Donington wood, in the parish of Lillesshall, to or near Newport, in the county of Salop, by Lord Stafford and the two Mr. Gilberts, which is about six miles long, and is their private property. A canal was also cut in 1789, from Ketley iron-works, in Shropshire, to the Shropshire canal.

The Montgomeryshire canal act passed in 1794, and enables the proprietors to cut a canal from the lime works of Portywaen in Shropshire, to Newtown in the county of Montgomery, with a branch to Crumlin bridge. This canal was begun in 1792. A small canal from Combe hill, in the county of Gloucester, was begun the same year.

An act passed in 1793, for a canal from the town of Brecknock to the Monmouthshire canal at Pontypool. The date and particulars of the Monmouthshire canal we have not been able to obtain with precision.

A canal has been cut from Swansea to Hennayadd, which is called the Swansea or Glamorganshire canal.

A canal is also begun from the Glamorganshire canal to Aberdon, in the same county; the act passed in 1793: its length is about eight miles. The same year an act passed for making a canal from the town of Brecknock to the Monmouthshire canal, a distance of eighteen miles and a half.

The completion of Mr. Brindley's great plan for communicating with the city of London and the great northern ports was reserved till the year 1794, when an act passed for making a canal from the Oxford canal at Braunston, to the Thames near Brentford, a line of ninety miles, with seven hundred and ninety-six feet lockage, by one hundred and twenty locks, and three tunnels. The estimated expence 500,000l.

Soon after, an act was obtained to cut a canal from the Grand Junction, near Uxbridge, to Paddington, which is now completed, and forms a junction by canal navigation between the Metropolis and almoſt all the great towns of England. This fully completes the original plan of Mr. Brindley.

In the eaſtern part of England we find a navigable canal from Langley bridge to the river Trent, and another from Cheſterfield to the river Trent.

In 1776 a navigation was begun from Loughborough into the river Severn; and in 1791 an act paſſed to make a navigable communication from the Loughborough canal and town of Leiceſter, with rail-ways to certain places in the neighbourhood. Another act paſſed for extending the Leiceſter navigation to Melton Mowbray.

In 1792 an act paſſed for making a canal from Sleaford caſtle to the river Witham, in the county of Lincoln. And an act paſſed in the 33d year of George III. for making a canal from South Kelſey to the town of Carſton, in Lincolnſhire, to be called the Carſton canal.

An act paſſed in 1793 for making a navigable communication between the town of Chelmsford and the river Blackwater, near Malden, in Eſſex, a length of thirteen and a half miles; ten of which is by the rivers, and the reſt by new cuts.

A canal from Grantham in Lincolnſhire, and the river Trent, was begun in 1793, and is now cutting.

Another from Melton Mowbray and the town of Leveyt to Ockſpon, in Rutlandſhire, the act paſſed in 1792.

Another from the town of Leiceſter to Northampton, which is called the Union canal.

Another from Newberry to the river Avon, called the Kennet and Avon canal.

And another from the Coventry canal to Aſhby-de-la-Zouch.

Some other ſmall canals have alſo been made, but of no great conſequence.

ON THE LONG-EAR'D COCKLE.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

AS a cryſalis may appear to one totally unacquainted with natural hiſtory, to be of a very different genus than it really is; ſo may certain ſmall ſeeds, found in an ear of wheat, be aranged in a claſs not altogether conformable with the Linnean ſyſtem, through inaccurate obſervation.

Theſe ſmall black ſeeds, which I believe generally paſs for cockles, are not to be found during harveſt time,* being then of very different ſize, and colour; they are at that time almoſt as

* I dont recollect finding any at that time.

big as a ſmall pea, of a dull green colour, and may with propriety be called bladders or balls (very different however from ſmut-balls); they ſeldom, I believe, poſſeſs the whole ear, and the other kernels are to all appearance perfect, though I have been informed that theſe apparently perfect kernels will produce balls if ſown; for the goodneſs of this authority I cannot ſpeak, as it came from a ſtranger.

After being cut and brought home, they, in time, ſhrink to the ſize of cockles, and become black, from which I ſhould infer that they are of a ſappy nature, and indeed their green colour correſponds with this idea; they are of an oblong ſhape, when ſhrunk, but when in their green ſtate they are nearly round; I do not recollect how they appeared on nipping them while green, but the black ones are white within, and of a ſkinny ſubſtance. Theſe ſeeds are by ſome people called pepper kernels, and I have known ſeed-wheat objected to on account of them.

It is an eſtabliſhed fact in natural hiſtory (excepting accidental variations), that like will produce like; and I believe, Sir, you will agree with me, that it is impoſſible for wheat ears to produce cockle, and that this ſuppoſed cockle is nothing but imperfect, or damaged wheat.

I was the more anxious to refute Mr. Baniſter's ſtatement, becauſe it was handed to us by a man of experience, and it was the more neceſſary, as agriculturiſts generally depend on experience alone; errors from this ſource have a dangerous tendency, they are not of a temporary nature, but are ſo engrafted as to ſtand for ages, after which, neither our hearing, ſeeing, or feeling, can convince us of the impropriety of following the old track; but I beg pardon, Mr. Editor, I perceive that I am imperceptibly falling into a long digreſſion; to prevent which, I ſhall beg leave to ſubſcribe myſelf

Your humble ſervant,

R. S.

Colcheſter, 14th November, 1801.

P. S. I am inclined to think, that the balls communicate no infection to the other wheat.

After finiſhing the above, I have been into the barn to ſee whether my ſtatement be right, and I find one correction neceſſary, viz. that the ſeeds are of various ſhapes, ſome of them having grooves in them as the perfect wheat has, and in all reſpects like ſhrivelled wheat, except that they are of a different colour.

R. S.

THE BRITISH MERCHANT. No. X.

HISTORY OF COMMERCE TO THE END OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

IN Maddox's Hiſtory of the Exchequer we find under the year 1267, a wine guager appointed; and from the fees received, we learn that the quantity of wine imported into London was 3799 tons, into Southampton and Portſmouth 3147 tons, and into Sandwich 1900 tons. At this time the principal import only was on wine, chiefly French and Rheniſh; little Portugal, Spaniſh, or Italian wines were uſed here.

Notwithſtanding the advantageous commerce carried on between England and Flanders, the counteſs of Flanders and king of England had ſome diſputes, which, for a time, interrupted that commerce, once in the year 1274, and again in 1278.

About this period we find the word intereſt uſed in deeds, ſignifying a moderate rate for the loan of money; and the word uſury, before a general name, acquired the meaning it now bears, that of exceſſive or illegal intereſt. An improvement now took place in the laws reſpecting *wreck*, for by ſtatute of Edward I. anno 1278, if a dog, cat, or any thing alive, eſcape out of the ſhip, ſhe is not to be deemed a wreck.

A diſpute which happened in 1276, between the Bremeners and king of England, proves that in many caſes the whole body of a foreign nation trading here were anſwerable for the miſdemeanors of any individual of his nation.

A ſingular fact appears under the year 1278, that the Lucca merchants reſiding in London, were the keepers of the Mint of London; a proof that our countrymen were then little acquainted with the art of coining money. About the ſame period the Jews were accuſed of clipping the current coin; the whole of them were ſeized in one day, and no leſs than two hundred and eighty were convicted of clipping and defacing the money, and were executed.

King Edward I. granted by charter to the merchants of the Steel-yard all their liberties and free cuſtoms; yet we find two years after, theſe ſame merchants are compelled to pay to the city of London for the repairs of Biſhopſgate.

The year 1282 is memorable for the humiliation of the republic of Piſa, by the Genoeſe and Luccheſe; they were diſpoſſeſſed of Leghorn, and the Iſle of Elba, were compelled to pay the Genoeſe for the exigences of the war, and were obliged to give up all they held in Corſica and Sardinia. Yet it is more than probable this muſt have happened ſomewhat later, as in 1283 we find the Piſans defeated at ſea, in a very bloody battle, and moſt complete manner.

The herring fiſhery was now ſo conſiderable on the coaſt of Schonen, that the king of Denmark granted to the city of Ham-

burgh a piece of ground, to use as an annual mart or fair for herrings.

The same year we find a most useful statute enacted, to enable merchants the more easily to recover their debts; this was meant particularly to relieve foreigners, who are thereby allowed to sue for their debts before the Mayors of London, York, and Bristol. These foreign merchants are supposed, by Anderson, to be from Lombardy and other cities of Italy, who at this time supplied almost all the Christian world with spices and India goods. The Lombards were also great lenders of money, and were accused of fraudulent practices, as dealers in money generally are, and at one time they were by law expelled the kingdom; but Edward was too wise not to encourage commercial men, and they were soon recalled. At this period the word merchant implied in England, as it does now in Scotland and other places, dealers and traders of all kinds.

Edward, whom Judge Blackstone calls the English Justinian, was particularly attentive to the encouragement of commerce; he renewed a commercial treaty with the king of Norway; he enacted laws relative to the highways, which have always a great effect on commerce, and various other useful regulations.

The fluctuation in the price of wheat in this reign proves that something was, however, wanting in the laws respecting this article. Bishop Fleetwood, indeed, ascribes it to the want of skill in the farmers.

Anderson, in his History of Commerce, observes, that Ireland was allowed to import and export goods to and from England and foreign parts, and thinks this an imprudent grant; perhaps it might not be difficult to shew that such liberty ought, as a matter of prudence, never to have been abridged.

We have more than once mentioned the persecutions which the the poor Jews frequently underwent in England. By presents to the king, they, however, contrived to secure his favour till the year 1290, when the bad practices which they used, or at least were charged with, compelled the king to benefit them. The king seized on all their moveable effects. They had before been expelled from France in the year 1143.

The cities of Italy, which had been made free by Rhadolph I. emperor, had now, by the spirit of commerce and industry, which that freedom had infused into them, arisen to considerable commercial opulence.

In 1291, the Genoese made an attempt to discover a new world to the westward; they put out two gallies under Dorea and Vivaldo, which were never more heard of. That important discovery was reserved for their countryman Columbus.

About this period the holy wars, which had so long harrassed

both Europe and Paleſtine, had an end. To the loſs of gold and ſilver, occaſioned by theſe wars, may be attributed the depreciation of the coin of Europe. This practice was firſt begun in France, and England, and next in Germany, the Netherlands, and Spain; but the free cities of Italy did not adopt this deſtructive ſcheme.

On the other hand, theſe wars made the nations of the weſt acquainted with the ports and manufactures of the eaſt. The ſtates of the weſt now began alſo to enter more fully into commercial alliances with each other.

Our Edward muſt have had a very conſiderable annual income, or he could not have ſupported the immenſe ſubſidies he paid to foreign princes, on account of his wars with France. Among them we find the Earl of Flanders, the Duke of Savoy, the Archduke of Auſtria, the Duke of Brabant and Gueldres, and many others. This prince granted licences to foreigners to fiſh on our coaſt, and the firſt letters of mart or repriſals we likewiſe find granted by this prince.

The Genoeſe were now in the height of their power.

In the year 1296 the famous mercantile ſociety, called the Merchant Adventurers, had its riſe; theſe perſons firſt ſet on foot the woollen manufactories in England. The town of Hull was founded the ſame year. The juriſdiction of the Admiral of the Seas ſeems to have been ſettled about this time. The king in 1299, took off a duty of forty ſhillings on every ſack of wool exported, reſerving only the cuſtoms on wool, ſkins, and leather, granted by the Commons, by which it appears that the duty now given up was by the king's power alone.

The prices of the following articles we find noticed by Fleetwood: a peacock, three halfpence, a gooſe four-pence, a capon two-pence halfpenny, two pullets three halfpence, a pheaſant four-pence, a fat lamb at Chriſtmas a ſhilling and four-pence, wheat twenty-pence the quarter.

Veſſels of gold and ſilver were now required to be ſtamped by the Company of Goldſmiths.

(*To be continued.*)

THE NORFOLK METHOD OF SOWING RYE FOR SPRING FEED.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

IN compliance to the requeſt of your very valuable correſpondent Practicus, I ſend you for inſertion, the method of ſowing rye in Norfolk, for ſpring feed, at leaſt as much as comes within my knowledge. In the neighbourhood where I live, which is towards the ſouth-eaſt part of the county, it is not very general, yet by ſome farmers, it is frequently practiſed; I have

myſelf ſown it a few times, and where feed is very much wanted in the ſpring, I think it anſwers very well.

Our plan is this; as ſoon as harveſt is finiſhed, (for the earlier it is ſown, the forwarder it will be in the ſpring,) we plough a wheat ſtubble clean, and ſow two buſhels of rye per acre, broadcaſt, and harrow it in; and, by the middle of April it will be fit to turn into. We feed it with bullocks, cows, or ſheep, or all together; but it does not yield ſo much feed perhaps as practiſers may ſuppoſe, for it begins to ſpindle early in the ſpring, ſo that it has very little bottom, and of courſe it is ſoon taken off: it muſt be ſown upon light land, for heavy wet land will not bear ſtock ſo early in the ſpring.

Although I do not think it cheap feed, yet, whilſt our ſtock is eating it, we are ſpuring up our graſs, both natural and artificial, till it gets a good bottom, which is a very deſirable thing, and which makes the rye the more valuable.

After we have fed it off, we plough it immediately, and work it as a fallow for turnips, ſo that we do not loſe a crop by it, nor do we find that our turnips are the worſe for it, I mean if the land is well farmed after the rye is off.

I am not to be beaten off the field by a little haughty language, as my friend Practicus expreſſes it, but I think it uſeleſs to give an anſwer to ſuch abſurdities. If Leiceſterenſis is right by ſaying, that mouldy hay is of a very fattening nature, I muſt have been guilty of very great extravagance, for whenever I have any mouldy hay (which is but ſeldom,) I throw it down in my ſtray-yard for the cattle to lay upon.

I cannot conclude without making ſome remarks upon the letter written by an Eminent Cultivator of Suffolk, ſtating that a clear ſaving of five millions ſterling a year might be made in the article of ſeed-corn, and double that ſum in the produce. I am far from condemning the drill huſbandry, I like it; I always uſe a drill in putting my ſeed-corn into the ground, when the weather will permit; in wet weather drilling cannot be performed to advantage; but the quantity of ſeeds, of various ſorts, that the Rev. Mr. Cloſe ſtates ſufficient for an acre, I am poſitively ſure is far from enough for land in general. I do not ſay but it might do upon a very rich ſpot of land, remarkably clean, and in the higheſt ſtate of cultivation, but no where elſe; for inſtead of ſaving five millions a year, more than ten times that ſum would be loſt.

I think no one ſhould pretend to aſcertain the quantity of ſeed ſufficient for an acre, without ſaying what ſort of land it is, and what ſtate of cultivation it is in. I have this year put in only five pecks per acre of wheat, on ſome land, and I believe it will be quite thick enough; I have put in ten pecks on ſome other land, and it is not at all too thick; from experience I know this to be right, therefore, every farmer ought to know

the ſtate of his land before he fixes the quantity of ſeed for it; if he does not, there is very little doubt but he will find his error without being told of it.

I remain, Sir, your humble ſervant,
A NORFOLK FARMER.

ON SAVING SEED CORN, AND THE DRILL-HUSBANDRY.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

I Am very partial to drilling all ſorts of grain, upon ſuch land as will admit of the practice; but I cannot agree with your correſpondent, who ſtiles himſelf An Eminent Suffolk Cultivator, whoſe intentions, no doubt, are good, but in my opinion he is not ſufficiently acquainted with the method of drilling, to indicate the quantity of ſeed neceſſary per acre, whether wheat, peas, beans, oats, barley, or vetches.

I am, ſir, a Norfolk Cultivator, and have for a ſeries of years been intimately acquainted with land of various deſcriptions; I live in a neighbourhood where the drill huſbandry is become a general practice, upon bean and pea ſtubbles, ſummer fallows, &c. In my opinion, the quantity of ſeed-wheat requiſite per acre (I am ſpeaking of land in the higheſt ſtate of cultivation, and of perfect cleanlineſs), is five pecks; of peas and beans, ſix pecks per acre is barely ſufficient; a good practical huſbandman in the art of drilling, will not, I am confident, put in leſs than three buſhels of oats, and two buſhels of barley per acre. With regard to vetches I am convinced, and my neighbours are thoroughly convinced, that it would be highly injurious to the crop to drill a leſs quantity than ſeven pecks. Land of a different quality and condition, evidently requires a much greater proportion of ſeed than what is here repreſented by me.

Perhaps your Suffolk correſpondent, after peruſing this letter, will conclude that I am an old-faſhioned farmer, and that I am averſe to experimental trials; probably his reverend friend Mr. Cloſe, was deceived in reſpect to the quantity of ſeed, by the perſon who had the management of the drill machine. I ſtrongly adviſe the Eminent Suffolk Cultivator to try the experiment himſelf, upon a ſmall ſcale, if he has land ſuitable for the purpoſe, and he will then be aſſured, that a much greater quantity of ſeed per acre, is abſolutely neceſſary, than that which the reverend gentleman conceives to be quite ſufficient.

I have not lately been much in the habit of broad-caſting, notwithſtanding I am perfectly aſſured, that the quantity of ſeed reccommended to be ſown per acre, by the Eminent Suffolk Cultivator, is too much, it is waſting the ſeed to no profitable purpoſe, which is clearly an irretrievable and heavy loſs to the public, not only on account of the unneceſſary waſte of ſeed, but all

land requires a greater or a leſs quantity of ſeed in proportion to its quality and condition; therefore, if a farmer ſows a greater quantity of ſeed than his land requires, he endangers his crop thereby, and if he does not give his land its due proportion of ſeed, he alſo endangers his crop.

As we are diametrically in oppoſition to each other, reſpecting the quantity of ſeed requiſite for drilling, ſo are we in reſpect to what is ſufficient for broad-caſting; and I have only this to add, that if I were again to peruſe that ſyſtem of huſbandry, I would, upon good land, ſow the following quantity of ſeed per acre, and no more: that is,

Wheat,	2 Buſhels.	Oats,	3½ Buſhels
Peas,	3 ditto	Barley,	2½ ditto, or rather more
Beans,	2½ ditto	Vetches,	2 ditto.

By inſerting this, Mr. Editor, you will greatly oblige,

Your very humble ſervant,

Nov. 17th, 1801. I. B.

AN ACCOUNT OF SOME MANUFACTURES IN DORSETSHIRE.

(From Claridge's Agricultural View of the County).

AMONG various others of great import to the community, in the county of Dorſet, the principal one is in the manufactory of flax and hemp, in the neighbourhood of Bridport and Beminſter; where all ſorts of twine, ſtring, packthread, netting, cordage, and ropes are made, from the fineſt thread uſed by ſaddlers, in lieu of ſilk, to the cable which holds the firſt rate man of war. The nets made for the fiſhery at Newfoundland, as well as for home uſe; and the ſails for ſhipping of every kind, is manufactured of the beſt quality, as well as ſacking for hammocks, &c. and all kinds of bags and tarpaulin; and, in addition to the great quantity of flax and hemp uſed here, not more than one-third of it is allowed by the manufacturers to be of Britiſh growth; the remaining two-thirds of it, is imported from Ruſſia and America, as raw materials.

This manufactory is carried on at Beminſter; chiefly under the direction of Meſſrs. Cox and Co. who employ upwards of ſix hundred people in this buſineſs, and in and about the environs of Beminſter, there are upwards of two thouſand people, employed by them and others. At Bridport there are a great number of manufactures; and about eighteen hundred people are ſaid to be employed in this town, and in its environs, as far as ſeven or eight miles round; upwards of ſeven thouſand people are in conſtant work.

This manufactory is a great ſupport for poor people: after preſſing and beating in a mill for that purpoſe, combing and cleaning, it affords employment, in its proceſs of ſpinning, to

women and children, who are paid at the rate of two-pence per-pound; they can ſpin about four pounds in a day, amounting to eight-pence for daily earnings; beſides which the manufacturer pays two or three pence per day, to a child to turn the wheel; it is then twiſted, cleanſed, and ſoftened for the weaver.

The ſail-cloth is made in pieces of about forty yards each, yard-wide, and worth from fifteen to ſeventeen-pence per yard. Sacks for grain and flour are alſo made here, and thoſe without a ſeam, to hold each four buſhels, nine gallons meaſure, at thirty-ſeven ſhillings per dozen.

A manufactory of this kind, upon a very ſmall ſcale, is carried on in the Iſle of Purbeck, near a village called Kingſton, and which I underſtand is under the patronage of Morton Pitt, Eſq. of Encombe, one of the members for the county, for the employment of the poor; and at Poole there is another manufactory of this kind, but upon a very ſmall ſcale.

It is ſaid that this trade has of late years rather fallen off, on account of America having manufactured their own growth of flax and hemp, inſtead of taking their ſupplies from Great Britain; but in the preſent ſtate of it, I do not find the poor-rates have lately increaſed, or even to exceed at preſent more than two ſhillings in the pound on an average. The appearance of the town of Bridport, beſpeaks proſperity by the great improvements made in the buildings within the laſt twenty years; and this manufactory being ſo extremely neceſſary to the trade and commerce of this glorious country, is ſo important to the whole navy at large, it muſt be the wiſh of every Engliſhman, to ſee it flouriſhing to its fulleſt extent, both as to the quality and quantity of the article manufactured.

It may not be improper to remark in this place, the great conſequence of the growth of flax and hemp, which acrues from its cultivation, by referring to what has been already ſaid under the head of its growth and management, and where it is pointed out, to what conſiderable advantages, the ſeed only is appropriated, both in the produce of oil for painters, and food for cattle.

Another manufactory is carried on at Shafteſbury, which is the making of all kinds of ſhirt-buttons; and upwards of four thouſand women and children are employed in and about this town; the moſt inferior ſorts of which, are made at the low price of five-pence per groſs of twelve dozen, the labourer finding the thread. This manufactory is chiefly under the direction of Mr. Atchinſon; and at Blandford, upwards of three thouſand women and children are employed in a like manufactory, under the direction of Meſſrs. Fiſher and Co. and ſeveral others. This is alſo another inſtance of the advantageous growth of flax and hemp in this county.

A third manufactory in the neighbourhood of Shaftesbury, is a kind of flannel, called swanskin, or coarse white woollen cloth, used for soldiers cloathing, and made for eighteen-pence or two shillings per yard; but this is of little consequence at Shaftesbury, the chief trade in this article being carried on at Sherminster, where about twelve hundred people are employed in it, and where between four and five thousand pieces, containing thirty-five yards in length in a piece, yard wide, are annually made.

At Stalbridge there is a manufactory for spinning silk, in which about one hundred and fifty women and children are employed.

At Sherborne, there is another of the same kind upon a larger scale, for twisting and making up raw silk into skains, in which about eight hundred women and children are employed, under the direction of Messrs. Wilmot and Co. but this manufactory is said to decline, and the number of people employed in it, to have been considerably lessened of late years.

The oil mill at Lyme, under the direction of Mr. Dawson, and the produce of hemp and flax, before stated from the office of the clerk of the peace, makes it needless for me to say more on this subject here.

At Winborne there is a manufactory of worsted stockings, in which upwards of one thousand women and children are employed in knitting, who earn from one shilling to eighteen-pence for labour; the cost of the worsted being about two-pence or two-pence-half-penny per ounce, and eight ounces to each pair of stockings; which, when manufactured, are worth from three shillings and sixpence to four shillings per pair; and from the time necessarily occupied in the manufacturing of this article, there seems but very low wages accruing to the labourer.

ON THE BLOOD IN SHEEP.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

THERE is a disorder in sheep, called in many places, the blood; a disorder which makes great havock among them, annually sweeping off a great number; and, as it is prevalent at this time, this is also a proper time for enquiring after its cure.

I believe, sheep that have been but a short time at turnips, are more subject to the blood than any others. Sometimes they are taken very suddenly; for you may walk among them, and be perfectly satisfied with their healthy appearance; walk them, or even run them, they will perform it with vigour; but leave the

ſpot, and return again in ten minutes, or even five, and perhaps you will find one kicking on the ground, and rolling its eyes in the agony of death: (the ſuddenneſs of the attack renders it of ſtill more ſerious conſequence). Sometimes they are taken with a ſlight fit, which goes off again; I have ſometimes tried to catch one in this ſtate, for the purpoſe of bleeding, but being unſucceſsful, after two or three trials, the ſheep have ſo recovered that I have not been able to diſtinguiſh it from the reſt; but I believe they ſeldom go long without a freſh attack, and it is very likely to happen on the ſucceeding night, and equally likely to carry them off.

There ſeems to be a diviſion of opinions, concerning the cauſe of this diſorder; ſome ſuppoſing it to proceed from the watery juices of the turnips, others attributing it to the fluſh of blood, derived from ſuperior food, (hence its name); that the former is not the only cauſe (if it hath anything to do with it,) is evident, for ſheep ſometimes die of the blood without ever taſting turnips.

That the latter is one cauſe, (if not the only one,) I have no doubt, becauſe bleeding is generally found beneficial, which I know by experience, having tried it repeatedly. I will give you an inſtance.

In the year 1798, (I think it was,) after loſing fifteen in about a fortnight (out of eight ſcore), I bled the remainder, after which only one died during the winter. This is not a ſolitary inſtance, though perhaps it may not always be found quite ſo effectual, yet I never knew many drop after bleeding, provided the ſheep are all ſound.

Perhaps, ſir, you will be ſurpriſed at my pointing out a remedy, after informing you I meant to enquire after one; it is true I have pointed out a remedy, and I believe an effectual one; but there is a doubt, whether this bleeding may not be an hindrance to the animal's fattening; for which reaſon I propoſe the following queries:

Firſt, What effect has bleeding on fatting animals? does it haſten or retard their fatting.?

Second, What is the beſt cure for the blood in ſheep; bleeding or phyſic.

If you think this letter deſerves a place in your uſeful Magazine, I have no doubt but ſome of your correſpondents will do me the favour to anſwer the queries; by inſerting it you will confer an obligation on

Your humble ſervant,

R. S.

Colcheſter, 21ſt November, 1801.

ON THE SAVING SEED-CORN; THE DRILL HUSBANDRY; AND THE DUKE OF BEDFORD'S OBSERVATIONS UPON IT.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

THERE is a letter in the laſt Number of your Magazine, which I cannot ſuffer to paſs without, at leaſt, animadverſion. Your Suffolk correſpondent, whoſe ſignature is G. ſpeaks very loudly, and peremptorily, in favour of the Drill-Huſbandry, and a conſequent ſaving of ſeed. But if this huſbandry has nothing elſe to recommend it, I will aſſert, that it is neither worthy of general adoption nor public notice. The *ſaving of ſeed* is a dangerous ſubject for a ſower even to meditate upon; and if he enters the field with this idea in his head, he is ſure to injure materially his crop. I have ſuffered ſo much, and have ſeen failures of ſuch magnitude in other men's crops, ariſing ſolely from a niggardly diſtribution of ſeed, that I never will let ſlip an opportunity of counteracting, to the utmoſt of my ſlender abilities, the very plauſible, but fallacious opinions, of ſuch writers as your Suffolk correſpondent. This ſaving notion has, of late years, owing to the exceſſive high prices of grain, been peculiarly and deſtructively captivating; as I have ſeen in very many inſtances. Even this preſent year, the winter and ſpring of which have been ſo particularly encouraging to thin-ſown crops, I have paſſed through many fields where it was manifeſt that the ſower, by attempting to ſave one buſhel, had loſt at leaſt ten; but I did not obſerve, in any one crop, where a leſs quantity of ſeed would have been ſufficient to produce a quantity of corn equal to that which I ſaw growing. When we have ſeen another harveſt, the time, I hope, will arrive, when the price of wheat will be reduced to 7s. 6d. per buſhel, and then the above popular argument will loſe its pernicious weight, and men will ſow as they wiſh to reap.

But let us again bring to public view the ſtrong and unqualified expreſſions of your correſpondent, "that a clear ſaving of five millions ſterling a year might be made in the article of ſeed-corn, and double that ſum, in the produce, and application of that produce, by the improved ſyſtem of huſbandry now practiſed by ſome few ſpirited farmers in different parts of the country. That on a general, moderate calculation, eight millions of buſhels of wheat, the ſame quantity of barley, one million of rye, four of oats, and two millions of buſhels of peas and beans, are yearly waſted and thrown away in ſuperfluous ſeed, which might and ought to be ſaved, independently of the additional produce, which, by the new ſyſtem, might be obtained. That it is thus poſſible to add fifteen millions annually to the natural wealth."

This new and favourite ſyſtem is the drill-huſbandry, which only requires, according to Mr. Cloſe's practice, "three pecks of ſeed-wheat to an acre." This is ſurely a very ſmall allowance of ſeed; and will, I preſume to ſay, if the ſeaſon is not made on purpoſe for this huſbandry, be found very deficient. And your correſpondent and Mr. Cloſe, in this inſtance, make no allowance for the annual and generally large depredations of various inſects, of the winged tribe, of the chilling effects of winter, and of the cutting blaſts of March. Nine ſeaſons out of ten, all the above cauſes will unite in thining the plants of the wheat crop, and every one is ſenſible, that the deſtruction or failure of one grain of ſeed, eſpecially in a thin or drilled crop, will cauſe a defalcation of at leaſt forty grains in the future product. Thus your correſpondent, if my aſſertions are at all ſupported by reaſon and truth, in endeavouring to ſave for the nation fifteen millions, would abſolutely prevent the production of forty times that ſum.

Although your correſpondent ſpeaks ſo warmly and repeatedly of the "additional produce of the drill ſyſtem." I muſt take the liberty of ſaying, that I have been attentively watching the effects of the above huſbandry, for near twenty years, and never could diſcover this additional produce. Excepting the pea-crop, this practice of ſowing in diſtant rows, appears to me not only unneceſſary, but dangerous: it is unneceſſary for the adoption of a good and cleanly farmer, and dangerous in the hands of a ſlovenly one: it is unneceſſary in a wet ſpring, and dangerous in a dry one.

A good farmer will always completely clean his land before he ſows his ſeed, and give every poſſible chance to the young crop, of effectually covering the ſurface of the land, and ſheltering it from the frequently too powerful influence of the ſun in the month of May, and this, without the tedious proceſs of drilling, and the inconvenience and expence of repeated horſe-hoeings; but the ſlovenly farmer, who happens to entertain a partiality for the drill-huſbandry, will always defer the cleanſing of his land to the laſt moment, and will truſt with too great confidence to the all-powerful effect of the horſe-hoe, which can, indeed, render little ſervice towards the deſtruction of root-weeds, and which will generally be introduced unſeaſonably, and often to the greater expoſure of the land, perhaps already too much laid open to the ſun, by the crops ſtanding in rows. I have ſeen dreadful miſchief done, in a dry and hot ſpring, by an unſeaſonable horſe-hoeing.

And here I ſhall take the liberty of introducing the opinion of the Duke of Bedford on this ſubject, in confirmation of at leaſt one part of my argument. His Grace, at the concluſion of his ſheep-ſhearing, ſaid, "that he was much inclined to prefer

the drill when well managed; but if there were not a determination to extirpate all weeds, and keep the drills absolutely clean, it were better not to attempt the culture. The land should certainly be clean before any trial should begin, then only annual weeds will be found, and the hoeing effective in destroying them." This, surely, is the language of impartiality, of experience, and discernment; and will command the attention of the practical man, whether he is a friend to the drill-husbandry or not. And if our numerous gentlemen experimentalists, and our agricultural boards and societies would, without any foppery, without any insult offered, either to the common farmer, or to common sense, condescend to convey to the public, in a tone similar to the above, a specification of the few real discoveries which they make, I am persuaded that the most plodding of our rack-renters would not only eagerly read the recital of, but readily adopt each discovery, to the utmost of their power. His Grace did not recommend, you see, the saving of seed, but what was of infinitely greater importance, and a necessary piece of instruction to almost every farmer in the kingdom, a rigid and absolute eradication of weeds, before seed is committed to the ground.

Your correspondent G. will not be displeased, when I take upon me to assure him, that his extreme apprehensions respecting a supply of live stock will soon become groundless, for, all men of observation, who have lately visited our various cattle-breeding districts, agree, that they never before saw young stock of one, two, or three years old, so abundant. This, of course, will soon have a very perceptible influence on the price of both lean and fat cattle, and indeed, at present, it has considerable effect on the price of meat at Smithfield market, which, I am told, has of late experienced an unusual supply of fat heifers, of only three years old, which have been thought of greater value to be sent to market, for the butcher, than to be reserved for the next year's dairy. I observe, with pleasure, that many of the large farmers in different parts of the kingdom, who use oxen for the plough, have been induced, by the late enormous prices of cattle, to breed for themselves, and have purchased, of the Herefordshire stock, cows and a bull each, or a bull to serve two or three neighbours, for this purpose.

There is another assertion in the body of your correspondent's letter as extraordinary as any of those that precede or follow it. It is this, that "Mr. Close, and many other intelligent cultivators, have proved the practicability of feeding, both winter and summer, *more* than four times the quantity of cattle usually kept by the common farmer." It appeared in one of your Magazines a few months ago, that a common farmer near Bibury, in Gloucestershire, kept forty head of Welch cattle on his oat and

barley ſtraw only, cut into chaff, through the courſe of a whole winter: now will G. or any of his intelligent cultivators venture to affirm, that he could have kept more than four times that quantity of cattle, by the ſame cheap, ſimple means? Or will any one, in his ſenſes, believe him, if he ſhould be daring enough to make ſuch an affirmation? I firmly believe, that if there ever did occur an inſtance, in which the gentleman cultivator has rendered either ſtock or land *more* productive than the common farmer has done, that it was entirely owing to his having uſed means which were totally out of the reach of the common farmer. I have not leiſure, at preſent, to purſue my defence of the common farmer.

I remain, yours,

PRACTICUS.

A PROPOSAL OF A SYSTEM OF PUBLIC MEASURES, FOR THE PERPETUAL PREVENTION OF SCARCITY, AND EXORBITANT DEARTH OF CORN, AND OTHER PROVISIONS.

To the Right Honourable HENRY ADDINGTON, *Firſt Lord of the Treaſury, &c.*

SIR,

YOU may be, at this moment, regarded as one of the moſt fortunate Stateſmen that ever adminiſtered the affairs of a great empire. Called to the leading office in the Britiſh government, at a time when new difficulties ſeemed ſtill riſing upon us, and when our energies of offence and defence were ſuppoſed to have been overſtrained, almoſt to their diſſolution; you have charmed away thoſe difficulties by temperate wiſdom, and have ſeen thoſe energies invigorated with tenfold ſtrength. Famine had almoſt maddened the people to inſurrection; and Providence calmed their murmurs with rich abundance. Our allies in the war, were forcibly dragged from our ſide; and a new naval confederacy was added to the hoſt of our foes: that confederacy has been broken by our arms, and conciliated by your moderation. The flower of our army was embarked on a perilous expedition, to a diſtant region, againſt enemies, valiant, numerous, diſciplined, and entrenched, as it were, in a poſition ſeemingly inacceſſible: that expedition you have ſeen to terminate in victory the moſt glorious, in conqueſt the moſt complete, in an attainment of its object, accompanied with the ſmalleſt expenditure and loſs, which can be imagined to have been, in ſuch circumſtances, poſſible. The enemy threatened a deſcent upon our coaſts: we have ſeen them moſt diſgracefully reſtrained, by one univerſal, unremitted blockade of their own, even from one extremity to the other. It was feared, leſt the French, delivered from the war on the Continent, and at leiſure to turn their efforts to the

affairs of the ſea, ſhould quickly weather, with the power of deſtruction, all our boaſted naval ſtrength: but, no year, ſince the commencement of the war, has ſeen the French more truly contemptible, at ſea, nor the Britiſh navy more irreſiſtibly triumphant. We had deſpaired of the attainment of the objects of the war, of the reſtoration, ere the powers of the empire ſhould be utterly ruined: you, and your fellows in adminiſtration, have, under the auſpices of the beſt of kings, given a PEACE to your country, which unites every wiſh,—calms every fear,—ſecures to us, *in ſubſtance*, every end that we ſought in the war, and that continues ſtill deſirable,—confirms our national vigour,—renews our reſources,—and opens, towards the future, a boundleſs proſpect of growing proſperity, and riſing public happineſs. our perſonal good fortune, as a man and a miniſter, has, during the ſame time, kept pace with that of the public. An awful event threatened to diſſolve your adminiſtration, ere its activity had commenced: a gracious Providence bleſſed the nation's prayers; and the hours of uncertainty were ſoon at an end. You entered into office with the reputation rather of virtue, than of talents equal to its functions: your abilities have been already, in the eſtimation of your country, proved equal to your virtues; and both, not inferior to your fortune. When you came into office, it was believed that none but a man of dazzling, overpowering eloquence was fit to do the duties of the king's principal ſervant in the Houſe of Commons: in your favour, it is now acknowledged, that the miniſter who has *ſatis eloquentiæ* may often have *ſapientiæ parum*, that the meek voice of moderation and wiſdom is, for parliamentary uſes, often far preferable to the loftieſt and moſt perſevering oſtentation of eloquence. It was dreaded by your friends, it was inſolently foretold, by thoſe in adverſe intereſts, that a miniſtry, ſuch as that in which you lead, muſt quickly be diſſolved, or thrown aſide, as uſeleſs. It is every day ſtronger in union, in knowledge, vigour, and beneficence, in the general and ardent confidence of your country. The *curſe*, if curſe it be, of being *ſpoken well of by all men*, ſurely never fell ſo heavily on the head of any former Britiſh miniſter, as it has fallen on that of Mr. ADDINGTON. Of all this, what ſhall I ſay? Leſs is not, in reaſon, to be ſaid, than was on a famous occaſion, uttered by Cicero,—*neminem unquam tam impudentem fuiſſe, qui a diis immortalibus, tot et tantas res, tacitus auderet ſperare, quot et quantas dii immortales ad— detulerunt!*

But, it is the fate of high talents, and eminent ſucceſſes, ever to raiſe expectation to a height that beggars all performance. Much more than, at the firſt, will be now demanded of you, Sir, and your colleagues in office. It will be ſaid; that, in ſome things, you would only march on in the path of your

predeceſſors; that, in others, you had, obviouſly, but to follow a plan of conduct directly oppoſite to theirs; that many of the events which have illuſtrated your adminiſtration, were prepared by the meaſures of thoſe to whoſe duties you ſucceeded.

PEACE, it will be ſaid, was eaſily negociated by miniſters who knew no arts to obtain it, but thoſe of ceſſion and humiliation. But, to give a proper turn to the conduct of government, at a time when the energies of the nation, are to be withdrawn from war, and reſtored to pacific exertion,—is the grand taſk to make trial of a miniſter's talents. To diſcern how the Executive Government muſt now act, ſo as to preſerve its vigour, and to accommodate all the functions of the crown, whether executive or legiſlative, to the ſtate of manners, induſtry, public opinion, and eſpecially to the improvement of public œconomy, throughout the empire.

Theſe are miniſterial duties, which genius alone can diſcharge, and of which, the happy exerciſe will, beyond contradiction, prove the miniſter to be a man of genius.

If he be not *the firſt to propoſe* in Parliament, every *grand, ſeaſonable, ſalutary act of legiſlation*; and if he ſhall, at any time betray the dignity of the crown, by propoſing legiſlative meaſures, which are pragmatical, trivial, ill-concerted, founded upon vulgar errors, or partial views; in either of theſe caſes, he cannot fail to become ſpeedily contemptible in the eyes of his country; and the more remarkably ſo, for having been once popular and fortunate, to a degree that excited and juſtified every expectation.

By the nature of the Britiſh Conſtitution, the *initiative duties* in the legiſlature remain, in a conſiderable degree, with thoſe of his Majeſty's ſervants, who have ſeats in the two Houſes of Parliament. And, unleſs thoſe duties be moſt ably and vigilantly diſcharged, the juſt and neceſſary influence of the crown muſt ſoon be fatally diminiſhed.

To perform merely the ordinary taſks of moving for the *ſupplies*, ſuggeſting the *ways and means*, rallying the friends of government againſt any pragmatical attempt of oppoſition,—were little. There is a part ſuperior to pacing in the mere hackneyed round of common buſineſs, yet not launching out into any projections, or unſeaſonable innovations, which the efficient miniſter in the Houſe of Commons ought ever to act. He muſt diſplay the talents of a great legiſlator, or he is utterly unfit for his place. The want of eloquence may be pardoned in him; but not the want of exalted legiſlative wiſdom.

He is not, in his propoſals of new meaſures of legiſlation, to outrun the career of general neceſſity, and of public opinion; but he muſt be even the firſt to diſcern, and provide for, that

neceſſity; and he ſhould make it ſeem as if he created that opinion, while he only advances by its light.—Beſides, if there were even none of all theſe reaſons, to engage a miniſter like you to ſtep for a moment out of the beaten round of Exchequer-buſineſs in the Houſe of Commons; yet, is it not good, think you, as Swift ſlyly ſuggeſted, to throw out, now and then, a *tub to the whale?*

Theſe conſiderations, Sir, may be here but aukwardly ſtated, but, it is not to my mind excluſively that they have preſented themſelves. I have heard them at different times, from men confeſſedly of the firſt abilities in this country. They are approved by the practice of every great miniſter of whoſe talents the Britiſh Empire has had the beneficial uſe. And, I will not, for a moment, allow myſelf illiberally to imagine that they can be rejected by a manly and candid intellect ſuch as yours.

I might go farther, Sir, and with confidence affirm, that now, if ever, is the time when, upon the full reſtitution of PEACE, many great objects of public economy muſt demand wiſe and ſpeedy legiſlative proviſion. Britain is now to ſtand in relation to France, in a ſituation which there is the moſt urgent neceſſity for her to ſtrengthen and improve; but which is not to be ſtrengthened and improved otherwiſe than by expedients which ſhall invigorate the induſtry, the virtue, the ſocial union, the civil happineſs, the whole mental and corporeal energies of her people, and ſhall, eſpecially, enliven and confirm their attachment to the government and conſtitution under which they live. We depend, as a nation, on our power to furniſh thoſe manufactures, and that produce, which form the principal conveniences of life, at a cheaper rate, and of better quality, than they can be ſupplied by others: and, is not this power almoſt at an end, ſince labour is no where ſo dear, nor is there in any other county ſuch a comparative ſcarcity as here, of the raw materials of thoſe which are our ſtaple manufactures? Do we not now tremble leſt the wealth, the arts, the moſt valuable population of Britain ſhould be, in conſequence of the peace, ſuddenly tranſferred to happier ſeats on the continent? Has not even one of the moſt fruitful of ſeaſons failed to give effectual relief to the poor?

Indeed, Sir, if there be any one object in our national economy, that, abóve all others, preſſes itſelf upon your particular attention; it is "the neceſſity to leave, no longer, any matter of reaſonable complaint reſpecting the DEARTH and SCARCITY of PROVISIONS to the induſtrious poor. This ought, in fact, to be the principal concern of every government. It was, for the purpoſe of procuring themſelves, by joint cares, an abundant ſupply of the neceſſaries of ſubſiſtance—at leaſt as much as from any other principle of reflexion and voluntary reſolution, that the

firſt families of mankind, inſtead of diſperſing ſingly over the earth, united into larger aſſociations. To procure the neceſſaries of ſubſiſtence, is the grand object of all our labours, and all our cares. When the materials of human wealth came to be impartially eſtimated, PROVISIONS, meat, drink, with the addition of the ſimpleſt cloathing, are found to be almoſt the only parts of it, which derive not their value merely from imagination. Abundance of the primary means of ſubſiſtence, is the only ſure foundation of the proſperity of any country, or of the ſtability of its government. Mankind have long awakened from that dream, in which they fancied, that a country, abounding in the precious metals, or flouriſhing merely in the arts, ſubſervient to the laſt refinements of taſte and luxury, was to be accounted truly rich.

The ſugar-plantations of the Weſt-India iſles, have proved infinitely more valuable than the gold and ſilver of Mexico, Peru, and the Braſils: the broad-cloth of England has proved a truer ſource of wealth, than the ſilk-manufactures of Italy. What revolution has been effected without the pretence of famine, under the tyranny of the old government, to aſſiſt the innovators in ſowing diſcontent? What government, eminently great in power, or policy, is there recorded in hiſtory, which did not make the care of ſupplying its ſubjects with proviſions almoſt its firſt, and moſt anxious concern? Has it not been found, that in every country, and in every ſtate of ſociety, the recurrence of a year of famine was ſtill to be dreaded, and, whenever it came, ſurpaſſed all other calamities.

There was a time, when, in England, grain was one of our principal articles of exportation: even then, however, bad harveſts, and ſeaſons of ſcarcity, occurred not ſeldomer: and when they did occur, were more miſerable in their effects, becauſe there was, in the country, leſs of accumulated wealth, to ſupply their wants by foreign purchaſe. As our riches, our trade, our manufactures, our population, have increaſed; ſeaſons of dearth and ſcarcity, have, from time to time, though I believe ſtill leſs and leſs, frequently recurred. No advantages are ſufficient to protect us againſt this terrible evil. We have repeatedly ſuffered under it, during the laſt twelve years: and upon each ſucceſſive occaſion of its recurrence, we think it ſtill more terrible than before.

There is, indeed, in the ſtate of a commercial and manufacturing country, ſomething which renders it *cæteris paribus*, more liable than any other to ſuffer by famine. "A ſmaller proportion of its inhabitants is employed in raiſing the firſt neceſſaries of ſubſiſtence than if they were all huſbandmen and ſhepherds, with the exception of thoſe few required to defend, to rule, and to teach the reſt." In a manufacturing and trading

country, there is not above *one-half, or one-third of the efficiently industrious* part of the community, left to raise provisions. — In a country, civilized, but not yet commercial or manufacturing, the *whole industry of the country* is employed in the production of the first necessaries of life.

If it were possible to frame a system of permanent measures, at the moment when particular exigencies irresistibly press upon us, I cannot doubt, but a PERMANENT PLAN to preserve Britain from suffering by the return of FAMINE, or even EXORBITANT DEARTH, would have, ere now, appeared among the statutes of British legislation, and would have been steadily acted upon in the ordinary administration of the government. The Corn-laws bear honourable testimony of the attention of Parliament to this most interesting object. The nation witnessed the anxiety of Parliament to relieve, by every feasible expedient, the distress of last year. Could the encouragement of importation,—could the numbering of the people —could the dealing out of ready relief to the poor,—could the proposal of schemes of parsimony,—or the most earnest exhortation to new diligence in agricultural toil—banish scarcity from the land, and make it the perpetual abode of plenty;—that effect had certainly been accomplished by the measures of last year. But no, this could not be. To soothe the fierce cry of hunger, —to restore to life and hope the heart that was fainting in despair,—to take away from the thief and the robber the pretence of invincible necessity,—to bid the rich win the affections of the poor, by giving all for their relief,—to solace the misery of to-day, without looking forward otherwise than with loose hopes on to-morrow? Those hours are past; we remain without a system of measures to prevent the return of equal misery. And, by the new rise in the prices of provisions, and by the fears which the prospect of a renewal of the distillery of spirits from grain has excited, it should seem as if even Providence itself had not the power to bless us with abundance and cheapness, unless we ourselves shall take other measures, in acting as subordinate agents, to give effect to its benignity.

It is to you, Sir, that your country looks for these measures. As Chancellor of the Exchequer, you will soon find that even the preparation of the budget does not fall more directly within your peculiar province in the administration. Let the scarcity and dearth of provisions be annually renewed; and what sums must not be drained from the Exchequer, in order to the general relief? And how shall the requisite taxes be paid, when the poor cannot, by their labour, find bread, and when the rich must impoverish themselves to supply the immediate wants of their starving brethren?

Without further apology, then, Sir, I ſhall proceed humbly to offer to your conſideration, a PROPOSAL *for a* SYSTEM *of* MEASURES *for the* PERPETUAL PREVENTION *of* SCARCITY *and* EXORBITANT DEARTH *of* CORN, *and other* PROVISIONS, in the Britiſh iſles. It is a propoſal which originates not in the ſolitary fancies of one poor individual, but comprehends the views of men to whom its immediate author has been proud to liſten with reverence, and whoſe wiſdom no perſon in this country need be aſhamed to adopt for himſelf.

But, in entering on the explanation of this PROPOSAL, it will be neceſſary to encounter and deſtroy a prejudice which is at preſent almoſt univerſally reſpected as the fundamental principle of commercial philoſophy. That prejudice, I almoſt tremble to ſay ſo, is the famous doctrine which repreſents the FREEDOM OF TRADE,—"its freedom from all ſuch reſtrictions as government and legiſlation might impoſe,"—to be the only ſure baſis of proſperity to a commercial and manufacturing people. This doctrine is coeval with the very origin of the ecumenical philoſophy. It is the grand theory of thoſe who, from their creation of that ſcience, received in France the denomination of ECONOMISTS. It was taught in England, with authority and ſucceſs, by their pupil ADAM SMITH, whoſe book on the WEALTH OF NATIONS, is moſt undeſervedly reſpected as a code of immortal truths. While the other principles of the ECONOMISTS have been happily rejected, while the national ſtrength was, to the utmoſt, exerted in a war to ſuppreſs them; this ſuppoſed principle, and this only, has been, in ſome ſort, incorporated into the commercial law of this country, and was, confeſſedly, the grand rule by which your predeceſſor was guided in every meaſure he propoſed with reference to the ſtate of trade. Its authority has emboldened commercial gambling; has even taught judges to pronounce with heſitation the ſentence of the law againſt foreſtallers; has made a Britiſh Legiſlature to doubt, whether it could cure the greateſt of known ills without conjuring up a greater. Nay, it is ſuch, that for me to dare to ſpeak or write againſt it, requires a literary and political courage, which by haſty thinkers will not fail to be branded as impudent temerity; and which, if I ſhall not demonſtrate beyond contradiction the truth of the poſition which I dare to maintain, will, though I ſhould even produce in its favour probabilities the moſt ſpecious, bring upon me, from many, the yet heavier charge of ſtupid fatuity or maniac preſumption and extravagance.

No man in his right ſenſes would, with ſuch a proſpect before him, declare haſtily againſt a favourite *principle* or *prejudice*, unleſs under the deepeſt conviction that it is *egregiouſly falſe*, and *dreadfully miſchievous*. But in truth, Sir, the doctrine, "that

trade, to riſe to its higheſt proſperity, muſt enjoy unlimited freedom from legiſlative reſtrictions," is eſſentially impregnated with both theſe qualities. How did it firſt ariſe? Where was it propagated? In what manner did it ſo ſucceſsfully make its way to univerſal favour? It had its origin in France, among a people who ſaw trade, manufactures, and productive labour of all ſorts, loaded with the moſt burthenſome impoſts by the government—ſubjected to reſtraints, which, to the care of making thoſe impoſts immediately productive, ſacrificed all regard for the welfare of thoſe by whom they were to be paid—oppreſſed thus miſerably, to relieve the proprietors of noble fieffs from contributing any thing but their direct and honourable perſonal ſervice to the immediate ſupport of the crown, and the general defence of the ſtate. Theſe evils were unhappy and miſchievous: but it was not from the attempt to frame regulations for trade, that they took their riſe. They had their origin in the tyranny of feodiſm, in the ignorance, and in the blind cupidity of thoſe by whom they were inflicted. There had been a time when it was by the right of conqueſt, by the power of lords over their ſlaves, that ſuch impoſts were laid upon the labouring peaſant, the manufacturing artiſan, and the merchant. It was in the impotence of tyranny, not in any natural miſchievouſneſs of commercial reſtriction however well intended, that all the evil began. As law gathered ſtrength to reſiſt violence, as induſtry became more enlightened and more ſtrictly aſſiduous, as the ſovereign and his nobles in a military monarchy learned more and more to diſcern their own true intereſts; the evils of arbitrary rapine and capricious reſtriction, were in France ſtill more and more mitigated. Deſpotiſm, ignorant as it is imperious, knows not to remedy one evil of one impotent act of power but by ſome other; and reſtriction was hence multiplied upon reſtriction, one ſtill with vain deſign to amend the miſchief ſpringing from a former. At the time when the *economiſtes* aroſe, the government began to ſee, with juſter diſcernment, how intimately the intereſts of induſtry and traffic were connected with the glory and political ſtrength of the ſtate. The *economiſtes* were weak *enragés*. They puſhed practical truth to the wildneſs of vain hypotheſis, in which fair induction from a due analyſis of facts was utterly forgotten. A Scottiſh philoſopher was charmed with the viſion; and introduced it to Britiſh admiration, juſt as our milliners perſuaded our ladies of faſhion to aſſume thoſe faſhions of dreſs which were adopted by the faults and caprice of a Pompadour or a Barry.

(*To be continued.*)

THE MANNER OF MAKING SALT, OF SEA-SAND, IN LANCASHIRE.

IN the ſummer time, in dry weather, they ſkim or pare off the upper part of the ſand in the flats and waſhes, that are covered at full ſea, and bare when the tide is out, and lay it up on great heaps.

Of this ſand they take and put in troughs, bored with holes at the bottom, and thereon pour water, as laundreſſes do upon aſhes, to make a *lixivium*; which water, draining through the ſand, carries the ſalt therein contained down with it into veſſels, placed underneath to receive it. So long as this liquor is ſtrong enough to bear an egg, they pour on more water; ſo ſoon as the egg begins to ſink, they caſt the ſand out of the troughs, and put new in.

This water, thus impregnated with ſalt, they boil in leaden pans, wherein, the water evaporating, the ſalt remains behind.

There is alſo, at Newcaſtle, Preſton Pans, in Scotland, Whitehaven, in Cumberland, and elſewere, great plenty of ſalt made of ſea-water, by boiling and evaporating, in like manner, wherein they make uſe of ox's blood.

For the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

The three following articles were furniſhed to the Society of Agriculture, in Mancheſter, by Mr. Charles Taylor, Secretary to the Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, in London.

As the Agricultural Society of Mancheſter have not publiſhed any Volumes of Tranſactions, the Editor hopes the communication will be found ſerviceable to his Correſpondents.

No. I. METHOD OF ASCERTAINING THE QUALITIES OF MARL, LIME-STONES, OR QUICK-LIME, FOR THE PURPOSES OF AGRICULTURE.

THE marl or ſtone being dried, and reduced to powder, put half an ounce thereof into a half-pint glaſs, pouring thereto clear water until the glaſs is half full; gradually add thereto a ſmall quantity of muriatic acid, commonly called ſpirits of ſalt, ſtir the mixture well together, and when the effervescence or fermentation ſubſides, add a little more muriatic acid; continue the operation whilſt any of the earthy matter appears to diſſolve, and until the liquor appears ſenſibly acid to the taſte, after being well ſtirred and allowed to ſtand for half an hour.

The mixture having ſubſided, if the liquor above it is colourleſs, that marl or lime-ſtone, is the beſt, which leaves the leaſt in quantity of ſediment or depoſit at the bottom of the glaſs.

The above experiment is ſufficient to determine which of the ſamples tried is moſt proper for the uſes of agriculture, where pure and calcareous earth or lime, is wanted. This earth ſo

uſeful in agriculture, will be entirely diſſolved, but clay or ſand will not be ſenſibly acted upon by the acid.

Where great accuracy is required in determining the experiment, take a ſoft ſpungy paper of which you know exactly the weight, lay it in an earthen cullender, and pour the ſaturated mixture of earth and acid upon it, let all the liquor filtre through, then pour a little clear water upon the earthy matter remaining on the filtre, and when that water hath alſo filtred through, dry the paper and earthy matter upon it remaining undiſſolved; on weighing them you will know from the deficiency in the original weight, what portion of the marl, or lime, hath been diſſolved in the acid.

To make it evident to the ſight what quantity of earthy matter is diſſolved, add gradually to the liquor above-mentioned which hath been filtered through the paper, a clear ſolution of pearl-aſhes, or aſhes of burnt wood: it will occaſion the lime or calcareous earth which it contains to precipitate or fall to the bottom of the veſſel. Dry this precipitate, and weigh it.

N. B. Be careful not to make uſe of any metallic veſſels or implements to contain or to ſtir the liquors.

No. II. THE DESCRIPTION, CULTURE, AND USES OF WELD, DYER'S WEED, OR RESEDA LUTEOLA OF LINNÆUS

THE root is long, white, divided into ſeveral parts, and furniſhed with many fibres,

The firſt leaves riſe in a large and beautiful tuft, the outer ones are long and narrow, and the others ſhorter all the way to the centre; they are ſmooth on the edges, and of a bright dark green.

The ſtalks are upright, ſlender, not much branched, and about three feet high.

The flowers are ſmall and yellowiſh; they ſtand in a long ſpike at the top of the ſtalk.

The ſeed-veſſels are nearly globular berries, of a greeniſh yellow, terminated by three points; the ſeeds ſmall, extremely numerous, and inclining to a brown colour.

OF THE SOIL PROPER FOR WELD.

This plant may be cultivated to advantage on dry, ſandy, or gravelly land, or ſuch as will not anſwer other uſes; even heath-land that lies dry will bear it. The beſt ground to yield large crops of it, is that where the ſoil conſiſts only of ſand and a black mould. Weld raiſed on rich ground is apt to be woody, and too full of ſtalks; that which grows in ſandy places is of a ſuperior quality, but the produce not ſo great. The light ſandy ſoils and heaths in Cheſhire ſeem very well adapted for it. It grows without cultivation on ſome of the ſandy lands in this county, about a mile from the ſea. The only ſoil which appears not ſuitable for it, is ſtrong clay or wet land.

METHOD OF CULTIVATION.

In Norfolk and Suffolk, the land being ſown with barley under furrow, in the beginning of May it is ſowed broad-caſt in the ſame manner as clover, with rather more than half a peck of weld-ſeed per ſtatute acre, harrowed and finiſhed by rolling; the barley becoming ripe, is mowed; the weld-plants remain during the winter, and are plucked for uſe at the beginning of July following, and the land ſown with turnips after pulling the weld. The produce of the weld per acre is uſually from ten to ſixteen hundred weight. It is frequently the cuſtom there to ſow clover mixed with the weld-ſeed upon the barley, and when the Barley is mown, to turn cattle to feed amongſt the clover and weld till neceſſary to ſpare the clover for mowing, and when the weld is ripe to draw it, and at the ſame time to cut the clover for hay, the mower immediatly following the pullers.

In Yorkſhire both the above methods are purſued; the weld being ſown in May upon wheat, barley, or oats, or the land ſown about the 25th of July with clover and weld only.

They ſuppoſe the beſt method for a good crop of weld in Yorkſhire, is to ſow the weld broadcaſt upon a fallow about the 25th of July, ſix or eight quarts to a ſtatute acre, and after the weld is gathered the enſuing year, to lime the land, and plough it for wheat immediately.

In Eſſex it has been found very advatageous to grow weld on poor land, about five or ſix miles diſtant from the ſea. The land was twice ploughed, and harrowed very even, and was ſowed with a mixture of one gallon of weld-ſeed and half a buſhel of dampiſh red ſea-ſand, for each ſtatute acre of land.

The ſand being damp, united with the ſeed, and contributed to ſow the ſeed more evenly, and perhaps aſſiſted as a manure to the land. The ſeed was ſown the ſecond week in Auguſt, and the plants were ripe and plucked the Midſummer following.

In the Northern parts of France, where great quantities have been grown, not only for the uſe of their manufactures, but alſo for exportation to Holland and England, and where the weather is nearly as cold and variable as in this kingdom, they cultivate weld with great ſucceſs, by ſowing it in July betwixt the rows of kidney-beans which are then in flower, drawing a ſmall thorn-buſh over the ſeed to cover it: the kidney-beans ripen and are gathered, the weld plants ſpring up, are hoed about Michaelmas, and thus left during the winter. In the ſpring, when the froſts are over, the plants are hoed afreſh, they ripen and are pulled about Midſummer; the land is immediately ſown with turnips, which they gather in time to allow them to plough the land, and ſow it with barley or rye in the ſpring.

They ſometimes ſow weld-ſeed immediately after a crop of peas. In this caſe, they plow and harrow the land, ſowing the weld-ſeed as equally as poſſible in drills or rows; they hoe the

plants at Michaelmas and in the Spring, gather the weld at Midſummer, and ſow the land with wheat in October, without finding it neceſſary to manure it.

I have made conſiderable trials of moſt of the methods above noticed, and am of opinion it will anſwer beſt for the culture of weld, to ſow it in rows about eight inches aſunder, and without any other ſeed mixed therewith. Where the quality of the ſeed cannot be depended upon, it may be neceſſary to ſow ten or twelve quarts of ſeed on a ſtatute acre.

If this method is purſued, and the land kept tolerably clear from weeds by hoeing, it will, after the weld is plucked, be in excellent condition for ſucceeding crops of other vegetables.

OF PLUCKING AND PREPARING WELD FOR USE.

When the ſtalks of the weld become yellowiſh, the ſeed veſſels at the bottom of the ſpike grow hard, and there are only a few flowers towards the top of the main ſtalk of the plant (which uſually happens in the July of the ſucceeding year after it is ſown) the weld is ready to be pulled, and may be drawn with greater eaſe if the earth hath been moiſtened the day before by a little rain.

The cautions neceſſary for the perſons who pull it are, to take hold near the root of the plant, to draw up the root with the plant, and to keep the plant as upright as poſſible, to prevent the loſs of the ſeeds.

When as many of the plants are collected as can eaſily be graſped in the hand, they are to be bound together ſlightly by a ſtalk of one of the plants, and laid gently on the ground; three of theſe ſmall bunches may then be ſet together to ſupport each other triangularly, with the roots reſting on the ground. The influence of the ſun and air is thus admitted, and when the plants are dry, which may be known from the ſeeds inclining to ſhell, the criſpneſs of the leaves, and from the ſtalks turning of a lighter colour, they may be ſtacked in the barn as wheat: they ſweat there, and complete the ripening.

After remaining there ſix weeks or more, they may be tied together in bundles about 28 pounds each, and delivered to the dyers for uſe. The ſeeds which fall in forming the larger bundles may be preſerved for a future crop. The ſeed uſually preferred for ſowing is that of the preceding year.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON WELD.

THE ſlendereſt weld, and particularly if it inclines to a ruſſet colour, is accounted the beſt; that which is longer and of a dull green, is much leſs eſteemed.

The demand for it is certain and regular; the conſumption of it ſo great, that one Printing-houſe only, in Lancaſhire, uſes eighty tons in weight, and would employ double that quantity, if the price would admit it.

The dyers can uſe it in its green ſtate, freſh drawn, at any ſeaſon, only taking of the green plant four times the weight of what they would uſe dry, to compenſate for the moiſture in the plant. It is not ſo proper for the callico-printers to uſe green, the mucilage of the plant tinging with colour thoſe parts of the cloth which ſhould remain white. The plant grows luxuriantly. Its roots, branches, flowers and ſeeds are all ſold and uſed together, and the preſent price is high, on account of its yielding the moſt beautiful and permanent yellow dye for callicoes; the conſumption of the article at all the callico-print-works in the kingdom, at the dye-houſes, is beyond calculation, and will always inſure a conſiderable profit to the planter.

In ſhort, the cultivation of weld, is an object well worth the attention of every perſon in Great Britain, who hath concerns in its agriculture, or who wiſhes well to its commerce.

It is proper to obſerve that the great reaſon of the yellow and green colours upon printed callicoes waſhing out, is owing to other leſs efficacious yellow colouring matters being uſed by the printers, from the difficulty they have had to procure weld in ſufficient quantities.

When it is conſidered that the conſumers of this article have been frequently obliged to procure it from France and other parts of the continent, at a great expence, it is an additional inducement to the efforts of the planter.

No. III. A CHEAP AND EFFICACIOUS METHOD FOR DESTROYING RATS AND MICE.

IN or near the places frequented by theſe vermin, place upon a ſlate or tile one or two meat-ſpoonfuls of dry oatmeal; lay it thin, and preſs it flat, that you may more eaſily know what is taken away. The rats, if not interrupted, will come regularly to feed there; ſupply them thus with freſh oatmeal for two or three days, then to about ſix ſpoonfuls of dry oatmeal add three drops of oil of anniſeeds, and, having ſtirred the mixture well together, feed them with this for two or three days more; then for one day give them only half the quantity they have uſually eaten of this ſcented oatmeal, and on the following day place the following mixture:—

To four ounces of dry oatmeal, ſcented with ſix drops of oil of anniſeeds, add half an ounce of carbonated barytes, previouſly pounded very fine in a mortar, and ſifted through a little fine muſlin or cambrick: mix this intimately with the ſcented oatmeal, and lay this mixture of oatmeal and barytes upon the tile or ſlate as the oatmeal had been uſually placed, and allow the rats to eat it for twenty-four hours, without interruption.

A few hours after eating thereof, you will frequently ſee ome of them running about as if drunk, or paralytic, but even-

tually they generally all retire to their haunts and die. As rats are extremely ſagacious, it may be proper, where they have only eat a ſmall portion, to allow the mixture to remain forty-eight hours. It will be beſt to burn what is left after that time, as a freſh mixture may be prepared at a trifling expence, when wanted.

During the time in which the mixture of barytes is expoſed to the rats, it is neceſſary to keep ſhut the doors of the places where it is laid, to prevent the vermin from being diſturbed, or a poſſibility of accident to any other animal or perſon; for though it is not ſo extremely dangerous, if taken internally, as the preparations commonly employed for killing rats, and is even in ſome caſes uſed in medicine, yet it is fatal, if taken improperly, unleſs its effects are counteracted by emetics.

The oil of anniſeeds renders the mixture diſagreeable to dogs, and many other animals, but is, in ſmall quantities, alluring to rats.

The carbonated barytes may be procured in large quantities at the lead-mines belonging to Sir Frank Standiſh, Bart. at Anglezark, near Chorley: the proper ſort is taſteleſs, ſemi-tranſparent, and effervesces with acids: it is moderately hard and ſtriated. It is frequently called aerated barytes (terra ponderoſa aerata), and ſometimes, by the miners, ponderous ſpar.

Specimens of the proper ſort may be ſeen at the Publiſher's.

ON THE IMPORTANCE OF THE COAL-TRADE.

We introduced, ſome time ſince, to the knowledge of our readers, the Work from which the following valuable Extract is taken. The ſubject of which it treats is of the higheſt importance. It has not been treated with equal information and ability by any other writer. We are anxious to fix public attention more particularly upon it. We ſhould imagine that, when peace ſhall leave parliament more at leiſure to enter upon the diſcuſſions of political economy, the neceſſary regulations of the Coal-Trade, may be again there agitated. In the mean time, public opinion cannot be two much enlightened in regard to it,

THUS, Sir, it appears our rivals have a full conviction of the neceſſity of abundance of coal as a neceſſary of life and an inſtrument in manufactures. To counteract, upon fair and firm principles, the eſtabliſhment of mines and manufactures on the Continent is an object of the firſt magnitude. It is true manly virtue, the calm lights of mild philoſophy, and the amiable influences of pure and undefiled religion, inſpire the cultivated mind with ſentiments of extenſive benevolence. That the ſaint, the ſavage, or the ſage, of whatever country or nation, may not enjoy the neceſſaries and comforts of life in abundance, is a ſentiment *unworthy of the age we live in. God and nature declare they ſhall.* The particular mode of obtaining

them reſts with man; but ſo provident is the Great Firſt Cauſe, that the operation of caprice, prejudice, and indolence, are overruled by the pervading and powerful principles of ſelf-preſervation. *That the nations of Europe ſhould and will have abundance of fuel is evident, and that they will endeavour, according to their reſpective ſituations, poſſeſſions, and powers, to be independent of each other, and of Great Britain, for ſupplies of fuel and manufactured goods, is a circumſtance, on their part, equally natural, juſt, and ultimately probable.*

It will be incumbent on us, on the other hand, pregnant as our little iſland is with a ſuperabundance of mineral wealth—enriched with more productive mines than all Europe beſides—ſtored with almoſt every manufacture which the head can invent, and the hand execute, and invigorated by a commercial ſyſtem which has embraced a wide extent of market, and given to us the beneficial tendencies of abbreviation and diviſion of labour, which no nation in the world enjoys; under ſuch circumſtances, ſelf-preſervation, laudable ambition, and the love of our country, calls imperiouſly upon us to uſe every poſſible exertion to *maintain our well-earned ſuperiority in mining and manufactures*—a ſuperiority which has long been the admiration of foreigners, and which has, *for ſome time paſt, become an object of deep-rooted envy to ſome of the aſpiring nations around us.* Profeſſing an attachment to good government—placing our profeſſions on the ſolid baſis of virtue and independence, and reading, as we do, in every page of the great volume of the hiſtory of civilized nations, the maxim verified with regard *to ſtates*, which has been admitted unexceptionably when applied to individuals, that honeſty and moderation is the beſt policy, let us deteſt all ſyſtems which might lead us to detail damnation round the lands *either of ſavage tribes or civilized enemies.* Peace and good-will amongſt men is the grand and glorious circulating medium of human happineſs. Their enlivening influences are as neceſſary in the moral as the cheering rays of the ſun are to the vaſt chain of varied exiſtence in the natural world. The line of demarcation between juſtice and injuſtice, is not more ſtrongly drawn by the finger of God on the human heart, than the genuine principles of ſound policy have been unfolded to us in the volume of the hiſtory of nations. Nor is the all-powerful law of ſelf-preſervation more pervading than the irreſiſtible principles of national independence. Our acquirements in arts and manufactures are neceſſary *to the health and exiſtence of the body politic.* Finding foreign reſentments have given exiſtence to ſyſtems and combinations, directed againſt our independence, we are called upon to counteract their operation, not by adopting the narrow policy which leads to the deſtruction of our enemies, but a rational and invigorating ſyſtem of our own amelioration and progreſſive im-

provement. Purſuing and perſevering in ſuch a line of ſound and active policy, ſituated as this country is, how weak, prejudiced, and degraded muſt that mind be, who dreads the operation of any ſyſtem or combination, however formidable in its nature, or reſentful in its principle.

But ſhould the benefits of improved policy be ſported with—ſhould the relative ſituations of the Engliſh mechanic, miner, and manufacturer, with thoſe of foreigners be diſregarded—and ſhould the ingenuity and induſtry of the Engliſh artiſt and labourer be clogged and fettered by the *ill-directed accumulation of national burthens*; in ſuch a ſituation, obſtinately perverſe muſt the mind of that man be, who will not allow that we muſt ſoon *forfeit our well-earned ſuperiority in mines and manufactures, and, with it, our national conſequence and independence.*

It is the relative proportion of population to the demand for labour, and the prices of the neceſſaries of life, which fix the price of labour. In Ruſſia, Pruſſia, Germany, France and Italy, the demand for labourers has not been equal to the population. In England and Scotland the reverſe has long been the fact. Hence we find labour has been cheaper on the Continent than in Great Britain. The extraordinary demand for Britiſh manufactures has, within theſe twenty years, raiſed the price of labour in general *upwards of* 30 *per cent.*; whereas, on the Continent, the population having been regularly greater, with a few local exceptions, than the demand for labour, there has been little or no riſe in the wages of labour. The conſequence which many of our political writers have foretold, we have the misfortune to find in a great degree eſtabliſhed by the evidence before you in the Copper Report, and which I have already inſerted. We have loſt ſeveral of the foreign markets, and, in ſeveral branches, manufactured goods are made as cheap on the Continent as in England. "If all other circumſtances were equal," ſays the celebrated Mr. Bolton, "we might defy rivalry on the Continent; but with *labour cheaper, and the raw material cheaper*, there is no doubt but in time they might rival us."

Among many commercial benefits which will probably follow the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, that of having a conſiderable ſupply of labourers to England will not be the leaſt. But ſhould the Britiſh manufacturer and miner be induced to remove his capital to Ireland, to have labour and proviſions at moderate prices, meaſures of policy, which are now viewed with indifference, will aſſume the imperious form of urgent neceſſity.

Comparative views of the preſent and former population of England have miſled many intelligent political writers. Finding the actual population increaſed, and increaſing, a haſty opinion has been embraced, that there are abundance of labourers. Had it been recollected, that the increaſed demand for labour, during

a period of these twenty years, has exceeded the increased population of any country with which history or experience make us acquainted, there could not have been two opinions on the subject. So extremely disproportioned has been the demand for labourers, and our actual population, that we find, with a few local exceptions, in all the manufacturing towns and districts, nearly one-fifth of the labourer's time is lost in idleness and drunkenness, in consequence of the high price of labour, or, in other words, owing to a *scarcity of labourers*.

The abbreviation of labour has counteracted, in a great degree, the threatened destruction of the interests of mining and of manufactures. Much benefit may and, I hope, will still be derived, from that source; and could the proportion of labour lost by idleness and dissipation be made productive, we might fairly calculate upon an addition, including the probable advantages of abbreviation from labour, of one-fourth of the whole labour of the kingdom. A circumstance of the first magnitude to the interest of this country.

THE FOOT-ROT IN SHEEP.

To the Editor of the Commercial and Agricultural Magazine.

SIR,

I BREED and feed some hundreds of sheep every year, and this summer-season my sheep have the FOOT-ROT, or by some called the *halt*, which has reduced them so much, that it is full 150l. loss to me at least. I have tried a great many things prescribed, and find none to cure it. I should esteem it a favour, if any of your correspondents can recommend any thing, or way, that will perfect a cure. I am, Sir, your humble servant,

A WARWICKSHIRE GRAZIER.

Nov. 10, 1801.

ENUMERATION OF PATENTS LATELY ENROLLED.

1801. *Aug.* 20. BENJAMIN Hawkins, late of Saratoga, in the State of New York, in the United States of America, but now of Red Lion-street, Clerkenwell, Middlesex, Merchant; for a new floating-mill or engine, to be worked by tides and currents of water, for grinding all sorts of grain, and various other purposes.

——— 20. Lionel Lukin, the younger, of Conham-house, Gloucestershire, Esquire; for a new method of giving power to machinery by the application of air and water.

——— 20. William Parkes, of Newington-Butts, Surry, Professor of Philosophy; for a perpetual power, that will give motion to all kinds of machinery, mills, engines, carriages, ships of war, mercantile, and other vessels, lighters, craft, and boats of every description.

CRITICAL CATALOGUE.

I. *General View of the Agriculture of the North-Riding of Yorkſhire, drawn up for the Conſideration of the Board of Agriculture, and internal Improvement: by* JOHN TUKE, *Land Surveyor.* Nichol. 1801. 356 *pages.*

THE North-Riding of the county of York is ſituated between 53° 57′ and 54° 38′ north latitude, and between 0° 19′ and 2° 23′ weſt longitude of Greenwich. It is bounded by the county of Durham on the north, the German ocean on the north-eaſt, the Eaſt-Riding on the ſouth-eaſt, the Ainſty of York and the Weſt-Riding on the ſouth, and the county of Weſtmoreland on the weſt.

It is divided into ſix diſtricts: firſt the coaſt, the ſecond Cleveland; third the vale of York, with the Howardian hills, &c. fourth Ryedale, with the eaſt and weſt marſhes, the fifth the eaſtern moorlands, the ſixth the weſtern.

The climate of the coaſt, from its ſituation, is cold and bleak; but in ſome of the vales, which are ſheltered both from the weſterly winds and the ſea air, corn ripens well. Cleveland, having the eaſtern moorlands, to the ſouth of it, the ſea to the north and eaſt, and lying open on the weſt to the winds from an extenſive, uncultivated, and mountainous country, is, of courſe, ſubject to a chill and ſevere climate. The extenſive vale of York has the moorlands on each ſide, except where it opens into Cleveland, or is ſeparated from Ryedale by a range of hills called the Howardian hills. The climate of the Howardian hills, particularly of the weſt end, from its vicinity to the eaſtern moorlands, and greater elevation, is cold, and the corn rather late in ripening, but that of the eaſtern end much more mild. The general character of the climate of the North-Riding, like that of all the counties bordering upon the German ocean, is that of dryneſs throughout the year, and of peculiar coldneſs during the firſt half of it, when the prevailing winds are from the eaſtern points of the compaſs. They ſet in with the regularity of a monſoon, about the end of February or beginning of March, and continue, with almoſt uninterrupted drought, and uniform ſeverity, till the middle of May, and frequently later. About that time the weſt winds begin to blow, but do not entirely prevail till the month of July.

The ſoils of the coaſt are a browniſh clay, a clayey loam, a loam upon a ſtrong clay, a lightiſh ſoil upon an alum ſhale, a loam upon a freeſtone, or, as it is here called, a gritſtone, and in ſome vallies, weſt of Whitby, a deep rich loam. The ſoil of Cleveland is generally a fertile clay, with ſome clayey loam, and fine red ſandy ſoil. The level land near the river Tee conſiſts in general of a rich gravelly loam. The ſoil of the marſhes is chiefly clay, with ſome ſandy loam, gravel and peat. The eaſtern moorlands, a ſpace of about thirty miles by fifteen, is penetrated by a number of fertile, cultivated dales. Moſt of the dales partake of the following ſoils: a bleak, moory earth upon a clay, a ſandy ſoil, in ſome places intermixed with large gritſtones, upon a ſhale, and a light loam upon a grit rock. In the weſtern moorlands, many of the mountains are covered with a fine,

ſweet graſs; others with extenſive tracts of bent; ſome produce ling, but it is moſtly mixed with a large portion of graſs, bent, or ruſhes. The ſoil in the lower parts of theſe moors is a fine loam, in many places rather ſtiff, upon a hard, blue, limeſtone.

The coaſt of Cleveland abound, in all their hills, with inexhauſtible beds of alum ſtrata; and works for procuring this ſalt are carried on in ſeveral parts of them, and are ſuppoſed to be the only works of the kind in this iſland; pyrites is found in conſiderable quantities in all the alum mines, and copperas was formerly extracted from it in moſt of the alum works. In the vale of York, a bed of coal has lately been found between Eaſingwold and Thirſk, of ſufficient thickneſs to admit of the erection of a fire engine; the coals are, however, like all the reſt in this Riding, heavy, ſulphureous, and burning to white aſhes. Veins of copper are found in ſeveral parts of the weſtern moorlands. A vein of very rich copper ore was worked to great profit for ſome years at Middleton. It was but given up about forty years ſince, on ſome ſuppoſed diſagreement among the proprietors. Upon the weſtern moorlands are many lead mines, ſome of which have been, and others ſtill are, very valuable. Coals are alſo got in various parts of them, but not of a better quality than thoſe found in other parts of the Riding. Marble of various kinds, ſome much reſembling, and others ſuperior, in cloſeneſs of texture, and diſtinctneſs of colours, to that which is worked in Derbyſhire, is found in many parts of the calcareous hills of the weſtern moorland, but hitherto turned to no other purpoſes than thoſe of making lime, or repairing roads. Marl is found, but little uſed in this Riding. The rivers and ſtreams are very numerous, in conſequence of ſo large a part of it conſiſting of a very elevated country, penetrated in almoſt every direction by vallies, each of which poſſeſſes its ſtream. The principal of theſe is—firſt, the Uſe, which, riſing in Weſtmoreland, flows through the North-Riding, and divides it from the weſt, and afterwards receiving the name of Ouſe, at length becomes part of the Humber. Next is the Tees, which dividing the North-Riding from Durham, falls into the Ocean. Third is the Derwent, making alſo a part of the Humber: the other ſtreams are inconſiderable.

Of the property of this Riding, about one third is poſſeſſed by yeomanry, the remainder of it is divided into eſtates of various ſizes, from 500l. to 17 or 18,000l. per annum; to which laſt amount a ſingle inſtance of an eſtate occurs. Fortunately for the diſtrict under ſurvey, the greateſt part of the gentlemen of property reſide conſtantly on their eſtates, and the reſt during the greateſt part of the year; many of theſe occupy conſiderable tracts of land, and manage it ſkilfully.

The tenure of the country is freehold, with ſome inſtances of copyhold property, and ſome of leaſehold, for 1000 or other long term of years, and ſome inſtances of leaſes for three lives, renewable at the fall of every life; theſe laſt are chiefly held under the church, or other corporate bodies.

The houſes are, on the whole, inadequate to the farms; they are too often ſituated in villages, the conſequence of which is, a general diſperſion of the farm throughout the townſhip, which cauſes much

greater expence and labour than when the houſes are centrically ſituated on the land which is occupied with them.

The practice of thatching the roofs of buildings, is far from being œconomical, this kind of covering being frequently in want of repair, and often not attended to in due time, cauſes other parts of the building to be injured. The cottages of the labourers are generally ſmall and low, conſiſting only of one room, and, very rarely, of two, both of which are level with the ground, and ſometimes a ſtep within it. This ſituation renders them damp, and frequently very unwholeſome. Of the houſes and cottages there are ſeveral very accurate drafts.

The farms are generally not very large, but of a ſufficient ſize to admit ſkill, employ capital, and ſtimulate induſtry.

For conduct and character the farmers deſervedly rank high among their fellows in any part of England; they are generally ſober, induſtrious and orderly; moſt of the younger part of them have enjoyed a proper education, and give a ſuitable one to their children, who, of both ſexes, are brought up in habits of induſtry and œconomy. Here the author makes a very juſt, and, indeed, morally deep obſervation: "This country is purely agricultural, and the inhabitants ſolely cultivators of the earth, are endowed with the virtues of their profeſſion, uncontaminated by the neighbourhood or vices of manufactories."

Rent is generally paid in money. The average rent of farms, of pretty good ſoil, is from 15s. to 12s. per acre. Tythes are moſt generally compounded in this Riding. The poor's rates are on the whole low, from the induſtry and ſobriety of our agricultural diſtrict.

In this Riding very few leaſes are granted, eſpecially by the owners of large eſtates, or by long eſtabliſhed families, the occupiers of the ſoil being what are uſually called tenants at will, holding their property by leaſe for a year. In general, the farmers in this country are apt to begin upon too ſmall a capital; they are deſirous of taking large farms, without poſſeſſing the means, a great error, which makes many a one poor upon a large farm, who might acquire property upon one that was ſmaller.

In the northern parts of the vale of York, few waggons are uſed; the reaſon aſſigned for which is, that the country is hilly; many uſe two, and others three-horſe carts, with three inch wheels; but moſt of the farmers have carts uſually long in the body, and with broad wheels, for the ſole purpoſe of carrying their hay and corn, and working upon the farms. The plough generally uſed throughout the North-Riding, is called the Dutch plough, a ſhort and light ſwing plough. It is on an excellent conſtruction; it performs its buſineſs well, and does not require great force. Ploughing is generally performed by two horſes abreaſt, driven by whip-ſtrings, held in the hands of the ploughman, except in the northern part of the vale of York, and in Cleveland, where it is common to plough with three horſes, two abreaſt and one before.

The common two-horſe harrow is uſed to cover the ſeed, but in many places (though not generally) heavier harrows, with longer teeth, drawn by four horſes, or a pair of oxen and two horſes, are

uſed to clear the land from quicks; each of them conſiſts of four bars (here called bulls) in each harrow, with ſix teeth in each bull.

In the northern part of the vale of York, a drag, on an excellent conſtruction, is uſed for clearing the land from quicks. In the beſt parts of this Riding, few open or common fields now remain, nearly the whole having long been encloſed; the moors and mountainous parts ſtill remain in their original ſtate. Whitethorn (provincially quick-wood) conſtitutes the moſt common fence throughout the Riding, and is planted for fences when about three years old; but in low and wet ſituations, crab makes the better fence, and is frequently uſed for the purpoſe. In the vale of York, one-third of the ground is in tillage, and two-thirds in graſs. This is the common proportion, but where there are extenſive open fields, and in ſome places, where the ſoil is light, the proportion of tillage is larger, and may amount to about one-half. On the weſtern end of the Howardian hills, and from thence to Thirſk, (being chiefly a dairy country) not more than one-fourth is in tillage: on the reſt of the Howardian hills, near one-half.

The rotation of crops is nearly the ſame as in other counties. To prevent the ſmut in wheat, the following mode appears peculiar: Brine, made of a ſufficient ſtrength to ſwim an egg; or, inſtead of that, ſtale urine has been generally uſed; in theſe the ſeed is put, and after being well ſtirred about, and the light grains that float to the ſurface, have been ſkimmed off, it is taken out and mixed with a little freſh ſlaked lime; this forms a coat on the ſurface of the grain, and by imbibing the moiſture, makes it immediately fit for ſowing; but this method is rapidly giving way to another, which is thought a more certain antidote to the diſorder: a ſolution of arſenic in water.

The practice of eating the wheat in ſpring with ſheep, is not general, though it is done by many, and thought to have a good effect, particularly when the crop is thin, which cauſes it to branch more than it otherwiſe would have done. The average produce of wheat is from three to four quarters per acre. Barley is not much raiſed in this county: the North-Riding is peculiarly favourable to oats. The turnip-land here is generally ſown with oats, as is graſs-land always when firſt ploughed out; and inſtances are not wanting, where the attention of the landlord or his ſteward is deficient, of tenants taking ſix or ſeven ſucceſſive crops of oats, all equally great in quantity, and good in quality, without any expence than once ploughing the land immediately before ſowing it, and ſtill without materially exhauſting the ground, ſuch is its extraordinary fertility, and ſo peculiarly is it adapted to the growth of this grain. Two crops in ſucceſſion are always taken, and three frequently.

The principal part of the graſs-land in the North-Riding conſiſts of old paſture and meadow, which is chiefly appropriated to the dairy. In moſt parts of this Riding the dairy is a principal object of the farmer's attention.

The farmers in general are very inattentive to their gardens, probably in conſequence of their uſing for culinary purpoſes, few vegetables except potatoes and turnips, which are the produce of their fields. The gardens of the labourers may frequently be ſeen better

cultivated than thoſe of the farmers, becauſe the labourer occupies no other land, and his garden is appropriated to the cultivation of potatoes, and other uſeful vegetables for his family.

The wood-lands are but ſmall in proportion to the extent of the county, but where there are plantations, they flouriſh extremely well. Woods under the beſt management practiſed in this county, are held to pay very well on any ſoil; in many inſtances, from 12s. to 15s. per acre, where the land, though capable of cultivation, would not be worth as much, if cultivated. The knowledge of adapting timber to its future purpoſes in ſhip-building, is peculiar to the woodmen of this part of England, and the application of it highly valuable to every one concerned in the timber, to the grower, the purchaſer, and the cuſtomer. The oak timber grown in great part of this Riding, though not large, is moſt excellent; produced, as it chiefly is, upon ſound, and often rocky ground, its growth is very ſlow, which renders it extremely hard and durable; and to the uſe of much of it the ſhip-builders of Whitby owe their riches, and the ſhips they build, their great celebrity.

As to manuring, lime is in general uſe, and, when the land has not been long in ploughing, is found to anſwer very well on all ſoils, but incomparably well upon land firſt pared and burnt. It is ſeldom laid upon graſs-land, except in comparts, and is applied to a great extent, and with peculiar advantage, on the rich arable lands of Ryedale, and with equal advantage, though leſs extenſively, on the graſs-lands. Comparts are much uſed in the northern part of the vale of York, and, in ſome degree, in almoſt every other part of the Riding: they are made of the cleanings of ditches, and ſometimes of the ſhovellings of roads, mixed with lime, and all thoroughly incorporated; though it is not a ſtrong manure, yet it is found to be very beneficial to graſs-land.

The breed of cattle throughout the North-Riding, is the ſhort horned, except towards the weſtern extremity, where ſome ſmall, long-horned cattle are to be met with; and alſo a mixed breed between the two; the natural conſequence of bordering on the Weſt-Riding and Weſtmoreland, the countries of the long-horned breed. In ſome parts of the North-Riding are produced the largeſt cattle in the kingdom. In the ſouthern part of the vale of York, breeding of cattle is not ſo much attended to as in the northern part, the object of cattle there being for the dairy, for the making of butter and old milk-cheeſe, and conſequently the milk alone is attended to. The fineſt cattle are thoſe called in that country the Tees-water, and in the ſouth Holderneſs.

The ſheep of the old ſtock of the northern part of the vale of York, and of Cleveland, generally called Tees-water ſheep, are very large, coarſe boned, ſlow feeders, and the wool dry and harſh, at three years old, but of late years they have been greatly improved.

Yorkſhire has long been famed for its breed of horſes, and particularly this Riding, in almoſt every part of which conſiderable numbers are ſtill bred; the prevailing ſpecies of which are thoſe adapted to the coach and ſaddle.

In the northern parts of the vale of York, the breed has got too ſlight in bone, for the uſe of the farmers, by the introduction of too

much of the racing blood; but the moſt valuable horſes for the ſaddle, and ſome coach-horſes, are there bred.

The turnpike roads, the author tells us, are in an improving ſtate. In the very northern part of Cleveland, the writer of this article knows that improvement, very lately, was very much wanted. From North Allerton to the Tees, the road, two years ago, was execrable.

The chief obſtacles to improvement are tythes, the want of a general encloſure bill; the want of leaſes; commencement of farming, without ſufficient capital; but of all theſe, the chief is tythes.

In reprobations of tythes, indeed, the detailed ſtatements of agricultural reporters, concur with the philoſophy of our great political œconomiſts; eſpecially Paley and Smith. "Agriculture (ſays Paley) is diſcouraged by every conſtitution of landed property, which lets in thoſe who have no concern in the improvement, to a participation of profit; but of all inſtitutions which are in this way adverſe to cultivation and improvement, none is ſo noxious as that of tythes; a claimant here enters into the produce, who contributed no expence whatſoever to the production." "Tythe, (ſays Smith) as it is frequently a very unequal tax upon rent, ſo it is always a great diſcouragement both to the improvements of the landlord, and to the cultivation of the farmer. The one cannot venture to make the moſt important, which are generally the moſt expenſive improvements; nor the other to raiſe the moſt valuable, which are generally, too, the moſt expenſive crops, when the church, which lays out no part of the expence, is to ſhare ſo largely in the profit."

The very favourable accounts preſented by the author, concerning the manners and character of the people in this agricultural diſtrict, agreeing with the reports of other agricultural diſtricts, affords ſtrong inducements to ſuch wiſe and beneficent law-givers, as would include public morals in the objects of their policy, to encourage and promote the preſent, tending to render the people the moſt virtuous and happy.

II. *Render's Tour concluded.*

Near Mentz is a diſtrict, on the eaſt bank of the Rhine, celebrated under the name of the Rhingaw, forming a very beautiful amphitheatre. On one of the ſurrounding hills, juſt above the middle of the Rhingaw, you meet with Johannis-berg, a ſmall town, where ſome of the beſt wines in all Germany are made, equal in quality to old hock.

In this diſtrict there is a feaſt of Bacchus celebrated with great ſolemnity, about the middle of October, when the vintage is finiſhed.

Coblentz is a very handſome city, and contains about ſixteen thouſand inhabitants, all of whom are of the Roman Catholic religion. The inhabitants are generally tall, and have agreeable features, with expreſſive countenances. Almoſt immediately above the city, the river Moſelle unites with the Rhine, and forms a kind of triangle, from which circumſtance it derives its name.

The ſtreets of Coblentz are in general regular, the pavemement tolerably good, and the city well lighted, during the winter. On the eaſtern bank of the Rhine, the elector has lately built a very elegant and ſumptuous palace. The country around Coblentz is in every reſpect very romantic. The hills on the right and left form an amphi-

theatre. The pleaſing meanders of the rivers Lahn and Moſelle which join the Rhine, have a delightful effect. In the front of the city you have a view of the oppoſite ſhore, and alſo of the flying-bridge that paſſes every hour three times acroſs the Rhine into the ſmall town of Hal, and preſents a very uncommon and pleaſing ſight. In the arſenal of Coblentz, there is a moſt curious cannon, called *Der Vogal Grif*; *i. e.* "the Bird called Griffin;" it is twenty feet long, about two feet diameter in the bow, and four feet in the breech. The cannon, (it is ſaid) when diſcharged with a ball of a hundred and ſixty pounds weight, will carry the length of Andernach, about twelve miles from thence.

During his ſtay at Coblentz, the touriſt took a very accurate and comprehenſive view of the various claſſes of farmers, and the effect of different degrees of riches in producing monopolies. In this part of the tour, there is a very pretty romantic ſtory of two faithful lovers, which we doubt not would give our female readers great delight. The hero is extremely handſome, tall, valliant, and accompliſhed; the heroine is propoi tionably beautiful, lovely and virtuous: both meet with the moſt trying hardſhips, which they undergo with extraordinary magnanimity. At laſt the lady dies; her conſtant lover, from tender regard for her memory, having out-lived her ſixteen years, during all this period, reſolutely abſtaining from converſe with women, and dies; and, (as the author adds, ſomewhat unneceſſary) without iſſue.

Farther down the Rhine is Cologne: this city has a truly magnificent appearance at *a mile's diſtance*. The throng of veſſels in the port, and the numerous ſteeples, which riſe in majeſtic grandeur, contribute very much to produce this effect; but all its beauty vaniſhes, as ſoon as the traveller ſets his foot within the city. The ſtreets and the inhabitants appear equally gloomy and dirty; even the barbariſm of their wit is peculiarly characteriſtic of the inhabitants. In no part of the empire is the language ſo corruptly ſpoken, for even to a high German it is perfectly diſguſting. Indeed the epiſcopal cities in Germany, being the ſeats of clerical idleneſs and indolence, are much inferior in beauty, and cleanlineſs, and accommodations, to thoſe which depend on the productive labours of agricultural and commercial induſtry.

The following we believe is not an exaggerated picture of a monaſtic city: One-third of the inhabitants conſiſts of eccleſiaſtics; the ſtreets are crowded with beggarly monks, and with a race whom they call abbés. They are rough, dirty, clothes beſmeared all over with ſnuff, who game for *blarſſarts* with the loweſt fellows in public alehouſes. *After having ſaid maſs in the morning*, they run of errands, *clean ſhoes*, and are porters and *pimps*, for the reſt of the day. Strangers may eaſily be introduced to ſome female nunneries, by means of their aſſiſtance. To facilitate the admiſſion of ſtrangers and theſe reverend conductors to the convents, the nuns pretend indiſpoſition, and the ſtrangers are received, as from true Chriſtian charity, the viſitors of the ſick. The traveller himſelf appears to have been very much impreſſed by the charms of one of the nuns, whoſe heart, by his own account, he ſeems to have conquered. About twenty pages are em-

ployed, deſcribing ſome, though probably not *all*, the particulars of an interview which the revered doctor enjoyed with her alone.

The touriſt deſcribes, with much vivacity and force, the empty and ſupercilious pride of German nobles. It may now however be preſumed, that General Moreau may have, in ſome degree, inſtructed them in the folly of pride, without genius or power.

From the haunts of clerical lazineſs, we gladly attend our author to the reſorts of productive labour and commercial induſtry. Bremen, Embden, and above all, Hamburgh, afford a moſt pleaſing contraſt to Mentz, Munſter and Cologne. In the three firſt, men live and flouriſh by their own ability and ſkill, inſtead of vegetating and exiſting, as in the laſt, by the labour of others.

Hamburgh is, without compariſon, the moſt flouriſhing and richeſt city in Germany; their greateſt buſineſs conſiſted formerly in commiſſion and carrying goods for other countries; but at preſent, the proper and ſolid trade of the inhabitants is riſen to the higheſt degree. Its principal manufactories are of cloth and ſugar. The proprietors of the firſt are divided into ſeveral companies, each of which has its appointed portion in the corporation, and all enjoy great privileges. The ſugar refining is, however, the moſt important; and for which Hamburgh has hithe to been diſtinguiſhed. The greateſt benefit of the merchants at Hamburgh ariſes from the ſpecie bank, erected in 1629. The foundation on which this bank reſts is the moſt ſimple that can be imagined; and its unlimited credit is a certain ſign at once of the richneſs of the ſtate, and of the juſt conceptions which prevail there, of every thing that has a relation to commerce. There exiſts neither paper nor any kind of coined money, but only a large quantity of ſilver, which is weighed out by the pound. Though Hanover be not a commercial country, yet the mildneſs of the government, under his Britannic Majeſty, affords to the people comfort and happineſs. In the whole Hanoverian dominions there reigns a ſpirit of liberty throughout, which a traveller ſeldom meets with in any other part of the German empire, except in ſome free imperial cities, as thoſe of Francfort on the Mayn, and Hamburgh.

The electorate army conſiſts of about 20,000 troops, which are the beſt paid and clothed of any in all Germany, and very well diſciplined, in particular the Hanoverian cavalry. In this electorate is the famous univerſity of Gottingen, the great ornament of Germany, one of the beſt and moſt flouriſhing ſeminaries in all Europe, was founded in the year 1734, by George II King of Great Britain, and conſecrated on the 17th of September, 1737, which memorable day is annually celebrated in a moſt ſplendid ſtyle. The number of ſtudents, from all parts of Europe, amount to nearly nine hundred, and the profeſſors, including the dancing, fencing, and maſters of foreign languages, are in number no leſs than ſixty-five. His Britannic Majeſty ſpares no expence whatever for raiſing this univerſity to the higheſt degree of perfection. The greateſt part of the profeſſors are men of moſt eminent learning, and thoſe who are acquainted with that univerſity, will not be able to refuſe them the utmoſt veneration for their abilities. Pruſſia and Auſtria, the traveller did not viſit. This account of theſe countries is therefore very general, and contains nothing but was well known before.

On the whole, this production combines amuſement and entertainment, with conſiderable information; and, in its exhibition of the different ſtate of circumſtances, and reſults of comfort and happineſs, ariſing from diſſimilar inſtitutions and purſuits, ever riſes to inſtruction.

III. EVELYN's *Silva and Terra*, (*Concluded from page* 197.)

The Alder is generally planted for coppice-wood, to be cut down, every ninth or tenth year for poles. To obtain a quantity of trees for this purpoſe, ſome ſuckers ſhould be taken out of the meadows where the Alder-trees grow. Theſe ſhould be planted on a poor pared piece of ground, and afterwards headed down for ſtocks, as the ſtocks will throw out many young branches for poles; they ought to be ſix feet aſunder. A leſs expenſive, but leſs eligible mode, is to plant truncheons, three feet long; theſe ſhould be ſet at the diſtance of three feet. After the truncheons are planted, the woods ſhould be kept down till the plants are out of their reach. This will ſtrengthen thoſe which are already the ſtrongeſt, and will enable them to ſhoot more vigorouſly for poles.

The Willow grows to a large ſize, if the branches are not lopped off. The ſhoots are covered with a ſmooth pale green bark; the leaves are ſpear ſhaped, between three and four inches long, broad in the middle, and pointed at the end; the wood is very white, and poliſhes ſmooth. Willows are therefore various ſpecies, agreeing in general deſcription.

The Yew grows naturally in England, and alſo in moſt of the northern countries of Europe, and in North America. If ſuffered to grow, it will riſe to a good height, with a very large ſtem. It naturally ſends out branches on every ſide, which ſpread out, and are almoſt horizontal; theſe are cloſely garniſhed with narrow, ſtiff, blunt-pointed leaves, of a very dark green; the flowers come out from the ſides of the branches in cluſters; the male flowers having many ſtamina, are more conſpicuous than the female; theſe, for the moſt part, are upon different trees, but ſometimes are upon the ſame tree; they appear the latter end of May, and the berries ripen in autumn. It has been generally cultivated for the pleaſure-garden, to be clipped into the ſhape of Beaſts, Birds, &c. or for hedges. But as this method is exploded by every perſon of taſte, the Yew is now chiefly planted for wilderneſs-quarters, and for hedges, for which ſervice it is excellently well adapted, as no tree bears clipping ſo well. Theſe trees may be eaſily propagated by ſowing their berries in autumn, as ſoon as they are ripe, upon a ſhady bed of freſh undunged ſoil, covering them over about half an inch thick with the ſame earth. The plants, when they grow up, ſhould be conſtantly cleared from weeds, which, if permitted to grow amongſt them, will cauſe their bottoms to be naked, and frequenly deſtroy the plants when they continue long undiſturbed. The Yews, though of ſlow growth, do ſometimes arrive at a conſiderable ſize. Mr. Pennant mentions one in Fortingal Church-Yard, in the Highlands of Scotland, whoſe ruins meaſured fifty-ſix feet and a half in circumference.

Holly grows naturally in woods and foreſts, in many parts of England, where it riſes from twenty to thirty feet high, and ſometimes more, but the ordinary height is not above twenty feet high. The

manner of propagating the Holly is nearly the ſame as the Yew. The Holly is an excellent plant for hedges, and would claim the preference to the Hawthorn, were it not for the ſlowneſs of its growth while young, and the difficulty of tranſplanting it when grown to a moderate ſize. It will grow beſt in cold, ſtrong, land, where, if once it takes well, the hedges may be rendered ſo cloſe and thick as to keep out all ſorts of animals.

The Cornelian Cherry-tree ſhould be raiſed from ſeeds. Theſe ſhould be ſown in autumn, ſoon after they are ripe, or they will not come up till the ſecond ſpring; and ſometimes, when the intermediate ſummer has proved very dry, they will not appear till the ſummer after; ſo that great care ſhould be uſed to get the ſeeds into the beds as ſoon as poſſible; but if the work cannot be done before the ſpring, and the plants do not come up, the beds ſhould be left undiſturbed for the two following ſeaſons.

The Box-tree is propagated by layers, planted at any time between Michaelmas and March; or by cuttings put down in autumn, and kept watered till they have ſtruck root. It may alſo be raiſed from ſeeds ſown after they are ripe in a ſhady border, and well watered in dry weather. The Dwarf Box, for edgings, is propagated by dividing the plants into as many parts as are furniſhed with roots. The tree grows luxuriantly, and in great abundance, upon Box-hill, at Dorking, in Surry. The Box-tree makes a fine and cheerful appearance in evergreen quarters, and when cut down, the wood ſells at a high price; a ſufficient encouragement for the planter to raiſe it for ſale.

The Fir grows naturally on the Highlands of Scotland, where the ſeeds, falling from their cones, come up and propagate themſelves without any care. But it is not in Scotland only that theſe trees thrive naturally; for they grow ſpontaneouſly in Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. And though, from the above inſtances, it would ſeem that they delighted principally in theſe northern parts, yet, when the plants are properly raiſed and planted out, no climate comes amiſs to them, for they will thrive and grow to be good timber-trees in almoſt any part of the temperate globe.

The Laurel is a native both by ſeeds and cuttings. If the former method is practiſed, the ſeeds muſt be gathered from the trees when they are full ripe; this will be known by their being quite black, which is generally about the beginning of October. Theſe ſeeds ſhould be ſown directly, in beds of light earth, half an inch deep, which muſt be afterwards hooped over, to be covered in very ſevere froſts. A hedge of furze-buſhes ſhould be made around them, to break the force of the freezing black winds, and ſecure the ſeeds, together with the mats, from being deſtroyed. Of the Olive and the Vine, no particular account is given, as not being ſuitable to the climate of Britain.

The editor's valuable notes contain ſuch a maſs of information, as, when compared with the text, ſhews the progreſſion of the knowledge of theſe ſubjects, and introduces a variety of facts, curious as well as uſeful. In illuſtrating the generation of vegetables, he takes a view of generation in general, which he conſiders as univocal and equivocal. The firſt is, when any thing was produced from its proper egg

or matrix; the ſecond, when any living thing was generated by chance from the confuſed mixture of particles. God, at the firſt, gave to every living thing its own proper ſeed, and to each a tendency or propenſity to propogate its ſpecies; and eſtabliſhed this firſt and great law, to remain unalterable: "Increaſe and multiply." If from putrefaction, and the heat of the ſun, living creatures and plants could be produced, it would have been needleſs, and conſequently highly unworthy of the Supreme Being to have created ſo many, and ſo amazingly curious veſſels, for the preparation of the ſeed; for, in that caſe, putrefaction would be equivalent to creation; and, if every minute inſect, and other animals could be produced from putrefaction, and hatched by the heat of the ſun, why might not horſes, elephants, and other large animals, be produced in the ſame way? For, in large bodies, the mechaniſm is eaſier, as the matter is more manageable; but inſects, and, as we may ſay, ſuch nothings, what wiſdom, what power, what inexplicable perfection is diſplayed, ſince nature is never more complete, than in her moſt minute works.

The limits of this publication does not permit us to follow the author and his editor through more of the production before us, but we cannot conclude, without ſtrongly recommending the peruſal of this work to men of phyſical and botanical reſearch; to landholders, wiſhing to improve their property; and to politicians, deſirous of inveſtigating important branches of national economy.

HISTORY.

National Transactions.

INCLUDING A GENERAL VIEW OF THE PEACE.

THE affairs firſt in importance in the hiſtory of the preſent month, are the proceedings of Parliament.

A war of nine years, the greateſt and moſt momentous in which Britain was ever engaged, productive of accumulated burthens, moſt ſeverely felt, though firmly, loyally, and patriotically borne, has at length terminated in a Peace. This event diffuſed very general ſatisfaction and happineſs throughout theſe realms. Peace, it was ſanguinely expected, would give new life to Britiſh ability, induſtry, and enterprize, in the various departments of beneficial exertion. The votaries of peace augured from its proſperity advancing in adorable ratio from increaſing encouragement to productive labour, and increaſing abundance of the neceſſaries of life. That which they had ſo eagerly deſired, and in which they ſo highly rejoiced, they hope to be permanent.

Though the exulting joy with which the tidings of peace were received was general, yet was it univerſal. Of thoſe who during the war had oppoſed the adminiſtration which directed affairs during the greater part of the conteſt, all the moſt eminent, either for rank or talents, approved of conciliation with the French Republic. The cenſurers of the preliminaries were chiefly found among thoſe who, during the war, had ſtrenuouſly ſupported Government.

The meeting of Parliament concerning the Peace unfolded different opinions, both of approbation and of diſapprobation. Miniſters defended the Peace, not only as generally expedient, but as honourable and advantageous in point of terms. This opinion is ſanctioned by the weighty authority of

Mr. Pitt. Members who, from the beginning, have been averſe to the war, have concurred in approving of peace as expedient and neceſſary, but have not included the terms in their approbation. They however think that none of our ceſſions were ſo very material as to afford any adequate ſubject for perſeverance in the war. This opinion is ſupported by the weighty authority of Mr. Fox. On the other hand, ſome members, without ſeeing any general objection to peace with the French Republic, cenſured the preſent peace, becauſe, according to their conception, it has not eſtabliſhed that ſecurity which we ſought by the late, as well as former wars with France; that the treaty was much leſs favourable than our circumſtances and reſources might have procured, and that continuance in the war would have been preferable to ſuch a peace. This is the opinion of which Lord Grenville and his ſupporters reſted their oppoſition. A ſtill ſmaller number thought that peace with republican France is pregnant with miſchief to the Britiſh monarchy and exiſting eſtabliſhments. Theſe are the chief grounds of the oppoſition of Mr. Windham to the Peace. In ſome of the principal members we may trace this diverſity of opinion to the different doctrines promulgated by illuſtrious ſenators at the commencement of the French revolution. Theſe, many of our readers may remember, are reducible to three heads, reſpectively maintained by Meſſrs. Burke, Fox, and Pitt.

Mr. Burke, reviewing the details and operations of the French innovators from their ſeries, examining their characters, inveſtigating their intellectual, moral, religious, and political principles, drew a very general and comprehenſive inference, that the revolutioniſts, of every kind and ſucceſſion, were the determined and inveterate enemies of religion, virtue, civilization, manners, rank, order, and property, throughout the world; were eagerly and reſolutely bent on diſſeminating diſorder, vice, impiety, and miſery; that they purſued thoſe ends, not in the ardent violence of infuriate paſſion, but in the principled and ſyſtematic conſtancy of depraved, but powerful and energetic reaſon and invention. He reckoned them totally incorrigible by any internal means, and therefore ſtrenuouſly inculcated the employment of external force, to overpower an aſſemblage of beings who, in his eſtimation, unleſs conquered, would deſtroy and devaſtate mankind. Long before the commencement of hoſtilities between France and Germany, he had ſuggeſted a confederation of the European powers, to ſubjugate men whom he thought revolutionary monſters. He had uniformly written, and ſpoken to the ſame purport. He eagerly promoted war for the reſtoration of the hierarchy, ariſtocracy, and monarchy. Until ſuch reformation, he thought, ſhould be effected, and the principles that had overthrown them ſhould be deſtroyed, the neighbouring nations never could be tranquil and ſecure. He deſired war with the French revolutioniſts as Jacobins, who, unleſs they themſelves were ſubdued, would overrun, plunder, and deſolate, the whole world. France would be ſwayed by this pernicious Jacobiniſm, until the ancient orders were re-eſtabliſhed. No peace could be ſafe with regicides. Inceſſant war ought to be waged with the French republic. Theſe are the views of Mr. Burke from the firſt diſcuſſion of the French revolution, by himſelf and Mr. Fox, in the Houſe of Commons, in 1790, to his laſt letter on a regicide peace, in 1797, a few months before his death. Peace with regicide France conſidering as incompatible with the independence, and even exiſtence, of the Britiſh conſtitution, the order and happineſs of ſociety, he, according to his own theory, loyally and patriotically deprecated any treaty, which he conceived muſt be ruinous to his king and country. If Burke had lived, it is not only probable, but morally certain, that he would have reprobated this peace, or any peace which did not re-eſtabliſh what *he called* MORAL France

The ſecond opinion is that of Mr. Fox, the ardent votary of liberty and the rights of the people. This illuſtrious ſenator reprobated the ancient Government of France as totally inconſiſtent with the only legitimate ends of political ſyſtems—the welfare and happineſs of all ranks and claſſes. He re-

joiced that ſo populous, brave, ingenious, and powerful a nation, had emancipated itſelf from lordly, prieſtly, and kingly tyranny. Extrication from ſo humiliating and oppreſſive evils, he concluded, muſt ultimately be a momentous good. Eager and vehement in all their purſuits and efforts, he ſaw that the French, as votaries of new liberty, preſerved the national character of ardent ſenſibility proceeding to exceſs. Enthuſiaſm, whitherſoever directed, had driven that volatile, active, and intrepid people to great violence. This had been the conſequence of theological enthuſiaſm in the ſixteenth century, in the days of Catholic league; of loyal enthuſiaſm in the ſeventeenth century, during the oſtentatious ſplendour and imperious tyranny of Louis XIV.; the much nobler enthuſiaſm of liberty glowing in their ſuſceptible breaſts at the cloſe of the eighteenth century, produced, with manly and elevated ſentiments, very reprehenſible exceſſes. But the outrages, in Mr. Fox's eſtimation, had not, as Mr. Burke thought, any permanent and neceſſary connexion with the ſpirit of liberty by which they were now actuated. The enthuſiaſm would ſubſide in the preſent, as well as in every other inſtance, if left to its own operation. The licentious extravagance of new freedom, unfettered from galling bondage, would, when corrected by time and experience, be improved into moderate, rational, and beneficial liberty. Enthuſiaſm, he ſaid, engaged in vindication of human rights, though frequently exceſſive in its operations, in the whole reſult never fails to be ſalutary, and conducive to human happineſs. But if you wiſh this paſſion to cool, you muſt not combat it by force. Oppoſition will ſerve only to furniſh materials to a fire that might otherwiſe die away. A confederacy of foreign powers, againſt a people ſo inſpirited, inſtead of ſubduing them, will only rouſe them to more formidable exertions. Such a project, even were it thoroughly juſt, is unwiſe; becauſe it is impracticable. You will exhauſt your reſources, weaken your power, without making any impreſſion on its object. But it is unjuſt, as well as unwiſe. Criminal as thoſe French republicans are in their various confiſcations and maſſacres, and even in the murder of their king, theſe acts are no crimes againſt England. If the French nation chooſe to aboliſh exiſting orders, to annihilate their monarchy, nobility, and prieſthood, what concern has England in their internal regulations? Muſt Britain fight with every government that happens to differ from her own; and to be in her apprehenſion inconſiſtent with the ends of government? Did we go to war with the French tyrants merely becauſe they were deſpots? Are we to wage eternal war with the French republic becauſe, in the courſe of the revolution, ſhe has incurred the guilt of a regicide? The internal conduct of the French is no reaſon for Britain commencing, or continuing hoſtilities. Her internal conſtitution ought to be no bar to a negociation between her and this country. Our efforts will doubtleſs manifeſt Britiſh valour and power, but exerted to no uſeful purpoſe. We ſhall, as in the American war, ſpill the blood of our brave countrymen, be overwhelmed with additional debts, and, as in the American war, totally fail. We ſhall, in the end, be obliged to conclude a peace, recogniſing any form of government which France ſhall then have choſen. In perfect conſiſtence with his theory, Mr. Fox was uniformly the votary of peace with republican France, and has approved of the recent concluſion of peace.

A third opinion was that of Mr. Pitt. This able miniſter, without ſpeculating, like the other two law-givers, as a political philoſopher on the tendency of the revolutionary principles and paſſions, and their probable operation and effects on civil ſociety, as a ſtateſman watched their overt-acts, in either their eventual or immediate relation to the country in which he held ſo very high an executorial office. He was far from conceiving, as an abſtract propoſition, the incompatibility of French revolution with Britiſh tranquillity and ſecurity. At one period, he conſidered the actual proceed-

ings of France, both relative to aggrandizement and to interference with the internal government of other countries, including his own, combined with a ſpecific aggreſſion, as not only juſtifying, but requiring hoſtile reſiſtance, and the prevention of intercourſe. On theſe grounds Mr. Pitt ſupported the commencement and the continuance of the war. He never conſidered the internal government of France as a bar to peace and amity, but declared, that whatever might be the conſtitution of France, he would recommend peace, as ſoon as he ſaw grounds for concluding that the French ſyſtem and conduct ceaſed to be inimical to the ſecurity and independence of Great Britain and her allies. According to this view of affairs, he was neither, like Mr. Burke, the votary of perpetual war with the regicide republic, nor, like Mr. Fox, the conſtant and ſtrenuous advocate of peace with France, acting as ſhe did under her ſucceſſive revolutions, and various rulers. Thus he might, at different periods, ſupport either peace or war, according to exiſting circumſtances. Conceiving the circumſtances of the times, and the character of France to be now changed, ſo as, in his opinion, to admit of peace, and knowing that, if attainable with honour and ſecurity, it was very deſirable to this country (though long the ſtrenuous advocate of war), yet now, without any juſt cauſe of inconſiſtency, he ſupported the peace.

The Miniſters, though in the time of their predeceſſors they coincided in the views and policy of Mr. Pitt, whether the war was rightly or wrongly commenced and continued, yet, when peace obviouſly could be attained with honour and advantage, have deſerved well of their country in procuring the reſtoration of ſo invaluable a bleſſing. Though moſt of the ſupporters of the late adminiſtration adopted the modified political views of Mr. Pitt, which were to depend upon circumſtances and expediency, a few of the abettors of the war concurred, if not to the full, at leaſt to a very great extent, in the theory of Mr. Burke. If they did not, like him, reprobate every idea of peace with the French republic as utterly deſtructive to religion, order, property, and the good government of this country, they deemed every apparent approach to conciliation extremely dangerous. Of this number were chiefly the ſeparatiſts from the party once headed by Mr. Fox, ſince, by the late Oppoſition, ſtiled the *alarmiſts*. One of the moſt eminent members of that body has uniformly been Mr. Windham. With the moſt profound admiration of that illuſtrious ſage, whoſe wiſdom and genius his own enables him ſo fully to appreciate, he has imbibed a great portion of that philoſophy, moral, religious, and political, in which Edmund Burke was ſo eminently tranſcendent. Reſembling him in the ſolid and ſubſtantial qualities which were the ground-work of his excellence, he alſo reminds us of Burke in the varied, verſatile, ſtrong, and ſplendid imagery which, from Burke, delighted the taſte, and captivated the fancy, while his knowledge and wiſdom were informing and inſtructing the underſtanding, and improving the heart. Mr. Windham is, indeed, the Xenophon, who, from a kindred ſpirit, comprehending the matter, and catching the manner of his philoſophical maſter, exhibits at once the depth of his beneficial ethics, and the eaſy, unaſſuming familiarity of his impreſſive ſtyle. When admiration mingles with affection, it produces, even in men of the greateſt ſagacity and diſcernment, an adoption of opinion, further than cool, unbiaſſed reaſon would juſtify. Mr. Burke's project of perpetual war with a country becauſe it had overthrown its monarchy, ariſtocracy, and hierarchy, might have been diſcovered, by much leſs penetration than falls to the ſhare of Mr. Windham, to be romantic in its principle, impracticable in its object, and ruinous in its operation; to be the effuſion of that creative imagination in which Mr. Burke equalled moſt of our poets, inſtead of being the deduction of that reaſon and wiſdom in which he has equalled moſt of our philoſophers. But though we diſagree in his inference, we muſt admit that, upon his theory, his concluſion is legitimate; and that, in cenſuring the preſent peace, Mr. Windham, in thorough conſiſtency with himſelf, ſupports the

doctrines and ſentiments of Mr. Burke. One of the chief grounds of alarm from the peace is, that intercourſe with France may tend to revive the ſpirit of Jacobiniſm in this country; but Jacobiniſm is cruſhed in France herſelf. The ableſt and moſt effectual Anti-jacobin, who has hitherto appeared in the chief conſul Bonaparte, whenever ſucceſs enabled him to follow the dictates of his own judgment and diſpoſition, has uniformly ſhewn himſelf the friend of religious eſtabliſhments, order, and proſperity. That Bonaparte is himſelf a theological devotee is not, we believe, ſuppoſed; but as a political philoſopher, and a ſtateſman, he, like the immortal Frederic, cheriſhes inſtitutions and eſtabliſhments for the promotion of religion, ſo eſſentially conducive to the authority of a ſupreme executive magiſtrate. To the other conſtituents of Jacobiniſm he has ſhewn himſelf no leſs inimical than to impiety. He has uniformly been the promoter of peace. He thoroughly underſtands the capabilities of his country, and her real intereſt reſulting from her circumſtances and relations. He ſees that it is unwiſe in the two greateſt nations of the univerſe to be impairing their ſtrength, and exhauſting their reſources. Internally he ſupports order, ſubordination, and property, as well as religion. Jacobiniſm, indeed, in France, may very fairly be ſaid to be dead. But the ingenious and learned gentleman appears to be haunted with its ghoſt, and to fancy that, like the ſpectres whom Eneas beheld in the infernal regions, the image of this monſter ſtill retains a ſtrong predilection for her favourite purſuits in the world above, and ſtill deſires to run over the earth, ſpreading deſolation and deſtruction:

Quæ gratia currum
Armorumque fuit vivis,
Eodem ſequitur tellure repoſtos.

But whatever may be the deſires of its unſubſtantial miniſters, their efforts are now powerleſs:

Pars tollere vocem
Exiguam; inceptus clamor fruſtratur hiantes.

Reaſoning juſtly from his own theory he is inimical to a peace, which certainly, if we were to admit his hypotheſis, would be extremely dangerous to Britain.

Theſe diſcuſſions, however, occupied only the firſt day of Parliament. Both in and out of the Houſes the peace has, except to very few, afforded the higheſt ſatisfaction. There are, indeed, ſtill a few, not belonging to the Britiſh Senate, or at leaſt influenced by motives totally unconnected with Parliamentary duty, who revile a treaty which they conceive inimical to the exhorbitant gains of commercial ſpeculations, or have found to diſappoint hopes of expected profit from the pecuniary demands and difficulties of their country. Theſe, to gratify the reſentment of unſucceſsful avarice, declaim againſt the peace; and juſtify the effuſions of their ſelfiſh paſſions by the authority of a Grenville and a Windham, with their very reſpectable, though ſmall body of ſupporters. If a ſtock-jobber has, in the eagerneſs of a gambling adventure, made contracts beyond his capital or credit, and is enraged againſt the makers of the peace, becauſe by putting an end to the conſumption of national blood, and the exhauſtion of national treaſure, they have prevented ſome unſubſtantial frequenters of Change-Alley from gaining five per cent by a time-bargain, where he, from want of property was aſſured he could not loſe one-eighth, in venting his gall, he claſſes himſelf as the cenſurer of peace with a Grenville and a Windham. One declares, that by our ceſſions to France, we have parted with our ſecurity, and made peace on moſt diſadvantageous *terms* when all he really regrets is, that peace is likely to reduce the high *terms* of proviſions. Another declares, that no peace can be ſafe without the reſtoration of monarchy, while all that he wiſhes is the reſtoration of *monopoly*. Thoſe who trade in money, inſtead of commodities of productive induſtry, hate this peace becauſe it muſt diminiſh the exorbitant and uſurious gains of money-changers. All who derive their chief

gains from the neceſſary wants and pecuniary exigencies of private individuals of the public, lament the ceſſation of a war ſo ſeverely burdenſome, both to the public and the great majority of individuals. But without dwelling on thoſe who deſire to fatten on their country's blood, we may obſerve to them, who from conviction are inimical to the peace, that the preſent treaty, in combination with the efforts and events of the war, has eſtabliſhed ſecurity, and is likely to be permanent.

In engagements between either individuals or nations, one of the moſt ſolid ſecurities for the adherence of contracting parties to any agreement is their mutual intereſt, if clearly and properly underſtood. It is the intereſt of France to be at peace with Britain, and the intereſt of Britain to be at peace with France. Both countries have immenſe capabilities, which, in improving to the utmoſt extent, they may be ſo far from hurting each other, that they may reciprocally promote their higheſt commercial advantages. While Britain ſurpaſſes the whole world in naval power, mercantile efforts, and extenſive capital, it is the intereſt of every nation that has either commodities to ſell, or wants to be ſupplied with the proceeds, to be at peace with Britain. Nothing is more evident, than that the commercial exertions of Britain, promoting the induſtry and arts of the various countries with which ſhe traffics, and exchanging ſurplus for ſupply, benefits, reſpectively and jointly, any country within the wide ranges of her trade. It is therefore the intereſt of all thoſe nations, that her commerce ſhould continue and improve, by which their emolument and gratification continue and improve in the ſame proportion. Her capital, ability, ſkill, and induſtry, ſtimulate their moſt lucratively productive labours, and enable them to purchaſe imported accommodations and luxuries. As the commerce of England is ſo much connected with her navy, it is advantageous to all other induſtrious nations that her maritime greatneſs ſhould flouriſh. Enmity to the naval power of England, in any country that has valuable commodities to export, and wiſhes with them to purchaſe neceſſary or pleaſurable imports, is contrary to every principle of ſound policy, and muſt ariſe from envy, jealouſly, or ſome illiberal and uncivil motive, and not from well-digeſted projects, either of accumulation or ambition. Moreover, whatever State deſires to eſtabliſh or promote commerce and naval greatneſs, if it act wiſely, muſt abſtain from war with England, which can cruſh its trade and maritime power. Ever ſince England was miſtreſs of the ſea, all States from Spain under Philip II. downwards to Spain, France, Holland, and the Northern Powers in the late war, have, by the interruption of commerce and its profits, as well as by actual diſcomfiture and diſaſter, received ſtriking and awful leſſons of the prepoſterous folly of any, or all maritime countries, adventuring to provoke the power of Britannia ruling the waves. The impolicy of any country engaging in ſo hopeleſs a conteſt is enhanced by her capabilities of reſources and national character, and the valuable advantages which ſhe may poſſeſs and enjoy, if ſhe abſtain from war with England. The firſt continental nation of Europe, or the world, is, beyond all queſtion, France. Her centrical ſituation, her extenſive and compact territory, her fertile ſoil, her genial climate, her populous country, the activity, courage, and inventive genius of her inhabitants, have combined for many ages to render her far ſuperior to all kingdoms on the Continent; and in land-force, to any power in the world. In commercial and naval power, from her ſituation, reſources, and the character of her people, far ſurpaſſing other States, ſhe has been ſecond to Britain only. Often during the laſt century, and in the latter part of the ſeventeenth, had ſhe achieved a very high pitch of commercial and naval greatneſs, during peace with England, when engaging in war with her inſular neighbours, in the repeated deſtruction of her commerce and navy, ſhe was admoniſhed, that though to her belonged ſuperiority by land, it was her intereſt not to vie at ſea with the overwhelming ſuperiority of another. The hiſtory of the principal wars that took place between England and

France, is ſufficient to ſhew that whichſoever was the aggreſſor, both were the loſers. Both interrupted the progreſs of induſtry; both expended the lives of many valuable ſubjects; both incurred moſt grievous debts. The laſt war more clearly than ever demonſtrated, that peace would have been much more advantageous for both parties. Never were the efforts of theſe two extraordinary nations ſo energetic, extenſive, and efficient, as in this tremendous war. Never did Britain, defeated where ſhe fought with continental allies, where ſhe ſtood alone vanquiſhing the united maritime world, receive ſo ſignal a leſſon, that it is not her intereſt to take the lead in continental wars; to incumber herſelf with confederates, that if ſhe muſt fight, ſhe ſhould combat on her own element, or where the conveyance and ſupport of military force depends upon pre-eminence of naval power. Never did France, ſo ſplendidly and glorioufly triumphant, againſt all powers of the Continent, but with her allies vanquiſhed, when ſhe contended with Britain alone, receive ſo ſignal a leſſon, that it is her intereſt to avoid war with the only nation whoſe power, reſources, energy, and genius, are a match for her own. France, indeed, appears now convinced that peace with England is her intereſt. This has uniformly been the opinion of that extraordinary perſon who, not by the accident of birth, but the pre-eminence of nature, is now ſupreme Magiſtrate over thirty millions. The firſt act of Bonaparte's executorial office was to propoſe peace to the King of England. Why, (ſaid he, in his dignified brevity of ſublime wiſdom, deſpiſing all circuitous ceremony in ſpeaking a plain and beneficial truth) ſhould the two firſt nations of the world waſte themſelves in eternal wars? He has ever ſince been the votary of peace. Both he and the people, over whom, through tranſcendent genius and ſtupendous efforts, he has been called to rule, do juſtice to the virtues of the Britiſh character and Britiſh nation. The extraordinary attention that has been paid to our illuſtrious ambaſſador, and to our countrymen, manifeſts the very high veneration with which both the ruler and people regard this country.

One of the faſteſt cements of political amity is reciprocity of commercial benefit. The ſoaring genius of Mr. Pitt, perceiving that hoſtility between the two countries had ariſen from unwiſe jealouſies, and not from their reſpective intereſt, deviſed a commercial connection, which, exchanging ſurplus for ſupply, ſhould improve the capabilities of both countries, and exert, in reciprocal benefit, thoſe extraordinary energies which had hitherto been ſo often and powerfully employed in reciprocal annoyance. This policy of Mr. Pitt is the grand bond propoſed for permanent conciliation to mutual benefit. The general principle of Mr. Pitt's treaty will, no doubt, ſerve as the baſis of the new arrangement; though details will moſt probably be changed in order to be adapted to the exiſting circumſtances.

The adjuſtment with the Northern Powers ſettles every important object for which Britain contended. The right of ſearching neutral ſhips, ſuſpected to be carrying warlike ſtores to belligerent parties, is nothing more than an extenſion of the principles of ſelf-preſervation and ſelf-defence to objects intended to be hurtful, as well as thoſe actually injurious. This general principle has guided the public law of European nations ever ſince their intereſts and connections have been ſo much intertwiſted; and has been admitted and confirmed in all the particular treaties which included this ſubject in their ſtipulations. Our conteſt with the Powers of the North has, to borrow a phraſe from municipal juriſprudence, obtained a declaratory law, admitting the Britiſh interpretation of general equity, common law, and written law, to be juſt.

The campaign in Egypt has terminated with the complete attainment of our object, and the conſummation of Britiſh glory.

Turkey and Portugal have, from the protecting hand of Britain, procured that reſtitution which they were ſo little able to enforce themſelves.

The preſent Miniſters appear to be actuated by patriotic intentions, and

to have for their principal object the dimunition of the evils incurred by the war, which their will and moderate policy has ended; and to improve the peace which they have so happily concluded.

Among the objects of their attention, it is to be hoped one of the greatest will be Agriculture, and that the most momentous branch of political economy may regain that degree of national attention to which it is entitled. It is to be hoped, that means will be devised for rendering the schemes of monopolizing capitalists, or speculating adventurers, without any capital but the reciprocation of paper, in spite of peace and plenty, to enhance the necessaries of life, recoiling on the machinators, may prevent the accomplishment of so diabolical purposes.

Commercial Affairs.

THE Directors of the Bank of England have agreed to postpone the redemption of the Omnium pledged with them, from the 4th of December to the 22d of January next. We presume this measure has been adopted for the accommodation of those who have agreed to advance the money to be raised for discharging Exchequer bills held by the Bank; yet, even on this ground, it cannot be easily defended; for if such persons are holders of Omnium, and, having occasion for money, refuse to sell at a premium of 24 per cent, it can hardly be conceived that any probable premium would satisfy their avarice; and the hope of getting a higher premium seems to be the only motive from which the request for postponing the redemption can have arisen.

FUNDING OF EXCHEQUER BILLS.—On the 31st of October notice had been given at the Stock-Exchange of the intention of Government to fund about 8,500,000l. of Exchequer bills; but it was afterwards understood that about 2,300,000l. of this sum, being in the hands of the Bank, was not to be actually exchanged for stock, but paid off, by money to be advanced for the puipose by the holders of the remaining 6,200,000l. Accordingly, on the 11th of November, the committee appointed by the holders of the bills waited on the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and agreed to accept the following proportions of stock for each 100l. principal:

	Estimated value.	*Interest.*
25l. Three per Cent. Consols	17 1 10½	0 15 0
25l. ditto, Reduced	16 16 10½	0 15 0
50l. Four per Cents - -	42 7 6	2 0 0
25l. New Five per Cents -	24 15 0	1 5 0
1s. 9d. Long Annuity - -	1 14 4	0 1 9
	102 15 7	4 16 9

The proprietors were also to have an opportunity of subscribing 50l. additional for every 100l. in bills, and the money to be thus raised for the purpose of paying off the bills held by the Bank, was to be advanced by three instalments; 25 per cent. on or before the 24th of November, 25 per cent. on the 18th of December, and the remaining 50 per cent. on the 15th of January; those who complete their subscriptions on or before the 17th of December, to be allowed discount at 5 per cent. per ann.

The bills were to be carried to the Exchequer on or before the 24th of November, and the interest to be calculated to that day, and paid in money; therefore, as the dividend on the 3 per cent. consols commences from the 5th of July last, and the other funds from the 10th of October, the proportion of dividend to the 24th of November, amounting to 16s. 2d. should be deducted from the 100l. subscribed; and thus it will appear that the real interest made is 4l. 17s. 6d. per cent. This, however, is considerably less interest than the bills gave; but as they would otherwise have been paid off, it

was evidently an advantage to the proprietors, inſtead of receiving 100l. in money, to accept the above proportions of ſtock, which they could ſell for 102l. 15s. 7d.; and in conſequence thereof, the fundable bills ſoon ſold at a premium from 1 to 2 per cent.

At a late meeting between Mr. Addington and the Diſtillers, it was agreed that the diſtilleries ſhould be again permitted to work on the 1ſt of next January.

Arrangements, it is ſaid, are nearly completed between this country and France, on the ſubject of a regular intercourſe by packets from Dover to Calais, and *vice verſa*. All paſſengers, in either the French or Engliſh packets, are to be deſcribed in a liſt, which is to be delivered by the Captain to the reſpective agents at Dover and Calais, by which means the Government of each country will know the character of every perſon entering it from the other. This regular intercourſe is expected to be opened in a very few days.

On the 3d of November, a meeting was held of the manufacturers, merchants, &c. in and about Mancheſter, when they came to the following reſolutions—"That the negociation now pending with France and other countries, being of great importance to the commercial intereſts of this town, and neighbourhood, it is expedient that a committee be formed, and a ſubſcription entered into, for the purpoſe of attending to and promoting the welfare of the different branches of our manufactures, with full powers to add to their own number, chooſe ſub-committees, appoint delegates, and take ſuch other meaſures as may, from time to time, appear to them moſt expedient to promote the deſired end." A committee was then appointed.

The merchants of Oſtend have already renewed their ordinary connexions with the ports of Corunna, Seville, Cadiz, Malaga, and other maritime cities of Spain. The great ſluice of Slyckens, which was in part deſtroyed by the Engliſh in their debarkation on that coaſt, is now entirely repaired, and in the beſt ſtate. The merchants of Bruges are making preparations to open a trade with foreign merchants as uſual.

EDINBURGH, Nov. 21.—Wedneſday the Lord Provoſt, Magiſtrates, and Council reſolved to petition the Lords of the Treaſury to extend the bounty on the fiſheries to thoſe which are brought into the market of Edinburgh.

On Wedneſday, the Chamber of Commerce of Edinburgh unanimouſly agreed to ſend a memorial to the Lords of the Treaſury, praying that the prohibition againſt the diſtilleries may be continued.

On Saturday laſt the Magiſtrates and Council of Aberdeen did the ſame.

On the 16th current, the Magiſtrates and Town-council of Kirkaldy tranſmitted a memorial to the Treaſury againſt opening the diſtilleries.

We have authority to ſtate, that at a general meeting of the Trinity-houſe of Leith, held the 18th inſtant, that corporation unanimouſly agreed to make application to Government for the further continuance of the prohibitory act againſt diſtilling from grain in the preſent circumſtances of the country.

The prices of oats on Wedneſday, in Edinburgh market, were from 13s. to 17s. per boll.

CITY BUSINESS.

LONDON. Nov. 24.—A court of Aldermen was held at Guildhall, preſent the Lord Mayor, Recorder, 14 Aldermen, and Sheriffs. The company of Bakers waited upon the court to fix the aſſize of bread, when, on inſpecting the returns of the prices of wheat and flour, it appeared they had conſiderably riſen ſince the laſt return. The Court ordered the price of the quartern loaf to be raiſed to 11¾d. to take place to-morrow.

His Lordſhip afterwards propoſed the ſetting the next aſſize of bread by the average price of wheat, which, after ſome little debate, was agreed to be referred to a committee of all the Aldermen, aſſiſted by the Recorder, Common-Sergeant, Solicitor, and the other Law-officers, to conſider the act of

Parliament of the 37th Geo. III. relative to the ſetting the aſſize of bread, and to report their opinion of the powers veſted in the Court, or the Lord Mayor, for that purpoſe.

The Maſter and Wardens of the Bakers Company were again called in, and informed that the aſſize would be governed by the price of wheat, if the price of flour ſhould continue to advance.

The Court then gave directions for the Committee to be ſummoned to meet to morrow at Guildhall, preciſely at one o'clock, on the ſubject.

SURPLUS TRADE OF INDIA.—A meeting of the Directors of the Eaſt India Company was lately held upon the ſubject of the Private Trade with India, but we underſtand that the reſult has not been ſatisfactory to the agents of the Free Merchants. The Directors appear to perſiſt in reſiſting the application for "a permanent ſyſtem of regulations" reſpecting this trade, founded upon the recommendation of their Governor-General, and acted upon by him in particular inſtances. They have agreed, we believe, that a certain quantity of tonnage employed in the expedition to the Red Sea ſhould next year come home laden with Indian cargoes; which, in fact, Marquis Welleſley, in conſequence of the ſervice obtained from India ſhipping, had previouſly ſtipulated. But they refuſe to concur in any general ſyſtem of regulation by which the merchants of Britiſh India may continually be guided.—In conſequence of theſe circumſtances, the motion of Sir W. Pulteney on this ſubject will, we underſtand be made in the Houſe of Commons.

Our readers, probably, are not acquainted with the general nature of the diſpute. It is well known that, both for the remittance of private fortunes, and the ſurplus produce of our Indian empire, the capital, as well as the tonnage of the Eaſt India Company, is inadequate in a very great degree. The merchants reſiding in India, have, by their agents here, repeatedly applied, in various ſhapes, for increaſed facilities of that object, diſtinctly recognized as ſalutary by the act of 1793, renewing the Company's charter, but for which that act had not made ſpecific proviſion.

The conſequence has been, that the tonnage allowed by the Company in their own ſhips, whether in regard to the rate of freight, the time of ſailing from Calcutta, the regulations, uncertainty, &c. has been found inadequate to the end. The merchants in India are therefore deſirous that India-built ſhips ſhould be taken up by the Company, re-let to the merchant-ſhippers in India, always under the controul of the Company's Government; and that in this manner the ſurplus trade ſhould be directly brought home to the port of London. This, we believe, is pretty nearly the ſubſtance of the caſe.

The Company pretend that this indulgence would lead to the overthrow of their extenſive privileges, to the coloniſation of India, &c. The anſwer to theſe pretences is involved in the general argument for the ſyſtem of liberality, equity, and true policy, contended for by the merchants.

In the firſt place, it is not denied that the Company, as merchants, are incompetent to carry on the full portion of the trade of India which ſeeks a channel of conveyance to Europe. It is notorious that a vaſt proportion of the whole exports from Bengal, Calcutta, Bombay, &c. are brought to Europe, under American, Portugueſe, and Daniſh colours. It is notorious, that, in conſequence of the jealous reſtraints of the Company, much Britiſh capital is embarked in carrying on that trade. It is notorious, that, in conſequence of the ſhare which thoſe nations obtain in the trade, juſt ſo much commerce is diverted, which would centre in the port of London, and thus ſtimulate the induſtry, and increaſe the revenue of Great Britain.

Agriculture.

SMITHFIELD CATTLE AND SHEEP CLUB.

PREMIUMS offered for the Chriſtmas Shew of 1801.

CLASS I.—1. To the owner of the beſt ox or ſteer, weighing upwards of 120 ſtone, (8lb.) a premium of 30 guineas.

2. To the owner of the next beſt ox or ſteer, weighing as above, a premium of 20 guineas.

CLASS II.—3. To the owner of the beſt ox or ſteer, weighing leſs than 120 ſtone, a premium of 20 guineas.

4. To the owner of the next beſt ox or ſteer, weighing as above, a premium of 10 guineas.

CLASS III.—5. To the owner of the beſt fat cow or heifer, a premium of 20 guineas.

6. To the owner of the next beſt fat cow or heifer, a premium of 10 guineas.

CLASS IV.—7. To the owner of the beſt wether ſheep, of the long or combing-wool breed, a premium of 12 guineas.

8. To the owner of the next beſt wether ſheep, of the long wool breed, a premium of 8 guineas.

CLASS V.—9. To the owner of the beſt wether ſheep, of the ſhort, or carding-wool breed, a premium of 12 guineas.

10. To the owner of the next beſt wether, of the ſhort wool breed, a premium of 8 guineas.

CLASS VI.—11. To the owner of the beſt fat pig, not more than ſix months old, a premium of 10 guineas.

N. B. No cake or corn to be given to ſheep.

The candidates for theſe premiums muſt have their cattle, ſheep, &c. at Smithfield, before nine o'clock in the morning, on the Saturday preceding the Chriſtmas market, in order for their being exhibited on the following Monday and Tueſday.

And each candidate must produce a certificate, duly ſigned, blank forms of which may be had, by applying at No. 32, Sackville-ſtreet; or to Mr. Wootton, Smithfield.

The candidates for any of theſe premiums are deſired to take notice, that no cattle or ſheeep can be admitted the owners of which do not conſent that the club ſhall have a return made of the dead weight of offal and quarters, immediately on the cattle or ſheep being ſlaughtered and weighed.

The clergy of the dioceſe of Wincheſter have generally reported to Lord Pelham, that the farmers of their reſpective pariſhes are *not inclined* to make the returns of their crops, per acre, as deſired by Government.

At Warminſter market, on the 31ſt of October, there was a very abundant ſupply of grain, particularly wheat, which fell 8s. per quarter. Barley and oats were ſomewhat cheaper than on the market-day preceding.

The late meeting of the Eſſex Agricultural Society was very numerouſly attended, Filmer Honeywood, Eſq. in the chair; there were many candidates for the medals for dibbling and drilling wheat and other corn. Mr. Wakefield gained the medal for dibbling wheat, having dibbled 264 acres. Mr. Tweed was the ſucceſsful candidate for drilling wheat, but waved his claim in favour of Mr. Ambroſe; he, however, received a prize for drilling the greater number of acres of other corn. Mr. Collyer and Mr Hobbs, were alſo candidates for drilling.

An Agricultural Society was formed at Margate laſt ſpring, for growing Indian Corn, when a number of gentlemen (each) agreed to form plantations. They ſowed about the middle of April, which, however, being far too late, yet ſome plants produced equal to what has been ſeen grow in America.

the Weſt-Indies; it was agreed by the Society, that the gentleman who produced the largeſt and fineſt ear of his own growing laſt ſummer, ſhould be entitled to a prize, which was decided on Wedneſday ſe'nnight, in favour of Mr. Joſeph Hollams.

COUNTRY MARKETS, FAIRS, &c.

DEVIZES, Oct. 20.—Wheat, 60s. to 76s; barley, 38s. to 46s.; beans, 55s. to 60s.; oats, 26s. to 35s. per quarter.

CANTERBURY, Oct. 27.—Fine flour per ſack, 55s. to 56s.; ſecond, 53s. to 54s.; third, 49s. to 50s.; rough meal, 58s.

WARMINSTER.—Wheat, 3l. 10s. to 3l. 12s.; barley, 1l. 18s. to 2l. 10s.; oats, 1l. 9s. to 1l. 15s.; beans, 3l. to 3l. 8l.

NEWBURY.—Wheat, 2l. 10s. to 3l. 14s.; barley, 1l. 5s. to 2l.; oats, 1l. 2s. to 1l. 15s.; beans, 1l. 5s. to 2l. 10s.

BATH, Oct. 28.—Average price of flour, 60s. per ſack. The quartern loaf is 8d. which laſt winter coſt 2s. Beſt beef and mutton, 6d. and 7d. per lb. and prime bacon ſold in the market on Saturday from 8d. to 10d. per lb. although ſome of the ſellers had the aſſurance to demand 14d.

At Roſs fair, there was a great ſhew of good cattle, but the ſale being very dull, few were ſold, and thoſe at reduced prices. A conſiderable reduction alſo took place in the price of pigs. Sheep not much lower. Beſt Welch butter in tubs, 12s. per ſtone. Average of cheeſe: beſt, 63s.; ſecond, 46s. per hundred.

At Woodbridge fair laſt week, the ſhew of ſhort-horned and Scotch cattle was very large, but the prices were kept up ſo high that very little buſineſs was done; nothing of the leaneſt kind was ſold under 3s. per ſtone.

At the late Bridgnorth fair, every article felt a conſiderable depreſſion in price: cheeſe ſold from 48s. to 55s. per cwt.; ſalt butter, from 8d. to 10d. per lb.; hops, from 4l. to five guineas per cwt.

There was lately killed at York, a two ſhear ſheep, bred by Mr. George Parker, of Sutton Grange, near Malton. The four quarters weighed 156lb. He was a very handſome ſheep when living, and when ſlaughtered, proved his value.

DEVIZES, Oct. 30.—Wheat, 56s. to 74s. per quarter; barley, 38s. to 48s.; beans, 46s. to 64s.; oats, 26s. to 35s.

CANTERBUBY, Nov. 3.—Fine flour per ſack, 55s.; ſecond, 53s.; third, 49s.; rough meal, 38s. to 40s.

WARMINSTER, Oct. 30.—Wheat, 3l. 6d. to 3l. 16s.; barley, 2l. to 2l. 10s.; oats, 1l. 9s. to 1l. 15s.; beans, 3l. to 3l. 18s.

NEWBURY, Oct. 30.—Wheat, 2l. 2s. to 3l. 10s.; barley, 1l. 10s. to 3s.; oats, 1l. 2s. to 1l. 15s.; beans, 1l. 16s.

CAMBRIDGE, Oct. 31.—Wheat, 38s. to 40s. per load; rye, 40s. to 45s.; barley, 40s. to 44s.; oats, 17s. to 22s.; peas, 40s.; beans, 40s. per quarter.

ROYSTON, Nov. 5.—Wheat, 40s. to 42s. per load; barley, 44s. to 47s. oats, 1 s. to 23s. per quarter.

STAMFORD.—Wheat 60s. to 72s.; barley, average 39s. 1d.; oats, 20s. beans, 45s. 5d. per quarter.

The aſſize of bread at Cambridge is reduced to nine-pence the quartern loaf wheaten.

At Stamford, in Lincolnſhire, the beſt beef ſells at 7s. 6d. per ſtone, and bread at 8d. the quartern loaf.

At Barnſley fair, the ſhow of pigs was immenſe; and the prices were from 30 to 40 per cent. lower than they were a few weeks ago.

A good rump of beef was ſold at 3d. per pound, and inferior pieces at 2½d. per pound, at Highworth market, laſt Wedneſday.

BATH, Nov. 4.—Average price of flour, 63s. 4d. per ſack.

The average price of good wheat in the North-Riding of Yorkſhire, is about 8s. the buſhel. Oats are reduced to 20s. per quarter. The country

cheeſe, which very recently would ſell for 7s. the ſtone, will not now produce more than 2s. 9d. The fineſt potatoes are ſold at 1s. the buſhel, and butter has fallen about 3d. in the pound. Every kind of meat, however, except pork, maintains the old price, from 7d. to 8d. per pound.

At the late Blandford fair, there was a tolerable good ſhew of cattle, which ſold for good prices; there was alſo a great quantity of ſheep, which met with a very briſk ſale at advanced prices. There were no good horſes, and ſuch as were there met with a very dull ſale. Raw milk cheeſe fetched about 63s. half-ſkim 50s. and the common ordinary 34s. per cwt. The farmers aſked 20l. a load for wheat, and two guineas a quarter for barley; the conſequence of which was, they had very few buyers.

NORWICH, Nov. 12.—Wheat from 29s. to 32s. 6d. per coomb. Beſt flour average 2l. 9s. 4d. per ſack.

CAMBRIDGE, Nov. 7.—Wheat 39s. to 40s. per load. Rye 38s. to 40s. Barley 44s. to 47s. Oats 16s. to 20s. Beans 40s. per quarter.

ROYSTON, Nov. 11.—Wheat 40s. to 42s. per load. Rye 40s. Barley 45s. to 48s. Oats 18s. to 23s. per quarter.

STAMFORD.—Wheat 50s. to 76s. Barley average 40s. 11d. per quarter.

WISBEACH.—Average price of Wheat 57s. 10d. Barley 30s. Oats 19s. 6d. Rape-ſeed, 73s. per quarter.

WARMINSTER.—Wheat 3l. 6s. to 3l. 16s. Barley 2l. to 2l. 12s. Oats 1l. 9s. to 1l. 15s. Beans 3l. to 3l. 8s.

NEWBURY.—Wheat 2l. 5s. to 3l. 12s. Barley 1l. 14s. to 2l. 4s. Oats 1l. 2s. to 3l. Beans 2l. to 3l.

BATH, Nov. 12.—Average price of flour 61s. 8d. per ſack.

CANTERBURY, Nov. 7.—At our market this day the prices were, bags 4l. to 4l. 14s.; pockets 4l. 10s. to 5l. 3s.

CHELMSFORD, Nov. 20.—At Epping fair, in this county, on Friday and Saturday laſt, there was the ſmalleſt ſhew of lean cattle ever remembered. Not more than three ſcore Scots were on the ground, nor above ten ſcore North Wales runts, moſt of which, from the high prices demanded, went off unſold.

CANTERBURY, Nov. 19.—Fine flour per ſack 64s. 6d. to 66s. Second 62s. 6d. to 64s. Third 58s. 6d. to 60s. Rough meal 45s. to 48s. 9d.

NORWICH, Nov. 19.—Wheat from 26s. to 35s. per coomb. Beſt flour average 2l. 9s. 6½d. per ſack.

CAMBRIDGE, Nov. 14.—Wheat 40s. to 44s. per load. Rye 40s. Barley 44s. to 47s. Oats 16s. to 20s. Beans 40s. per quarter.

ROYSTON, Nov. 18.—Wheat 43s. to 48s. per load. Barley 45s. to 47s; Oats 18s. to 21s. per quarter.

STAMFORD.—Wheat 60s. to 74s. 6d. Barley average 46s. 0½d. Beans 19s. 5¾d per quarter.

WARMINSTER.—Wheat 3l. 8s. to 3l. 18s. Barley 2l. 1s. to 2l. 18s. Oats 1l. 9s. to 1l. 15s. Beans 3l. to 3l. 8s.

NEWBURY.—Wheat 2l. 8s. to 3l. 19s. Barley 1l. 6s. to 2l. 8s. Oats 1l. 2s. to 2l. 2s. Beans 2l. 2s. to 3l.

BATH, Nov. 18.—Average price of flour 65s. per ſack.

CAMBRIDGE, Nov. 21.—Wheat 48s. to 52s. per load. Barley 42s. to 45s. Oats 16s. to 20s. Peas 40s. Beans 40s. per quarter.

ROYSTON, Nov. 25.—Wheat 44s to 46s per load. Barley 43s to 46s. Oats 17s to 21s per quarter.

STAMFORD.—Wheat 53s to 77s. Barley average 47s 1¾d per quarter.

CANTERBURY, Nov. 26.—Fine Flour per ſack 62s to 66s. Second 60s to 64s. Third 56s to 60s. Rough Meal 45s to 48s.

PRIZES FOR STOCK CATTLE.—Lord Somerville has given notice of his intention to offer two annual prizes of 50l. each, in due proportions; one to the firſt and ſecond beſt yoke of fat oxen, which ſhall have laboured a given period to provide corn and other food for man, but ſhall never once have conſumed it; the ſecond, to all breeds of ſhort-woolled ſheep (hitherto ſo much

neglected), giving the preference to those most productive in food and raiment.—This prize is designed to countenance farmers in their usual course of profitable husbandry, rather than those who are ambitious of keeping on cattle too long after they are ripe.

Natural Phoenomena.

A Piece of water at Thornville Royal, Yorkshire, which for several years had been ordered to be filled up, and for which purpose logs of wood, roots of trees, rubbish, &c. had been thrown into it, lately been found useful, the Steward was ordered to clear it out. Persons were accordingly employed, and though almost choaked up by weeds and mud, so that little water remained, and no person conceived any fish, except possibly a few eels, would be found, yet about 200 brace of tench of all sizes, and as many perch were found; about ten brace of which were from three to four pounds weight each. After the pond was thought to be quite free, under some roots, there seemed to be some animal, which was conceived to be an otter as the place was surrounded, and on opening an entrance among the roots, a tench was found of most extraordinary form, having literally assumed the shape of the hole in which he had, of course, for many, many years been confined. His form was an irregular semicircle; his length, from fork to eye, was two feet nine inches, his circumference, to almost the tail, was two feet three inches, his weight eleven pounds, nine ounces and a quarter, his colour was also singular, as his belly was the char, or a vermillion. This extraordinary fish, there being a sculptor in the house, was sketched, and a model is taking of it. After having been shewn to many sporting men, it was carefully put into a pond; but either from confinement or age, or bulk, it only floated, and with difficulty at last, swam gently away. It is now alive and well.

ALPHABETICAL LIST *of* BANKRUPTCIES *and* DIVIDENDS *announced between the 20th of Oct. and the 20th of Nov. extracted from the London Gazettes.*

BANKRUPTCIES.

(The Solicitors' Names are between Parentheses)

AITKIN, James, Castle street, Leicester fields, print seller. (Hill, Rood lane)
Atfield, John, late of Red Lion street, Clerkenwell. (Fothergill and Savage, Old Broad street)
Atherton, Robert, Latchford, Chester, tanner. (Hilton, Manchester)
Andrews, George, Holybourne, Hants, tanner. (Drew, Bermondsey street)
Allen, Theodore, Bath, fishmonger. (Becket, Clement's Inn)
Brondish, Joseph Haines, Birmingham, factor. (Whateley, Birmingham)
Blakey, George, Mile-end, ship-owner. (Wawn, Mark lane)
Buchaunan, John, Woolwich, pork butcher. (Owen and Ralfe, Bartlet's buildings)
Brock, John, jun. Wapping street, slopseller. (Wegener and West, Red Lion street, Wapping)
Bishop, Richard, Terbury, and John Ireland, Culkerton, Wiltshire, corn dealers. (Pitt, Cirencester)
Blair, John, London street, Ratcliff cross, mariner. (Nind, Prescott street)
Barnes, John, Bolton, cotton manufacturer. (Windle, Bartlet's buildings)
Cawthorn, George, British Library (late Bell), Strand, London, bookseller. (Thomas Lamb, Harper street, Red Lion square)
Craig, James, Lime steet, merchant. (Leigh, Bridge street, Blackfriars)
Cortissos, Abraham Hiam, Leman street, merchant. (Willett and Annesley, Finsbury square)
Cheyney, John, Oxford street, linen draper. (E. and T. Dawes, Angel court, Throgmorton street)
Cornish, John, Deptford, butcher. (Jones, Nag's Head court, Grace Church street)
Cobham, Elijah, Liverpool, merchant. (Ellames, Liverpool)
Conkes, John, White Horse lane, Stepney, coal merchant. (Harper, Cannon row, Westminster)
Debrett, John, Piccadilly, bookseller. (Wright and Bovill, Chancery lane)
Dwyer, James, Bristol, hatter. (Blandford and Sweet, Inner Temple)
Else, William, Fleet street, warehouseman. (Kibblewhite, Gray's inn place)
Evans, Richard, City road, Middlesex, umbrella maker. (Swann and Willington, Fore street)
Evans, John, late of Wolverhampton, now of Liverpool, hardwareman. (Windle, Bartlet's buildings)
Furnell, James, Kent road, fellmonger. (Drew, Bermondsey street)
Hodgson, Thomas, Liverpool, broker. (Edward Foulkes, Manchester)
Henchan, John, Liverpool, dealer in muslin. (Pennington, Liverpool)
Halliday, William, Watling street, warehouseman. (Palmer and Tomlinson, Warnford court)
Hefford, Joseph, Curtain road, Shoreditch, taylor. (Walton, Great Shire lane)
Humphreys, Evan, Temple street, Bristol, victualler, &c. (C. Millin, Bristol)
Harvey, W. Liverpool, woollen draper. (Frecleton, Liverpool)
Henderson, Robert, Oxford street, fishmonger. (Orrell, Winsley street)
James, Robert, Lydstone, Penryn, dealer. (George Chapman George, Penryn)
Jeayes, John, Aldersgate street, merchant. (Hall, Red Lion court, Fleet street)
Izod, William, Lamb street, Spital fields, baker. (Crosby, Dyer's buildings)
Kind, Peter, and William Smith, Southampton, linen drapers. (Leigh, New Bridge street)
King, George, Frome-Selwood, Somerset, cabinet maker. (Walthew, Lower Seymour street)
Leigh, Thomas, Foxdenton, Lancaster, dealer. (Low and Halsted, Manchester)
Ludley, William, Petworth, shopkeeper. (Pearce and Dixon, Paternoster row)
Miller, James, Hammersmith, wheelwright. (Williams, Bartlet's buildings)
Mitchell, Henry, Gosport, rope maker. (Lewis Young, Gosport)
Middleton, William, J. H. Pemberton, and George Felton, Liverpool, merchants. (Stainshed and Eden, Liverpool.
Malianeu, George, Salford, cotton manufacturer. (Lowe and Hailhead, Manchester)
Mardian, John, Little Russell street, Bermondsey, tanner. (Lee, Tanfield court, Temple)

Meycock,

Meycock, James, Broad ſtreet, St. Giles's, haberdaſher. (Weightman, Caſtle ſtreet, Holborn)
M'Carty, John, Liverpool, merchant. (Windle, Bartlet's buildings)
Newton, John, Manchester, check manufacturer. (G. and W. Nabb, Manchester)
Newton, J. Kirby Louſdale, Weſtmoreland, liquor merchant. (Barrow, Threadneedle ſtreet)
Nathan, Henry, Sheerneſs, ſhipſeller. (Bexwell, Little George ſtreet, Minories)
Ogden, James, Aſhton-under-line, cotton ſpinner. (J. Higſon, Manchester)
Orſtein, Fred. Ludwig, Emel, Frith ſtreet, mathematical inſtrument maker. (Paſmore, Doughty ſtreet, Foundling hoſpital)
Pemberton, John Holland, Liverpool, merchant. (Ward, Dennett, and Greaves, Covent garden)
Pheaſant, Edward, Grantham, dealer. (Concanen, Coleman ſtreet)
Palmer, Mark, Monkwearmouth-ſhore, Durham, ſail maker. (Wawn, Mark lane)
Quantfill, Wm. William ſtreet, Shoreditch, carpenter. (Moore, Johnſon's court, Fleet ſtreet)
Rowlands, Edward, Coalbrooke Dale, Salop, barge owner. (Morris, Newport)
Rudhall, Ant. Ledminſter, Somerſet, baker. (B. and O. Smith, Briſtol)
Rawley, Joſeph, Chancery lane, boot and ſhoe maker. (Newcomb, Vine ſtreet, Piccadilly)
Roſs, Henry, now or late of Liverpool, Co-partner with William Roſs, of Waſhington, North Caroina. (Peter Ellames, Liverpool)
Serle, John, Shepton Mallet, Somerſet, clothier. (Henry Davis, Briſtol)
Scott, John, and Francis Roach, Caſtle ſtreet, Leiceſter fields, linen drapers. (Parry, Thavies inn)
Shynn, Benjamin, late of Pulleigh, Eſſex, ſhopkeeper. (Henry Francis, Remembrancer's Office, Guildhall)
Strong, Edward, and William Harvey, Liverpool, anchorſmiths, &c. (George Rowe, Liverpool)
Shuttleworth, James, Manchester, cotton manufacturer. (Ellis, Curſitor ſtreet)
Serres, John Thomas, Wimpole ſtreet, bookſeller. (Pinero, Charles ſtreet, Cavendiſh ſquare)
Simmonds, John, Canterbury, linen draper. (Brown, Little Friday ſtreet)
Stentaford, John, Plymouth Dock, ſhopkeeper. (Batten and Aniſtice, Temple)
Tinſon, Thomas, Fenchurch ſtreet, wine merchant. (Pullens, Fore ſtreet)
Tayler, Joſeph, and J. B. Marſh, Wigmore ſtreet, linen drapers. (Willett and Anneſley, Finsbury ſquare)
Tayler, Thomas, Birmingham, draper. (Smart, Staple's inn)
Tichens, John George, Queen row, Bethnal green, merchant. (Wybourn, Craig's court)
Tripp, John, Briſtol, ſalesman. (Jenkins and James, New inn)
Tomlinſon, John, Salford, Lancaſter, weſt and twiſt dealer. (Hurd, Furnival's inn)
Tomkinſon, Richard and John, and Daniel Fred. Solieke, Liverpool, merchants. (Orrell, Winſley ſtreet, Oxford ſtreet)
Tilſtone, John, Newcaſtle, Staffordſhire, hat manufacturer. (Poole, Newcaſtle)
Virtue, Timothy, Hammerſmith, carpenter. (Hamilton, Berwick ſtreet)
Varley, Ingram, Wigan, ſhopkeeper. (Gaſkell, Wigan)
Wall, Edward, Shrewsbury, innkeeper. (Roſſer, Kirby ſtreet)
Wallis, Joel, Tiverton, Somerſet, baker. (J. Moon, Keynſham, Briſtol)
Yeoman, William, Theobald's road, tallow chandler. (Pearce and Dixon, Paternoſter row)

DIVIDENDS ANNOUNCED.

Auriol, Peter James, Devonſhire ſquare merchant, Dec. 5
Ayres, John, Old Broad ſtreet, broker, Dec. 12
Anſell, George, White Croſs alley, watch ſpring maker, Dec. 8
Alderton, John, Robertsbridge, Suſſex, dealer, Dec. 5.
Bennett, R. S. Houndſditch, hatter and hoſier, Dec. 17
Bayley, William, Wakefield, ironmonger, Dec. 1
Butler, William, Holborn, tavern keeper, Nov. 21
Barry, John, Orchard ſtreet, Portman ſquare, haberdaſher, Nov. 28
Bartlet, James, Frome-Selwood, clothier, Dec. 14
Brydges, Theo. Colcheſter, innkeeper, Nov. 30
Babington, John, City road, umbrella maker, Dec. 19
Betts, William, William Peter Betts, and George Veriar, Lambeth and Cheam, ſtocking manufacturers, December 1
Cooper, Thomas, jun. Liverpool, horſe dealer, Nov. 16
Curtis, J. Warwick ſtreet, Golden ſquare, harneſs maker Nov. 27
Collins, Robert, jun. late of Union court, but now of Queen ſtreet, Lincoln's inn fields, Dec. 10 (final)
Churchill, William, Somerton, Somerſetſhire, maltſter, Dec. 3
Cockett, Thomas, Peckham, baker, Dec. 8
Chauvet, Lewis, and Peter Turquand, Old Jewry, merchants, Dec. 17
Davies, William, Bartholomew cloſe, linen draper, Dec. 5
Danſon, George, Lancaſter merchant, Nov. 27
Davies, John, Liverpool, dealer, Nov. 19
Denne, William, Canterbury, draper, Nov. 30
Eldridge, Charles, Cheltenham, victualler, Dec. 13
Fiſhwick, William, Whittle in the Woods, Lancaſter, Nov. 25
Fugill, Joſeph, Briſtol, woollen draper, Nov. 23
Foreſt, Digory, Abingdon ſtreet, wine merchant, Dec. 5
Foſter, Chriſtopher, Poultry, bookſeller, Nov. 24
Firth, John, Wathway, Lambeth, dealer, Dec. 8
Gregg, William, Wickham mark t, linen draper, Nov. 3
Gamble, John, late of Willoughby Waterleſs, ſcrivener, Nov. 24
Gregory, Matthew and Thomas, King's Arms yard, merchants, ſeparate eſtate, Dec. 1, joint eſtate, Dec. 8 (final)
Ginger, Richard, Queenhithe, ſalter, Dec. 5
Girling, Daniel, Beccles, ſhopkeeper, Nov. 28
Gearing, William, Water lane, innholder, Dec. 15
Groves, John, late of Liverpool, mariner, Dec. 8
Gouldſmith, Richard, New Bond ſtreet, embroiderer, Dec. 5
Hadfield, Joſeph, Crown court, Broad ſtreet, merchant, Nov. 21
Hathaway, Thomas, Cheltenham, linen draper, Dec. 22
Holmer, Solomon, Doncaſter, leather dreſſer, Dec. 1
Hughes, John, Silver ſtreet, Falcon ſquare, victualler, Nov. 27
Haynes, Thomas, Duke ſtreet, Weſtminſter, haberdaſher, Nov. 28
Haywood, F. and George Palfreyman, Manchester, calico printers, Dec. 11
Hopping, James, Southwark, hatter, Dec. 19
Hendy, Chriſtopher, Falmouth, mariner, Dec. 12
Haſlewood, Joſeph Thomas, Bridgnorth, grocer, Dec. 10 (final)
Ireland, Samuel, St. Clement Danes, merchant, Nov. 28
Jackſon, Ralph, Market Weighton, ſhopkeeper, Nov. 26
Jackſon, N. Man, and George Bartlet, Gerard ſtreet, ironmongers, Dec. 15
King, William, Birmingham, factor, Dec. 8
Kemble, Samuel, and Walter Spens, Norfolk ſtreet merchants, Dec. 1
Knight, Suſannah, Aldersgate ſtreet, cork cutter, Dec. 5
Linaker, John, Liverpool, woollen draper, Nov. 16
Lloyd, James Audlern, Cheſter, grocer, Dec. 21
Lindegrin, Charles, Mincing lane, and Andrew Lindegrin, jun. Portſmouth, merchants, Dec. 22 (final)
Morrell, Nicholas, Newton upon Ouſe, dealer, Nov. 27
Mainwairing, Charles, Manchester, ſhoemaker, Nov. 19
Mewburn, Tulip, Newcaſtle, ſpirit merchant, Dec. 15
Milnes, Richard, late of Crowned, Danbury, maltſter, Dec. 3 (final)
Morgan, William, Portſmouth, mercer, Dec. 15
Manſon, Thomas, Tokenhouſe yard, merchant, Nov. 24
Norris, Thomas, jun. Lincoln's inn fields, cabinet maker, Dec. 5
Nichol, Morgan, St. Martin's le Grand, pawn broker, Dec. 8
Onion, Edward, Briſtol, brewer, Dec. 5 (final)
Phillips, D. Oxford ſtreet, ſtable keeper, Nov. 28
Powley, Richard, Hornſea, Yorkſhire, dealer, Nov. 23
Parker, Richard, Little Argyle ſtreet, fiſhmonger, &c. Nov. 21
Phipps, James, Briſtol, innkeeper, Nov. 24
Plaſtons, John, Worceſter, coach proprietor, Dec. 1 (final)
Parry, George, Long Acre, coach maſter, Dec. 5
Page, Charles, Croydon, taylor, Dec. 17
Parkes (otherwiſe Pearcehouſe), John, Birmingham, gunmaker, Dec. 7
Reid, W. Stockport, draper, Dec. 1
Reilly, James, and James Collins, Mead's court, taylors, Dec. 12
Roberts, John, Pontefract, druggiſt, Dec. 14
Rogerſon, William, Gerard ſtreet, ſtatuary, Dec. 8
Rennie, George, St. Olave's, coal merchant, Dec. 5
Siret, Thomas, Park lane, victualler, Dec. 5
Serjeant, Edward, jun. Minories, ſhoeſmith, Dec. 5
Simpſon, Thomas, Oxford ſtreet, Goldſmith, Nov. 21
Scott, James, Stratford, Eſſex, lime burner, &c. Dec. 5
Stone, John Sykes, James ſtreet, Weſtminſter, oilman, Dec. 5
Scholefield, Richard, Batley, maltſter, Dec. 10
Stone, William, Queen ſtreet, Cheapſide, merchant, December 10
Smith, Theophilus, Tunſtal, potter, Dec. 1
Seagram, Gab. Tiverton, grocer, Dec. 3
Stonehewer, William, and William Davies, Manchester, fuſtian manufacturers, Dec. 15
Smethurſt, James, Oldham, innkeeper, Dec. 8
Towſey, George, Letcomb Regis, miller, Dec. 8
Tatlock, Charles, Cateaton ſtreet, merchant, Dec. 19
Vaughan, Benjamin, Bullhill, calico printer, Dec. 1
Winterbourn, T. and C. Gardner, Carey ſtreet, taylors, Dec. 5
Weaver, Thomas, Green ſtreet, Oxford ſtreet, carpenter, Dec. 1
Willis, James, Pudding lane, merchant, Dec. 5
Wilkinſon, William, and Thomas Chapman, Jewry ſtreet, coal factors, Dec. 5
Walker, Thomas and Richard, Manchester, merchants, Dec. 8
Winter, Thomas Wilſon, Kingſton, Hull, innholder, Dec. 1
Wilſon, Stephen, London, ſilkman, Dec. 5
Watſon, William, Oxford ſtreet, ſilk mercer, Dec. 19 (final)
Wood, Robert, Blackburn, fuſtian manufacturer, Dec. 15
Wilmott, Henry and Samuel, Beaminſter, tanners, Dec. 15
Williams, Hugh, Manchester, umbrella manufacturer, Dec. 7
Woolgar, William, Minories, brazier, Dec. 19
Woolley, John, Rumford, ſaddler, Dec. 19
Yates, T. Stockport, and C. Lowes, late of Manchester, muſlin manufacturers, Dec. 1
Yates, Edward John, Biſhopſgate ſtreet, drug merchant, Nov. 21
Yates, William, Little Guildford ſtreet, Dec. 5

LONDON PRICES OF GRAIN for *November*, 1801.

MARK-LANE, *Monday, Nov.* 2.

Monday, Nov. 2.—We have had a very ſhort ſupply of both Foreign and Engliſh Corn this day, which has cauſed our Wheat-Market to go off at the prices quoted laſt Monday.—Rye continues much the ſame, there being little or no demand.—Owing to the ſmall ſupply of Barley, that article has advanced full 4s. per quarter ſince laſt week.—Oats are much the ſame.—Peas and Beans of all ſorts, remain nearly the ſame as laſt Monday, excepting old Ticks, which are very ſcarce, and rather dearer.—Flour the ſame as laſt week.

Price of Grain, on board Ship, as under:

Engliſh Wheat	48s to 65s	Fine	to 42s	Fine	to 58s
Fine do.	to 68s	Superfine	50s	Superfine	to —s
Superfine	to 70s	Malt	48s to 60s	Grey ditto	36s to 40s
Foreign ditto	46s to 50s	Fine	to —s	Fine	to 42s
Fine	to 65s	Oats	20s to 25s	Small Beans	35s to 42s
Superfine	to 70s	Fine	to 30s	Fine	to 45s
Rye	26s to 30s	Superfine	to —s	Tick ditto	25s to 30s
New	to 2s	Polands	36s to 38s	Old	34s to 40s
Barley	26s to 36s	White Peas	48s to 5 s		

Monday, Nov, 9.—Although we had a pretty good ſupply of Eſſex Wheat today, the ſale was briſk in the morning at 2s. per quarter advance, owing to there being a good many buyers at market.—Rye is very dull ſale, there being little or no demand.—Barley comes ſparingly to market, and is 2 . per quarter dearer than this day ſe'nnight.—Oats are briſker ſale, and are likewiſe dearer.—Grey Peas are 2s. per quarter dearer, but White are very dull, and cheaper.—Small Beans are higher, ſay 2s. per quarter.

Engliſh Wheat	48s to 65s	Fine Barley	to 42s	White Peas	48s to 50s
Fine do.	to 68s	Superfine	—s to 51s	Fine	to 56s
Superfine	to 74s	Malt	48s to 56s	Grey Peas	36s to 40s
Foreign ditto	45s to 55s	Fine	to 60s	Fine	to 44s
Fine	to 70s	Superfine Malt	to 68s	Small Beans	30s to 38s
Superfine	to 72s	Oats	20s to 25s	Fine	to 45s
Rye	26s to 30s	Fine	30s to —s	Tick	25s to 32s
Fine New	to 33s	Polands	—s to —s	Old	36 to 42s
Barley	26s to 36s				

Monday, Nov. 16.—We have had but few freſh arrivals of Corn in ſince laſt Monday, and fine Wheats being in demand, went off from 5s. to 6s. per quarter dearer.—Rye, in conſequence of a ſmall ſupply, is full 4s. per quarter dearer.—There being a good ſupply of Malting-Barley at market, that article has experienced a reduction in price of full 2s. per quarter; but coarſe and inferior ſorts are nearly the ſame as laſt.—Oats are from 3s. to 4s. per quarter dearer, there being very few at market.—Both Tick and Small Beans are dearer, the former about 2s. and the latter 3s. per quarter.—White Peas are nearly the ſame, but Grey are about 1s. per quarter dearer.—Flour is 5s. per ſack dearer.

Engliſh Wheat	48s to 50s 60s	Barley	30s to 36s	White Peas	48s to 56s
Fine	65 to 70s	Fine	to 42s	Fine	to 58s
Superfine	80 to 82s	Superfine New White	to 50s	Superfine	to —s
Foreign Ditto	45s to 50s 52s	Malt	50s to 52 60s	Grey ditto	38s to 42s
Fine	60 to 70s	Fine	to 63s	Fine	to 45s
Superfine	to 80s	Superfine Malt	to —s	Small Beans	32s to 41s
Rye	26s to 30s	Oats	21s to 25s 30s	Old	44s to 46s
Fine	to 36s	Fine	to —s	Tick new	30s to 40s
Superfine	to —s	Polands	32s to 36s	Old	—to 45s

Nov. 23. We had a large ſupply at market this day and our buyers, being of opinion things will be lower ſhortly, cauſed our Wheat-Market to be very dull, and full 5s. per quarter cheaper than this day ſe'nnight.—Rye begins to be in demand.—Barley, of fine quality, owing to a great ſhow of that article at market, is full 2s. per quarter lower.—Malt continues much the ſame.—Oats are from 1s. to 2s. per quarter cheaper.—White Peas are nearly as before; but Grey are full 2s. per quarter cheaper.—Tick and Small Beans nearly as laſt.—Flour 5s. higher than laſt Monday.

Engliſh Wheat	48s to 65s	Barley	28s to 36s	Polands	—s to —s
Fine	72 to —s	Fine	to 40s	White Peas	48s to 50s
Superfine	78 to —s	Superfine	43 to —s	Fine	52s to 54s
Foreign ditto	45s to 60s	Malt	48s to 60s	Grey ditto	36s to 43s
Fine	70 to —s	Fine	to 63s	Small Beans	36s to 42s
Superfine	to 75s	Superfine	to —s	Fine	46s to —s
Rye	26s to 36s	Oats	21s to 32s	Tick do.	36s to 38s
New	to 32s	Fine	36s to —s	Fine	to 44s

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from Oct. 19 *to Oct.* 24, *inclusive.*

Total, 12,628 quarters.—Average, 56s. 2d—3s. 10½d. lower than laſt return.

Return of the Prices of Flour, from Oct. 10, *to Oct.* 16, *inclusive.*

Total, 16,555 ſacks.——Average, 63s. 2d.—0s. 6d. lower than laſt return.

Hence reſults the Price of BREAD.

Eighty Quartern Loaves at 11s. ½d. 3l 15s 0d.——In favour of the Baker 2d.

Price of Hops.

	Pockets.		Bags.	
Kent —	4l 6s to 5l 10s	Kent —	3l 10s to	4l 16s
Suſſex —	4l 6s to 5l 6s	Suſſex —	3l 10s to	4l 6s
Farnham —	5l —s to 7l 7s	Eſſex —	3l 10s to	4l 6s

Seeds.

Red Clover (per cwt.)	20s to 84s	Cinque Foil, ditto	—s to —s
White Clover, ditto	20s to 100s	White Muſtard Seed (p. b.)	10s to 14s
Trefoil, ditto	14s to 50s	Brown do. do.	10s to 14s 6d
Turnip, (per buſhel)	12s to 18s	Canary Seed do. do.	8s to 10s
Rye Graſs, (per quarter)	16s to 28s	Rape Seed, (per laſt)	38l to 40l

Meat. Smithfield, Monday, Nov. 2. (*To ſink the offal, per ſtone of* 8*lb.*)

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

Lamb 5s 0d to 0s 0d

Head of Cattle this day—Beaſts about 2,000—Sheep and Lambs 7,000.

Raw Hides.

Beſt Heif. & Steers, prſt.	3s 2d to 3s 4d	Market Calf ——	9s 0d each
Middling ——	2s 6d to 2s 8d	Eng. Horſe ——	11s to 14s each
Ordinary ——	1s 10d to 2s 2d		

Lamb Skins —— 0s 0d to 0s 0d

Sheep Skins —— 2s 0d to 5s 0d

Price of Leather.

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	17d to 19d	Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. *p.* doz.	21d to 23d
Ditto, 60 to 66lb. each	22d to 24d	Ditto, 50 to 70lb. do.	23d to 28d
Merchants Backs	19½d to —d	Ditto, 70 to 80lb. do.	23d to 26d
Dreſſing Hides —	14d to 16d	Sm. Seals (Greenland)	28d to 30d *p.* lb.
Fine Coach Hides	16d to 18d	Large do.	100s to 130s *p.* doz.
Cross Hides for cutting	17d to 20d	Tanned Horſe Hides	15s to 30s *p.* hide.
Flat Ordinary —	13½d to 15½d	Goat Skins	—s to —s *p.* doz.

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market —	3s 11d	Ruſſia ditto (Soap) —	56s to 57s
Clare Market —	3s 10d	Melting Stuff —	52s to —s
Whitechapel Market —	3s 9d	Ditto rough —	34s to —s
Per ſtone of 8lb.—Average	3s 10d	Graves — —	19s
Town Tallow —	65s 0d	Good Dregs — —	11s
Ruſſia ditto (Candles) —	58s 0s	Yellow Soap, 72s.--Mottled, 80s.--Curd, 84s	

Candles, per dozen, 10s 6d—Moulds 11s 6d

Prices of Hay and Straw on Saturday, Oct. 31.

St. James's—Hay	3l 0s to 5l 10s	Average	4l 5s 0d
Straw	1l 11s 6d to 1l 16s	——	1l 13s 9d
Whitech.—Hay	4l 0s to 5l —s	——	4l 10s 0d
Clover	5l 10s to 6l 10s	——	6l —s 0d
Straw	1l 7s to 1l 14s	——	1l 10s 6d

Coal Exchange for the Week.

Monday—Hebburn	45s 6d	South Moor	35s 0d
Team	36s 6d	Brandling Main	41s 9d
Benton	42s 9d	Hebburn Main	44s 3d
Blyth	42s 0d	Hollywell Main	3 [illegible]
Newbottle	30s 6d	Friday.—No Coals ſold	
Wedneſday—Windſors	36s 0d		

Delivered in Town at 8s. advance on the above price.

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from 26th of Oct. to the 31st of Oct. inclusive.

Total 14,708 Quarters——Average 55s. 8½d.—— s. 5½d. lower than last return.

Return of the Price of Flour, from Oct. 24, to Oct. 30, inclusive.

Total 14,705 Sacks.———Average 59s 6½d.—3s 7½d lower than last return.

Hence results the Price of BREAD.

Eighty Quartern loaves at 9s 10½d 3l 10s———Against the Baker 1s 6½d.

Price of Hops.

	Pockets		Bags	
Kent —	4l 10s to 5l 10s	Kent —	4l —s to 4l 16s	
Suffex —	4l 8s to 5l —s	Suffex —	3l 14s to 4l 6s	
Farnham —	6l —s to 8l 8s	Eſſex —	4l —s to 4l 10s	

Seeds.

Red Clover, (per cwt.)	20s to 84s	Cinque Foil, ditto	—s to —s
White Clover, ditto	20s to 105s	White Muſtard Seed, p. bu.	10s to 14s
Trefoil, ditto	4s to 50s	Brown, ditto do.	10s to 14s 6d
Turnip, (per buſhel)	12s to 18s	Canary Seed, do.	8s to 10s
Rye Graſs, (per quarter)	16s to 23s	Rape Seed, (per laſt)	38l to 40l

Meat. Smithfield, Monday, Nov. 9. (To ſink the offal. per ſtone of 8lb.)

Beef —	4s 4d to 5s 4d	Veal —	4s 6d to 6s 4d
Mutton —	5s 0d to 6s 0d	Pork —	5s 8d to 7s 0d

Head of Cattle this day——Beaſts about 2,000—Sheep and Lambs 6,500

Raw Hides.

Beſt Heif. & Steers, per ſt.	3s 2d to 3s 4d	Market Calf —	9s 0d each
Middling —	2s 8d to 2s 10d	Engliſh Horſe —	12s to 14s each
Ordinary —	2s 0d to 2s 4d	Lamb Skins —	0s 0d to 0s 0d
	Sheep Skins 2s 6d to 5s 0d		

Price of Leather.

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	17d to 19d	Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. p. doz.	21d to 23d
Ditto, 60 to 66lb. each	22d to 24d	Ditto, 50 to 70lb. do.	23d to 28d
Merchants Backs	19½d to —d	Ditto, 70 to 80lb. do.	23d to 26d
Dreſſing Hides —	14d to 16d	Sm. Seals (Greenland)	28d to 30d per lb.
Fine Coach Hides	17d to 18d	Large ditto	100s to 130s p. doz.
Crop Hides for cutting	17d to 19d	Tanned Horſe Hides	15s to 30s p. hide.
Flat Ordinary —	13½d to 16d	Goat Skins	—s to —s p. doz.

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market —	4s 0d	Ruſſia ditto (Soap) —	57s to —s
Clare Market —	4s 1d	Melting Stuff —	52s —s
Whitechapel Market —	3s 10d	Ditto rough —	34s —s
Per ſtone of 8lb.—Average	3s 11½d	Graves —	19s —s
Town Tallow —	67s 6d	Good Dregs —	11s —s
Ruſſia ditto (Candles)	59s to 67s 0d	Yellow Soap, 72s.-Mottled 80s.--Curd 84s	

Candles, p. doz. 10s 6d—Moulds, 11s 6d.

Prices of Hay and Straw on Saturday, 7.

St. James's— Hay	3l 3s to 5l 10s 0d	Average	4l 6s 6d
Straw	1l 10s to 1l 16s 0d	———	1l 13s 0d
Whitechap.—Hay	4l —s to 5l 8s 0d	———	4l 14s 0d
Clover	5l 10s to 6l 10s 0d	———	6l 0s 0d
Straw	1l 6s to 1l 12s 0d	———	1l 9s 6d

Coal Exchange for the Week.

Monday.—Team	33s 6d	Wholer	31s 6d
Wednesday.—Wallſend	45s 0d	Friday.——Sheriff Hill	35s 9d
Walker	45s 0d	Tanfield Moor	36s 0d
Bourn Moor	37s 6d	Willington	45 s0d
Ruſſell's Main	36s 0d	Wallſend	45s 9d

Delivered in Town at 8s. advance on the above price.

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from Nov. 2, to Nov. 7th, inclusive.

Total 8,041 quarters.—Average 53s. 3¼d.——2s. 5d. lower than last return.

Return of the Prices of Flour, from Oct. 31, to Nov. 6, inclusive.

Total 15,085 sacks.——Average 59s. 3½d.——0s. 3½d. lower than last return.

Hence results the Price of BREAD.

Eighty Quartern loaves at 10¾d.—3l 11s 8d—In favour of the Baker 0s 4¾d.

Price of Hops.

Pockets.				Bags.			
Kent —	4l —s	to	6l 6s	Kent —	3l 18s	to	5l —s
Suſſex —	3l 16s	to	5l 1 s	Suſſex —	3l 1 s	to	4l 14s
Farnham	6l 6s	to	7l 7s	Eſſex	3l 18s	to	5l —s

Seeds.

Red Clover (per cwt.)	20s	to	84s	Cinque Foil, do.	—s	to	—s
White Clover, do.	20s	to	105s	White Muſtard Seed (p. buſh.)	10s	to	14s
Trefoil, do.	4s	to	50s	Brown do. do.	10s	to	14s 6d
Turnip (per buſhel)	12s	to	18s	Canary Seed do.	8s	to	10s
Rye Graſs (per quarter)	16s	to	28s	Rape Seed (per laſt)	40l	to	42l

Meat. Smithfield, Monday, Nov. 16. (To ſink the offal, per ſtone of 8lb.)

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

Head of Cattle this day—Beaſts about 1,900—Sheep and Lambs 6,500.

Raw Hides.

Beſt Heif. & Steers, per ſt.	3s 0d	to	3s 4d	Market Calf ——	9s 0d each
Middling —	2s 6d	to	2s 10d	Engliſh Horſe —	12s to 14s each
Ordinary —	2s 0d	to	2s 4d	Sheep Skins ——	3s 0d to 6s 0

Price of Leather.

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	16d	to	18d	Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. *p.* doz.	21d	to	23d
Ditto, 60lb. to 66lb. each	20d	to	22d	Ditto, 50 to 70lb do.	23d	to	28d
Merchants Backs	—d	to	—d	Ditto, 70 to 80lb. do.	23d	to	26d
Dreſſing Hides	14d	to	16d	Sm. Seals (Greenland)	28d	to	30d *p.* lb.
Fine Coach Hides	16d	to	17d	Large do.	100s	to	130s *p.* doz
Crop Hides for cutting	17d	to	19d	Tanned Horſe Hides	15s	to	30s *p.* hide
Flat Ordinary	14d	to	16d	Goat Skins	—s	to	—s *p.* doz

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market —	4s	½d		Ruſſia ditto (Soap) —	56s	—s	
Clare Market —	4s	0d		Melting Stuff —	52s	—s	
Whitechapel Market —	3s	10d		Ditto rough —	3 s	—s	
Per ſtone of 8lb.—Average	3s	11d		Graves —	19s	0s	
Town Tallow	67s	0d		Good Dregs —	11s	0s	
Ruſſia ditto (Candles)	58s	to	60s	Yellow Soap 68s. Mottled 76s. Curd 80s			

Price of Candles per dozen, 10s. 6d.—Moulds 11s. 6d.

Prices of Hay and Straw on Saturday, Nov. 14.

St. James's—	Hay	3l —s	to 5l 6s	Average	4l 3s 0d
	Straw	1l 10s	to 1l 19s	——	1l 14s 6d
White-ch.—	Hay	3l 18s	to 5l 5s	——	4l 14s 0d
	Clover	5l 10s	to 6l 10s	——	6l 0s 0d
	Straw	1l 8s	to 1l 16s	——	1l 12s 4d

Return of Wheat in Mark-lane, from the 9th Nov. to 14th, inclusive.
Total 12,479 Quarters——Average 61s. 4¼d.——7s 1½d. higher than laſt return.

Return of the Prices of Flour, from 7th Nov. to the 13th inclusive.
Total 2,735 Sacks——Average 59s. 8½d——0s 5d higher than laſt return.

Hence reſults the Price of BREAD.

Eighty Quartern loaves at 10¾d 3l. 11s. 8d.—Againſt the Baker—½d.

Price of Hops.

Pockets				Bags.			
Kent	4l 10s to 5l 12s			Kent	—	3l 18s to 5l 5s	
Suſſex	-	4l 4s to 5l 5s		Suſſex	—	3l 16s to 1 —s	
Farnham	-	4l 10s to 5l 5s		Eſſex	——	3l 10s to 4l 8s	

Seeds.

Red Clover, (per cwt.)	20s to 84s	Cinque Foil, ditto	—s to —s
White Clover, ditto	20s to 105s	White Muſtard Seed, p. bu.	10s to 14s 0d
Trefoil ditto	4s to 50s	Brown, ditto do.	10s to 14s 6d
Turnip, (per buſhel)	12s to 18s	Canary Seed do.	8s to 10s
Rye Graſs, (per quarter)	16s to 28s	Rape-ſeed, (per laſt)	40l to 42l

Meat. Smithfield, Monday, Nov. 23. (To ſink the offal—per ſtone of 8lb

Beef ——	4s 6d to 5s 4d	Veal ——	5s 0d to 6s 6d
Mutton ——	5s 0d to 6s 4d	Pork ——	6s 0d to 7s 0d

Head of Cattle this day—Beaſts about 2,000—Sheep and Lambs 7,000.

Raw Hides.

Beſt Heifers & Steers (p ſt.)	3s 4d to 3s 6d	Market Calf Skins	9s 0d each
Middling ——	2s 8d to 2s 10d	Engliſh Horſe hides	12s to 15s each
Ordinary ——	2s 2d to 2s 6d	Sheep Skins	3s 6d to 6s 6d

Price of Leather.

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	16d to 18d	Calf Skins. 30 to 40lb. p. doz.	21d to 23d
Ditto, 60 to 66lb. each	19d to 22d	Ditto, 50 to 70lb. do.	23d to 28d
Merchants' Backs	—d to —d	Ditto, 70 to 80lb. do.	23d to 26d
Dreſſing Hides	14d to 16d	Sm. Seals (Greenland)	16d to 30d p. lb.
Fine Coach Hides	16d to 17d	Large do	100s to 130s p. doz.
Crop Hides for cutting	17d to 19d	Tanned Horſe Hides	15s to 30s p. hide.
Flat Ordinary . .	14d to 16d	Goat Skins	—s to —s p. doz.

Price of Tallow.

St. James's Market —	3s 10d	Ruſſia ditto (Soap) —	—s to 56s
Clare Market —	4s 0d	Melting Stuff	52s —s
Whitechapel Market —	3s 10d	Ditto rough ——	34s —s
Per ſtone of 8lb —Average	3s 11d	Graves	19s to —s
Town Tallow —	66s d	Good Dregs —	12s
Ruſſia ditto (Candles)	59s to 6 s	Yellow Soap 68s Mottled 70s Curd 80s	

Candles per Doz. 11s 0d—Moulds 12s 0d

Price of Hay and Straw, Nov. 21.

St. James's—Hay	3l —s 0d to 5l —s	Average	4l 0s 0d
Straw	1l 5s 6d to 1l 16s	——	1l 10s 9d
Whitechap.—Hay	3l 10s 0d to 5l —s	——	4l 5s 0d
Clover	5l 10s 0d to 6l 10s	——	6l —s 0d
Straw	1l 8s 0d to 1l 15s	——	1l 11s 6d

Coal Exchange for the Week.

Monday—No Coals Sold		Tyne Main	34s 9d
Wedneſday—Coupen	43s 0d	Wallſend	45s 6d
Eighto Moor	35s 9d	Walker	44s 6d
Hebburn	45s 0d	Wallbottle	38s 0d
Heaton Main	44s 6	Wylam	37s 6d
Hollywell Main	38s 0d	Bourn Moor	38s 6d
Hartley	42s 6d	Newbottle	38s 0d
Montague Main	41s 0d	Primroſe	37s 6d
Friday—Sheriff Hill	37s 6d	Rectory	36s 9d

Delivered in Town at 8s. advance on the above price.

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN, by the quarter of eight Winchester bushels; and of OATMEAL, per boll, of 140 pounds Avoirdupois.

From the Returns received in the Week, ended NOV. 24, 1801.

INLAND COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.		Beans.		Peas.		Oatmeal.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlesex	67	8	32	0	42	5	28	8	40	1	45	3		
Surrey	70	8		6	4	6	30	0	37	6	42	0		
Hertford	63	7		0	46	4	27	0	48	3	45	7		
Bedford	63	6	48	6	43	5	24	3	38	4	48	8		
Huntingdon	62	10			42	0	21	4	38	0				
Northampton	69	6			43	6	22	8	47	6				
Rutland	64	0			45	0	20	6	42	0			70	6
Leicester	73	4	48	0	43	5	23	3	37	8	54	0	59	0
Nottingham	76	6	50	0	55	0	25	0	51	0	45	4		
Derby	81	8			52	0	26	4	56	4	44	0	38	11
Stafford	71	3			51	10	27	6	53	1			38	10
Salop	76	7	50	6	53	0	30	7			48	4	87	7
Hereford	72	5	57	6	42	1	27	1	43	2	39	0	83	1
Worcester	75		44	4	44	10	38	1	49	2	43	11		
Warwick	74	7			46	5	28	6	56	5	54	0	54	4
Wilts	67	0	41	0	44	8	31	8	60	8	40	0		
Berks	64	3			39	0	29	3	43	6	44	3		
Oxford	62	0			38	3	29	2	41	1	40	0		
Bucks	67	11			38	8	28	9	43	7	46	6		
Brecon	76	10	48	0	44	9	24	0			32	0	53	3
Montgomery	72	9			44	9	19	11			42	4	50	10
Radnor	80	10			45	4	28	7					110	8

Maritime Counties.

Essex	64	11	30	6	43	2	29	2	32	3	39	0		
Kent	63	10	42	0	41	0	28	3	40	2	49	0		
Sussex	63	8			41	8	27	0	48		43	8		
Suffolk	64	4			43	0	24	6	30	4	45	2	87	2
Cambridge	60	9			38	5	19	6	35	6				
Norfolk	61	7	35	6	41	3	23	8	28	9	40	5		
Lincoln	63	10	41	0	42	6	19	9					55	1
York	65	1	44	4	40	6	21	4	46	0	66	8	48	7
Durham	64	6			31	0	20	6						
Northumberland	55	7	36	0	32	8	18	10			50	2		
Cumberland	78	10	44	8	41	3	24	1						
Westmorland	80	2	55	4	49	2	25	11					21	2
Lancaster	68	2			53	0	28	11					24	10
Chester	67	8			54	0	29	9	30	6			22	4
Flint					57	6								
Denbigh	72	3			55	0	23	0					35	7
Anglesea														
Carnarvon	75	8			45	4	20	0					42	1
Merioneth	76	5	64	0	44	0	20	0			40	0	39	6
Cardigan	72	4			37	7	13	7						
Pembroke	57	9			37	10	12	0						
Carmarthen	70	4			42	5	17	0						
Glamorgan	71	1			38	5	20	0						
Gloucester	68	5			42	4	2	4	50	11	37	8		
Somerset	74	10			44	3	20	0	48	0				
Monmouth	78	11			42	4								
Devon	71	7			37	4	25	0						
Cornwall	66	10			32	3	17	5						
Dorset	71	9			41	11	30	7	56	0				
Hants	64	2			42	1	26	11	54	5	42	0		

A TABLE of the Prices of STOCKS in *November*, 1801.

Days	Bank Stock.	3perCt. Red.	3 perCt. Consols.	4 per Ct Consol.	5perCt. Navy.	5perCt. Loyalty	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	Imp. 3 per Ct.	Imperial Ann.	Irish 5perCt.	Omnium.	Ind. Stock	Eng. Tick	Eng. Tick
													219 218		
Oct. 29	189	68¾ ⅛	68⅞ 69¼	86	85⅞	100¼ ½	100⅛ 99⅜	20¼ 3-16	5 3-16 ¼			98½ ⅜			
30	188½ ⅜	67¾ ½	68½ ½	85¼	85	100 99¾	99½ 98⅜	20 1-16 20				23¾ 22¾	216½	16 4	3 5
31		67⅞ 6	68⅜ ⅛	85¼	84¼	99¾ ⅛	98½ ⅜	20 19⅞				22¾ 22		16 4	8 5
Nov. 2		67¼	68¼	85	85	99¼ ⅜	98⅜ ⅜	19 13-16	5 3-16			22¼		16 4	8 5
3	190 189½	67 66⅞	68 67⅞	84¾		99½ ¼	98⅝ ½	19⅞ ⅝	5⅛ 3-16				215½	16 4	8 5
6	188¾ 189	66⅞ 67¼	67¾ 68⅛	84½		99¼ ⅜	98¼ ½	19 9-16 ⅞	5⅛ 3-16	64¼ exd.			214½	16 5	8 5
7		66⅞ 67	67⅞ 68	84⅝		99¾ ⅝	98½ ½	19¾ ⅞	5⅛ 3-16		97 97	21¾ 22		16 5	8 5
10	189½ ¼	67⅛ ⅜	68¼ ⅜	84¼		99¾ 100	98⅝ ½	19 13-16 ⅞		68⅛ ¼	12¼		214¼ 215	16 5	8 5
11	189½ 190	67⅜ ½	68½ ½	84½		99⅛ 100½	98⅞ 99½	19⅞ 15-16	5 3-16	66¼ ⅜	12 3-16¼	97½	214½ 215¼	16 6	8
12	190¾	67⅝ ½	68⅝ ½	84⅜		1 0¼ ½	98⅜ ⅝	19 15-16 ⅞	5 3-16	66⅜ ½	12¼	97¼	215¾	16 6	8 5
13	189	67⅛ 66⅞	68¼ 67⅞	84	83⅞	100¼ 100	98¼ ¼	19 15-16	5⅛	66 65⅞				16 6	8 5
14	190 ¾	67½ ⅛	68¾ ⅛	84⅜		1 0¼ ½	98¾ ⅜	19 13-16	5 3-16			97¼	23¾ 23	16 6	8 5
16		67 ⅛	68 68⅛	83¾		100⅛ ⅜	98¼ ⅜	19 13-16						16 6	8 5
17	190	67⅛ 67	68⅛ ⅛	83⅞	84	100⅛ ¼		19 11-16 ¾	5⅛ 3-16	66⅛	12 -16¼		215	16 6	8 8
18	190	67⅛ ⅛	68⅛ ¼	84¼		100⅜ ½		19 13-16	5⅛ 3-16		12 -16¼			16 6	8 10
19		67⅛ 67	68⅛ 68	84⅛	83⅞	100⅓ ½	98½ ⅝	19¾ 13-16	5 3-16	66⅛ 66		97⅛ 97		16 6	8 10
20	188½	66⅞ ⅝	67⅝ ⅜	83⅞		100¼ 100	97¾ 96¾	19 13-16		65⅞ ¾		97 96¾	22 21	16 6	8 10
21		66⅜ ⅝	67¼ ⅜	83⅝		100⅛ 100	98½ ¼	19 11-16						16 6	8 10
23	188½ 188	66⅜ ⅛	67¾ ⅝	83¼		99⅞ ⅜	98⅛ 97⅞	19⅝ 9-16	5⅛				21	16 6	8 15
24	188¾ 18	66¾ ⅜	⅛ ½	83½	84	99⅝ ⅜	98⅛ ⅛	19 11-16		65¾ 66				16 6	8 15
25		66⅝ ⅜	67⅝ ⅜	83½	85¼	99½ 100	9 ⅛	19⅝ 11-16	5⅛	66 65¾	12⅛ 3-16		214 213	16 6	9 0
26		6 ⅝ ⅜	67½ ½	83½	85⅛	100⅛ 99¾	98⅛ ¼	19 11-16 ⅝		65¾			213½ 214½	16 6	9 0
27	187	66½ ⅜	67½ ¼	85	84⅞	100 99¾	98⅜ ⅜	19 9-16 ⅝		65⅝ ½	12 1-16		215	16 6	5

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